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WITH REFERENCE HISTORY

A REFERENCE HISTORY OF THE WORLD

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A REFERENCE
HISTORY OF THE WORLD

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT

PART ONE: WORLD HISTORY
PART TWO: NATIONAL HISTORIES

MAPS, TABLES, CHARTS, AND AN EXHAUSTIVE INDEX

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PREFACE.

A HISTORY of the World has for many years been included as a special feature of the Reference-History Edition of Webster's New International Dictionary. Horace E. Scudder prepared the original outline, which was subsequently expanded by John Clark Ridpath, and again enlarged by Edwin A. Grosvenor.

The World War and History.

The World War, with its far-reaching effects, has made it necessary to revise and rewrite the whole field of history. This great struggle, with the consequent readjustments, has produced not only new states but also new political and social ideas. In order to record the tremendous events that have taken place since the year 1913, the present editor and his collaborators have had to add a large amount of material. Some of the needed space has been found by retaining only the essential and vital facts of earlier periods; but a further increase in the size of the history has also been necessary.

The Two-fold Plan.

In this revision the plan of the former work, including the essential features of *Historical Outline* and *Chronology*, has been systematized, developed, and completed. The *Reference History* is now clearly divided into two main parts: Part One, *World History*, treating the periods of history from the earliest times to the present; and Part Two, *National Histories*, treating the histories of all existing countries and giving a brief description of their political and social organization, products, physical features, population, area, etc. The whole thus forms a complete, logically developed history and historical gazetteer of the world and its main political divisions.

World History.

The *World History* (Part One of the whole) is divided into five sections covering all the periods of history — Ancient, Medieval, Early Modern, Nineteenth-Century, and World-War periods — while Part Two covers the histories of the nations individually. Each period and each nation is described and has its story developed by means of a *Historical Outline*, which gives a general survey of all important movements, and a *Chronology*, which arranges the events in the order of their happening.

Scope of Chronologies.

The chronologies are no longer made up almost entirely of political events. They now include also many entries recording important social, industrial, and literary events; for great inventions, the founding of new churches, the publication of momentous books, or the appearance of new means of transportation are as much a part of history as are battles, sieges, and sudden death.

National Histories.

The larger portion of the work is Part Two, devoted to the *National Histories*. The chronologies of this part include, of course, no dates that are not of special significance in the history of the country under consideration; but wars and treaties, international congresses and agreements, and like events, always concern more than one country; and many other events are really international. Such events are generally treated in the chronology of each of the countries involved, the various entries being linked together by cross references so that the reader may view them from various angles.

Alphabetic arrangement.

In Part Two the plan is to treat every nation that is independent as one of the family of nations and to place it in its alphabetical position in this arrangement. According to this plan, those countries that are parts of an empire or nation, or are dependencies, colonies, or the like, are treated under the history of that empire or nation. The name of each of such constituent countries, dependencies, colonies, etc., is also entered in its alphabetical position, with a reference to the main country under which it is treated. Part Two is thus on a strictly alphabetical basis, an arrangement now for the first time fully carried out. It has been a difficult task to get definite information on some of the recently created nations, and particularly to bring their troubled history down to the present time. A few countries whose political status is still uncertain have been left under the nations with which they were connected before the World War.

This arrangement of Part One according to dates and of Part Two alphabetically, together with the index appended to the whole, is designed to make this history as convenient and comprehensive as possible, serving the needs alike of the casual inquirer, the reader, the student, and the research worker.

The Index.

An index to the whole history has been added in which the aim has been to cover all references to persons, places, events, etc., each under the specific name. In addition to these specific references, much of this information is again indexed under *topics*, so that the whole forms not only an index, but a topical analysis as well.

Special features of National Histories.

It will be noted that some of the national histories, particularly the chronologies of the great European nations, begin with the year 1648. In that year, by the Peace of Westphalia, the map of Europe was largely remade, and the political status of Europe largely determined, in a form which lasted until the World War. The most important events of the greater European states previous to that date make up the bulk of Medieval History and Early Modern History to 1648. Such events are therefore put in the *World History* and omitted from the *National Histories*, though general cross references direct the reader to the sections where such earlier national events may be found.

Two services in mind.

Two services have been especially kept in mind. The first is to help the reader in a way analogous to that of the vocabulary of the Dictionary, by enabling him to find out quickly just when a thing happened. Even the experienced investigator can often help himself by making sure of a date that is the point of departure for further research. The other service is to show how the world is brought together. Records of events following each other chronologically, may bring home vividly to the mind the way in which history is bound together by a cause that produces an effect, which in turn becomes the cause of the next effect. Thus the student of the World War will find in the historical outlines of the various countries during the last twenty years, and particularly in the chronology of the *World History* for that period, some of the secrets of the hostilities that led to war.

Collaboration in editing.

The responsibility for the accuracy and usefulness of this work must fall upon the editor and those who have coöperated in producing it. Everett Kimball, Professor of Government at Smith College, has prepared all the historical outlines of the World History since 1492, as also of all the nations and the States of the United States, and the lives of the presidents. William S. Ferguson, Professor of Ancient History, and Charles H. McIlwain, Professor of History and Government, both of Harvard University, are responsible for the historical outlines and chronologies of the Ancient and Medieval periods. The chronology for the Early Modern Period was made up by the editor. All the rest of the chronologies, including those for the Nineteenth-Century and World-War periods and for all the nations, the States of the United States, and the presidents, were made by Mr. David M. Matteson, of Cambridge.

The main work of the editor has been to make plans, assign tasks, and handle the material in the copy and the proof. It is hardly possible that errors and misprints have altogether been avoided, in spite of the learning of the contributors and the care of the editor; but it is hoped that they have been reduced to a minimum by the repeated searches that have been given to perfecting the matter in the copy and the proof.

The purpose of editor and contributors has been to help other people find their way through the difficulties of securing exact information. Their strong desire is to aid the users of this Dictionary to understand the world in which they live.

Cambridge, Mass. ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

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PART ONE: WORLD HISTORY

I. ANCIENT PERIOD: EARLIEST TIMES TO 476 A. D.

Historical Outline.

A DISCUSSION of ancient history covers the field from the **origin of man** upon the earth down to some arbitrarily fixed date. The fall of the Western Roman Empire (**476 A. D.**) is usually taken as the date at which **ancient history ends.** For the greater part of this period, no absolute chronology exists. In the first epochs time is reckoned not by years, but by geological ages and, even after man left remains from which his history may be reconstructed, dynasties and eras give a more correct idea of the passage of time than do uncertain dates.

According to the testimony of geology and anthropology, man existed on the earth in the **Early Stone Age,** which is placed between 50,000 and 125,000 years ago, after the third descent of the polar ice cap and during the third long warm interval. Traces of man during this period are found, and his primitive culture may be reconstructed from the stone implements buried in the glacial drift. The **Middle Stone Age** occurred during the fourth descent of the ice cap, in which period mankind was driven south or took refuge in caves and adapted himself to the altered conditions. The **Later Stone Age** began between 8,000 and 10,000 years ago with the fourth warm interval, which still continues. It was in the Later Stone Age that actual historical records were first made, and from this period onward various nations have arisen at different times and have developed their cultures.

The **Egyptian Empire,** along the lower Nile in Africa, was the home of the **earliest civilization** of which authentic historic record was preserved. By means of picture writing and hieroglyphics, as well as by buildings, sculptures, and articles of use that have been preserved, the culture and civilization of the early Egyptians may be studied. The **earliest** fixed **date in history** is determined by the Egyptian invention of a **calendar (4241 B. C.).** How long the Egyptian Empire had existed before this there is no means of knowing, nor can it be determined when the race emerged from the Later Stone Age.

At the same time, though by independent development, emerged the **old Babylonian Empire.** The plain through which the Tigris and Euphrates rivers flow was occupied by the **Sumerians** long before 3000 B. C., and the city kingdoms were founded and a culture developed, records of which have been preserved to us by the system of cuneiform writing. The Semitic people, who were descendants of the nomads occupying the Arabian Desert, overthrew this state; and in the age of **Sargon** (2700 B. C.) a Semitic empire was established which adopted much of the Sumerian culture. This composite empire lasted perhaps until the 22d century B. C., when it was displaced by a new Semitic invasion, that of the Amorites of Syria, and the **supremacy of Babylon** was then established **under Hammurabi.**

Farther north, on the upper course of the Tigris, was the **Assyrian Empire.** There, sometime before 3000 B. C., the Semitic nomads of the desert settled at Ashur. They came alternately under the influence of the Babylonians to the south, to whom they were vassals, and of the Hittites in the west and drew their culture particularly from the Aramæans, or Syrians. During the reign of **Sennacherib** (705–681 B. C.), Babylon and Egypt were conquered, a vast empire was developed, **Nineveh** was **founded** as the capital city, and an elaborate administration was developed. The Assyrian army, the first to be equipped with iron weapons, proved invincible.

The Assyrian Empire fell before the onslaught of the Chaldeans, and under **Nebuchadnezzar** (604–561 B. C.) **Babylon** was the home of the **highest civilization** yet developed. While these Semitic kingdoms were developing in the Tigris-Euphrates valley, other Semitic people like the **Aramæans** and the **Hebrews** in Syria and Palestine, though reaching no such material grandeur, developed a culture even more important. Particularly was this true of the Hebrews, who gave to the world the monotheistic idea.

The **Medo-Persian Empire** developed northwest of the Persian Gulf, founded, not by a Semitic people, but by a branch of the great Indo-European family. About 550 B. C., under **Cyrus** the Persian, the Medes were defeated and the foundations laid for an empire which rapidly expanded, the Chaldean Empire of Babylon was overthrown and the Semitic east collapsed before the invaders from the north. In 525 Egypt was conquered by the Persian **Cambyses,** and under **Darius** the Persians developed an administrative system which rivaled that of the early Assyrians.

Another branch of the great Indo-European family pushed into India and reached the Ganges, perhaps as early as 1500 B. C. There they developed a culture based on the caste system and their religion was **Brahmanism,** which embodied the doctrine of the transmigration of the soul. In the fifth century B. C. **Buddhism** was developed and for a time displaced Brahmanism, but was gradually driven out of India proper. It still flourishes, however, in eastern Asia, where it numbers as its adherents nearly a third of the human race.

Still farther to the east the **Chinese civilization** was developed. This came neither from the Semitic nor from the Indo-European race, but from the **Turanians** who settled in the valley of the Hwang River sometime before 3000 B. C. Here was developed the **Confucian religion,** which ranks in number of adherents next to Buddhism. The **Chinese** at a very early era developed a system of **pictorial writing** from which modern Chinese characters were developed. A literature, the most prized portion of which is included in the **Nine Classics,** was developed sometime before the third century B. C. In the third century, moreover, was built the great **Chinese wall,** as a defense against the Huns.

The **Hittite Empire** existed in Asia Minor between 1450 and 1250 B. C. The Hittites served as the great connecting link between the east and the west, and although they developed a culture of their own which, as has been seen, influenced some of the Semitic empires, it was as carriers of culture from one region to another that the Hittites were most important.

In the Mediterranean at Troy (2500–1500 B. C.) and at Mycenæ in Greece (1500) and at Knossos in Crete (1600–1500), a civilization was developed which has been described by the poet Homer and was formerly known as **Greek civilization.** Excavations have later proved that this civilization existed long before the Greek invasion; and it is now called the **Minoan, Mycenæan,** or **Mediterranean.** It was characterized by vast palaces and buildings and a profusion of gold. Great advances were made in architecture and engineering, and the metal workers developed extraordinary skill.

This civilization fell before the invasions of another branch of the Indo-European race, **the Greeks.** Contrary to the formerly accepted opinion of history, the Greeks on their entrance into the Balkan Peninsula were still in the barbaric, nomadic stage of culture. Beginning about 2000 B. C., the Greeks in a series of invasions attacked and overthrew the Mycenæan states they found. But the conquered gave to their conquerors their culture; and the Greeks, taking what was best from the Mycenæan civilization, developed in their little **city-states** a civilization superior to any that the world had yet seen. About the 8th century B. C. the Greeks began to send out colonies and settled on the islands and shores of the Ægean Sea, in Sicily and Italy, and even in southern France.

These colonies spread the Greek ideas, Greek trade, and Greek culture throughout the Mediterranean bases. Coming into conflict with the Persian Empire in the 5th century, they held their own

against Darius and Xerxes and maintained their independence. Later in the same century **Athens,** under Pericles, was the center of a classic culture which has never been equaled. The independence of the Greek city-states gave way before the growth of the **Macedonian Empire.** Under **Alexander the Great,** Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, and even India were brought, at least for a time, under Greek control. More important than the conquest of these countries was the diffusion of the Greek culture, which in a decadent form continued throughout ancient history and even into medieval times.

In Italy, city-states were founded by the **Etruscans,** another branch of the Indo-Europeans, perhaps contemporary with the building of the city-states in Greece. The Italians followed with small states, of which **Rome,** the legendary date of whose foundation is **753 B. C.,** was the most important. At an early date a republican form of government was established and a military system developed which enabled the Romans to conquer the surrounding tribes and gradually to extend their dominion over Italy south of the Po. In so doing they came in contact with the Greek colonies in Italy and Sicily.

Even more important was their conflict with the **Carthaginians.** This was their first non-Italian campaign and the success of the Romans eliminated the Semitic Phœnician state as a possible rival in the Mediterranean. After this first foreign war, the Roman conquest proceeded rapidly. First Greece, then Asia Minor and Syria, then Gaul and Britain were subdued, until by the reign of **Augustus,** the **first Roman emperor** (27 B. C.–14 A. D.), all the countries adjacent to the Mediterranean Sea were included in his dominion. Although expanded under Trajan, the boundaries of Rome remained substantially the same until the onslaught of the barbarians.

Just as the Greeks and Romans had overthrown an earlier civilization, so the Romans themselves succumbed to **barbarian invasions** from the north and east. This process, beginning perhaps with the onslaught of the Cimbri and Teutones (113–101 B. C.), became serious with the invasion of the Marcomanni in 180 A. D. With ever-increasing frequency and intensity the Teutonic tribes pushed into the empire and founded Germanic kingdoms. In **476 A. D.** the last emperor of the west, Romulus Augustulus, was dethroned by Odoacer, the leader of the Herminones, or Herulians, and **the Roman Empire in the West was at an end.**

Chronology.

Basis of Ancient Chronology. To construct an exact **chronology of ancient history** from the earliest times is quite impossible. The reason for this is obvious. Such a chronology requires not only contemporaneous and continuous historical records, or writings embodying them, which are frequently wanting, but also a fixed method of reckoning years: an era or some other similar device must have been adopted. The need, however, of this is felt only after a long period of civilization. The Egyptians, with all their care to preserve records of events, had no historical era. If they dated at all, with very few exceptions they dated only by the years of their sovereigns. From this fact, with the fragmentary character of their monuments and literature, and with the possible synchronism of dynasties, arises the great difficulty of determining the Egyptian chronology. The Assyrians during the latter part of their history had an exact method of reckoning years. They named each year after an officer, usually called by us an eponym. Lists of these eponyms have been discovered, several copies, all of which closely agree, covering the period from 893 to 666 B. C. From the record of a total eclipse, 763 B. C., is determined the dates of all these years. This Assyrian canon, from the mention of Ahab, Jehu, Uzziah, and a few other kings of Israel and Judah in the Assyrian annals, has fixed the periods of these monarchs and compelled a modification of the previous understanding of Old Testament chronology. The Hebrews seem to have preserved but few records of their early history, and the lapses of time given in the Old Testament from the period of creation down to the fall of Jerusalem are in a large degree conjectural. In addition to the Assyrian canon for determining dates of partially the same period, there is the **Canon of Ptolemy,** a chronological compilation, with astronomical notes, of Babylonian, Persian, Greek, and Roman kings, commencing 747 B. C., and extending to 137 A. D. This so far as tested has proved an accurate and reliable document, and has been of the greatest service in determining ancient chronology. For the periods of Babylonian and Assyrian history earlier than these canons, there are lists of monarchs, with the length of their reigns, going back to 2800 B. C. These lists have not been preserved or discovered entirely without breaks.

Lists of magistrates or priests preserved in temples or in archives of state were the basis of the ordinary Greek chronology. Thucydides designates the year of the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War as the forty-eighth year of the priestess Chrysis at Argos, when Ænesias was ephor at Sparta, and Pythodorus was archon at Athens. From about 500 B. C. to 293 B. C., we possess a complete list of the Athenian archons, and for the earlier period (from the establishment of the office in 683 B. C.) and for the later period (to 265 A. D.), an incomplete list. This method of reckoning by local magistrates or priests was never wholly abandoned, but in the third century B. C. the Macedonian Kings of Syria computed the years of their reigns from the founding of the dynasty in 312 B. C., and the era thus established — the **Era of the Seleucids** — set an example widely followed in later Greek and Roman times. After the fourth century B. C. Greek historians reckoned chiefly from the **Olympian games,** which were held in 776 B. C., and once in four years thereafter for more than a millennium. Thus, the invasion of Greece by Xerxes fell in the first year of the seventy-fifth Olympiad, or 480 B. C.

The Romans dated an event by giving the name of the two men in whose consulship the event occurred, or occasionally and less formally by giving the name of one consul. Formal lists of the consuls were kept as a part of the public record. Some copies of these lists, in Latin and in Greek, have been preserved and may be found in the "Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum," Vol. I.; they form the basis of Roman chronology. But it is probable that the public records were destroyed when Rome was captured by the Gauls, B. C. 390, and that the lists for the years 509–390 were made up from priestly records or from tradition. For the earlier years, before the expulsion of the kings, the dates rest upon tradition or legend, and have little value. The date of the founding of the city, 753 B. C., however, was universally accepted by the Romans and was occasionally used as a date to reckon from, especially when the period of time that had elapsed was regarded as significant. The system of reckoning **ab urbe condita** is modern and conventional. In medieval and modern times, historians of antiquity long continued to compute time from the founding of Rome or the first year of Abraham (2016 B. C.) or the creation of the world or some similar point; but since the end of the 18th century the practice of dating events, before as well as after the birth of Christ, from a point which is fixed as midnight between Dec. 31st, 1 B. C. and Jan. 1st, 1 A. D., has come into general use. Astronomers, however, have taken a whole year, 1 B. C., as their point of departure, designating it 0, so that the year 323 B. C., e g., appears in their calculations as 322 B. C.

In this chronological history the dates of the early Egyptian dynasties I.–XVIII. are from the Chronology of Eduard Meyer and Breasted, which are always the latest that can be given for Egyptian eras. The much earlier dates once current are now pretty generally abandoned by Egyptologists.

The following dates must be received as only approximate: Babylonian and Assyrian dates before the ninth century B. C., Biblical dates before the middle of the seventh century B. C., Greek dates before the middle of the sixth century B. C., Roman dates before the beginning of the third century B. C.

Many dates subsequent to these periods cannot be exactly fixed, and hence they are given differently by historical authorities. Sometimes differences arise from different modes of reckoning. Some writers, for example, count as the first year of a ruler the year in the course of which he came to the throne, others begin with the first full calendar year of his reign.

EASTERN NATIONS AND JUDEA.

4500 B. C. Predynastic Kingdoms (nomes) of **Egypt** flourishing.

4000. Kingdoms of Upper and Lower Egypt probably flourishing.

3500–3000. Rise of **Babylonian city kingdoms.**

3400–2390. The **Old Kingdom** in **Egypt.**

3400–2900. First (Thinite) Egyptian dynasty, beginning with **Menes, reputed founder of Memphis.** Second (Thinite) Egyptian dynasty.

3000–2700. Sumerian ascendancy in Babylonia.

3000–2500. Early Minoan Age: development of copper and bronze culture in Crete and Ægean Basin.

2900–2840. Third (Memphite) Egyptian dynasty.

2840–2680. Fourth (Memphite) Egyptian dynasty. Era of **Sneferu,** pyramid builder who had commercial relations with Phœnicia, and worked mines in the Sinaitic peninsula. Era also of **Khufu (Cheops),** builder of the **Great Pyramid of Gizeh,** and of **Khafra,** builder of the second pyramid.

2700–2500. Dynasty of Akkad: Semitic ascendancy in Babylonia. **Sargon I.,** king of Akkad (Agade), reigns over a wide territory; conquers North Syria. **Naram-Sin,** king of Akkad, builder of the **Temple of the Sun** in Sippar, reigns in Babylonia and is lord of Mesopotamia.

2680–2540. Fifth Egyptian dynasty. Copper and malachite mines worked in the Sinaitic peninsula; the **proverbs of Ptah-hotep** are composed.

2540–2390. Sixth (Memphite) Egyptian dynasty. Era of **Pepi I.** First Egyptian invasion of Palestine: Palestine and Phœnicia already occupied by Canaanites. Era of Queen **Nitocris.**

2500–2350. First dynasty of Ur. Ur Engur and Dungi consolidate city kingdoms of Babylonia.

2500–1850. Middle Minoan Age (I. and II.) in Crete and the Ægean Basin. Contact between Crete and Egypt. **Greeks enter Greece.**

2500. Gudea patesi (lord) of Lagash (Telloh) in S. Babylonia; a highly advanced civilization, of which there are many remains; commerce extends into Syria and Arabia.

2390–2000. Seventh and eighth (Memphite), ninth and tenth (Heracleopolite), eleventh (Theban) Egyptian dynasties. The first four of these dynasties cover an obscure period of civil wars and foreign invasion; of this period there are few remains. During the eleventh occurred the **rise of Thebes.**

2350–2092. The dynasty of **Larsa** in N. Babylonia and of Nisin in S. Babylonia.

2225–1926. The first Babylonian dynasty. **Babylon** becomes the **chief city** in **Babylonia.** Assyria first heard of.

2160–1788. The **Middle Kingdom** in **Egypt.**

2123–2081. Reign of **Hammurabi** — author of the oldest **code of law** extant. Hammurabi unifies Babylonia and imposes code on all cities of N. and S. Babylonia and on Ashur and Nineveh. Babylonian becomes the diplomatic language of the entire Near East.

2000–1788. Twelfth Egyptian dynasty. An era of great prosperity under Amenemhat I.–III., Usertesen I.–III. Ethiopia is conquered. Trade is extended through Syria and Arabia. The reservoir **Lake Mœris** is excavated; **great monuments at Karnak,** Beni Hassan, and elsewhere are erected.

2000. The **Aryans** — forerunners of the Medes and Persians, as well as of the Indians — **first appear** on the eastern frontier of Babylonia and Assyria.

1926. Hittites raid Babylon — first appearance of Hittites in history.

1850–1600. Great (palace) age of Knossos in Crete: **Middle Minoan Age** (III.). Extension of Cretan culture to Greek mainland.

1850–1630. Era computed by some modern scholars for the Hebrew patriarchs **Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob,** according to Biblical tradition. (Abraham is also placed in connection with Hammurabi, 2100.)

1788–1580. Thirteenth (Theban), fourteenth (Xoite), fifteenth and sixteenth (Hyksos), seventeenth (Theban) Egyptian dynasties; a period of decline and the domination of the foreign **Hyksos, or Shepherd kings** (probably Asiatic Bedouins).

1736–1185. The third (Kassite, non-Semitic) Babylonian dynasty.

1630–1200. Era according to Hebrew tradition of the sojourn of the **Children of Israel in Egypt.** (Another terminus about 1415.)

1600–1350. Late Minoan Age (I. and II.) in Crete. Rise of Tiryns and Mycenæ.

1580–1350. Eighteenth (Diospolite) Egyptian dynasty. Beginning of the "New Empire." Era of Ahmes I., Amenophis I.–IV., Thotmes I.–IV., Queen Hatasu.

1580. Ahmes I. completes the expulsion of the Hyksos; captures Sharuhen in S. Judah.

1501–1447. Thotmes III. reigns in Egypt, conquers Palestine and Syria at battles of Megiddo and Kadesh (overthrow of Hittites), conquers Nubia, erects a great temple at Karnak. **Greatest extent of Egyptian power.**

1500. Assyria is **independent** of Babylonia.

1400–1110. Equilibrium between Babylonia and Assyria.

1375–1358. Amenophis IV. (Chuenaten or Ikhnaton) introduces **solar monotheism** into Egypt. Era of the **Tel-el-Amarna letters,** a correspondence of Egyptian viceroys in Palestine, of kings of Babylon, and of a king of Mitanni with the Egyptian court. Egypt's possessions in Syria are threatened.

1375. Hebrews threaten land of Canaan.

1350–1100. Mycenæan Age (Late Minoan III.). Greeks become masters of Ægean archipelago and occupy west coast of Asia Minor. Decline of Mycenæan civilization.

1350–1200. Nineteenth (Diospolite) Egyptian dynasty. Era of Seti I.–II., Ramses II., Meneptah.

1313–1292. Seti I. claims to have reconquered Palestine and Syria; defeats the Libyans and allies.

1292–1225. Ramses II. (Sesostris) subdues Palestine and Syria; concludes peace with Hittites; is probably the **Pharaoh of Israel's oppression.**

1200–1090. Twentieth (Diospolite) Egyptian dynasty. Era of Ramses III., who mines in Sinai, trades in the south, and gains a great victory over piratical invaders of Palestine. Close of the period of the New Empire and beginning of decline.

1200. Phrygians enter, Hittites leave, central Asia Minor. Fall of Hittite power. Near this time, probably, under Meneptah or his successors, the **Children of Israel,** led by Moses, **leave Egypt.** (Another date about 1415 B. C.)

1193. The **Trojan War begins,** led by Agamemnon of Mycenæ. (According to a late Greek computation.)

1190. Philistines occupy coast of Palestine.

1185–1053. Fourth (Pashe, Semitic) Babylonian dynasty.

1184. Troy is taken and destroyed.

1160. Era of **Israel's entrance into Canaan.** (Another reckoning two centuries earlier.)
1150–900. During the weakness of Egypt, Babylonia, and Assyria, the small states in Palestine and Syria become important and the **Phœnicians** are the **chief seafaring people** of the Mediterranean.
1140–1040. Era of the Judges in Israel. (Another reckoning 1340–1240.)
1140. Nebuchadnezzar I., king of Babylon, a great conqueror, defeats the Elamites and the Lulumi, and wages war with the Assyrians
1110. Tiglath-pileser I. firmly establishes the **Assyrian Empire;** he advances westward beyond the Euphrates.
1100. Epoch of the return of the legendary **Heraclidæ,** and of the **Dorian migration into Peloponnesus.**
1080–1020. Era of **Eli, Samuel,** and **Saul** in Israel.
1050–945. Twenty-first (Tanitic) Egyptian dynasty of priest kings.
1017. David reigns at Hebron **over Judah,** probably as vassal of the Philistines.
1010. David is king over all Israel, makes **Jerusalem** his capital, and **defeats the Philistines.**
1000. Phœnicians devise their alphabet.
975–935. Solomon, succeeding his father, David, **reigns over Israel.**
973. The **Temple at Jerusalem** is founded.
945–745. Twenty-second (Bubastite) Egyptian dynasty. Era of Shishak and Osorkon; a Libyan domination.
935. On the **death of Solomon,** his kingdom is divided. **Rehoboam** reigns over Judah and **Jeroboam** over N. Israel.
930–912. Ashur-dan II. reigns in Assyria.
926. Shishak, king of Egypt, invades Palestine.
917–876. Asa reigns in Judah.
914. Baasha destroys the house of Jeroboam and reigns over N. Israel.
911–889. Adad-nirari III. reigns in Assyria; after a long war concludes peace with Babylon
900–700. Greek epic poetry is at its best. Age of **Homer.**
889–884. Tukulti-Ninib II. reigns in Assyria.
889. Omri seizes the throne in N. Israel. He builds the city of Samaria.
884–860. Ashur-nasir-pal, famous for cruelty, reigns in Assyria; extends its boundaries and beautifies its cities.
875–853. Ahab and Jezebel reign in N. Israel. Period of **Elijah.**
867–851. Jehoshaphat reigns in Judah.
860–825. Shalmaneser II., a great warrior, reigns in Assyria; makes extensive conquests in W. Asia.
854. Battle of Karkar — first fixed date in Hebrew history; — Shalmaneser II. defeats Hadadezer, king of Damascus, Ahab, king of N. Israel, and their allies.
852–842. Joram reigns in N. Israel; Moab revolts under Mesha; the **Moabite stone** is inscribed; era of **Elisha.**
851–843. Jeboram reigns in Judah. Edom revolts.
842. Jehu seizes throne of Israel; Athaliah seizes that of Judah; Shalmaneser II. defeats Hazael, king of Damascus; receives tribute from Jehu.
825–812. Shamshi-Adad reigns in Assyria.
815–798. Jehoahaz reigns in N. Israel. Benhadad III. of Damascus ravages Israel.
814. Carthage founded.
812–783. Adad-nirari IV. reigns in Assyria. "Semiramis" of the Greek writers is his mother.
797. Adad-nirari captures Damascus, and Israel is freed from Syria.
789–740. Uzziah (Azariah) reigns in Judah.
783–773. Shalmaneser III. reigns in Assyria. It begins to decline.
782–741. Jeroboam II. reigns in N. Israel. A period of external prosperity. **Amos** prophesies in the middle and **Hosea** at the close of his reign.
776. The **first Olympiad** begins.
773–755. Ashur-dan III. reigns in Assyria.
763. A solar eclipse is recorded which determines dates of Assyrian Canon.
755–745. Ashur-nirari V. reigns in Assyria.
753. Legendary **founding of Rome** by **Romulus.**
752. Archons appointed at Athens with ten years' term of service.
750–550. Age of Greek colonization.
745–718. Twenty-third (Tanitic) Egyptian dynasty; an era of disintegration. Egypt is conquered by Pianchi, king of Ethiopia.
745–727. Tiglath-pileser III. reigns in **Assyria;** an era of conquest and enlarged dominions.
743. Rhegium is founded by the Chalcidians and Messenians.
740–701. Ministry of Isaiah; Micah is a younger contemporary.
740–736. Within this period Uzziah, king of Judah, dies; Jotham, his son, becomes sole ruler.
738. Menahem, king of N. Israel, pays tribute to the Assyrians.
735. Accession of Ahaz, king of Judah until 725 or 715. **A coalition of Syria and N. Israel** under Rezin and Pekah is formed **against Judah.**
734–732. Pekah, king of Israel, is deposed and slain. Hoshea, with Assyrians' help, is appointed king in his place. Ahaz pays tribute. Tiglath-pileser carries into captivity inhabitants of N. E. Galilee. [rinthians.
734. Syracuse and Corcyra are founded by the Co-
732. Damascus is taken by Tiglath-pileser.
731. Merodach-baladan of Babylonia offers his allegiance to Tiglath-pileser. [sieges Samaria.
727–722. Shalmaneser IV. reigns in Assyria; be-
722–705. Sargon II. reigns in Assyria.
722–721. Fall of Samaria and **end of the kingdom of Israel.**
721. Babylonia under Merodach-baladan **revolts against Assyria;** he is made king of Babylon. Sybaris founded in Magna Græcia by Achæans.
720. Battle of Raphia: great defeat of Egyptians under Shabaka by Sargon.
718–712. Twenty-fourth (Saite) Egyptian dynasty. Bekenrenf (Bocchoris) reigns and is deposed by Shabaka of Ethiopia.
715. Accession of **Hezekiah,** king of Judah. (Another date, 725 B. C.)
712–613. Twenty-fifth (Ethiopian) Egyptian dynasty. Era of kings Shabaka, Shabataka, Tarkaka; coalitions with Israel; Assyrian invasions.
711. Sargon invades Philistia and possibly Judah.
710. Sargon defeats Merodach-baladan and is proclaimed **king of Babylon.**
705–681. Sennacherib reigns in **Assyria.**
705. Sennacherib defeats Merodach-baladan and despoils his palace.
701. Sennacherib invades Palestine, defeats Tarkaka, nephew of the king of Egypt, at Eltekeh, invests Jerusalem; his army is smitten with pestilence and he retires.

AGE OF GREEKS.

700–460. Bloom of lyric poetry in Greece: Archilochus, followed by Tyrtæus, Terpander, Alcman, Sappho, Alcæus, Simonides, Bacchylides, and, greatest of all, Pindar.
700. Hesiod lives. Period of Dajaukku (Deioces), founder of the **Median Empire.**
696–641. Manasseh reigns in Judah (or 688–641)
688. Gela in Sicily is founded by the Rhodians.
683. The term of office of the archons at Athens is reduced to one year.
681–668. Esarhaddon reigns in Assyria; restores Babylon; annexes Egypt. **Era of Assyria's widest domain.**
668–626. Ashur-bani-pal (**Sardanapalus**) **reigns in Assyria;** appoints his brother, Shamash-Shumukin, king of Babylonia.
664. First recorded naval conflict in Greek history, between the Corinthians and Corcyræans.
663–525. Twenty-sixth (Saite) Egyptian dynasty; era of Psammetichus, Necho, and Hophra; of the **Egyptian renaissance.**
657. Byzantium is founded by the Megarians.
650–625. Phraortes reigns in Media and conquers Persia and Armenia.
648. Shamash-Shumukin destroys himself after an unsuccessful revolt against Ashur-bani-pal.
Eclipse of the sun mentioned by Archilochus.
645. Assyrian domination over Egypt ends.
641–639. Amon reigns in Judah.
639–608. Josiah reigns in Judah.
635. Scythians invade western Asia.
632. Cylon attempts to seize tyranny at Athens.
630–600. Revolt of the Messenians against Sparta.
626–586. The ministry of the prophet **Jeremiah.**
626–605. Nabopalassar, the Chaldean, reigns in Babylon, first as an Assyrian viceroy; later he establishes an independent empire.
625. Cyaxares reigns in Media until after 585.
624. Cyrene in Libya is **founded by a colony from Thera.**
621. The **Book of the Law (Deuteronomy)** is found in the Temple at Jerusalem and occasions the **reforms of Josiah.**
Draco codifies the **laws of Athens.**
610. Thrasybulus tyrant of Miletus.
608. At the **battle of Megiddo** Josiah is defeated and killed by the Egyptians under Necho.
608–597. Jehoiakim reigns in Judah.
606. Nineveh destroyed by the Medes, Chaldeans, and others.
605. Battle of Carchemish; Necho, of Egypt, defeated by Nebuchadnezzar.
604–561. Nebuchadnezzar II. reigns in Babylon.
601. Nebuchadnezzar conquers Judah and Jehoiakim pays tribute.
600–500. Etruscans the dominant people in Italy.
600. Periander tyrant of Corinth
597–586. Zedekiah reigns in Jerusalem.
597. Judah having rebelled, **Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem;** Jehoiachin, successor of Jehoiakim, and many other Jews are carried to Babylon.
594. Solon is archon at Athens.
592–570. Prophetic ministry of **Ezekiel.**
590. The **Seven Wise Men** of Greece:
588–569. Apries (Hophra) reigns in Egypt.
586. Jerusalem destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, and the **Jews carried captive to Babylon.**
585. Battle of the eclipse; fighting between Medians and Lydians ceases; **triple league formed:** Babylon, Media, and Lydia. **Thales of Miletus** flourishes.
582. Pythian games instituted at Delphi.
580–550. Astyages reigns in Media until dethroned by Cyrus.
569–525. Amasis reigns in Egypt.
560. Pisistratus becomes tyrant at Athens. Crœsus succeeds to throne of Lydia.
559–529. Cyrus, king of Persia, reigns: conquers Media, dethroning Astyages, in 550; Lydia, dethroning Crœsus, in 547 or 546; the Greek cities in western Asia Minor and Babylon, in 546–539.
555–539. Nabonidus reigns in Babylon.
546. Cyrus captures Sardis.
540. Carthaginians and Etruscans, allied, expel Greeks from Corsica. [Cyrus.
539. Babylon surrenders to Gobryas, a general of
538. Edict of Cyrus for the return of the Jews.
530. Polycrates, tyrant of Samos, flourishes.
529. Cyrus is killed in battle with the Massagetæ.
529–522. Cambyses reigns on Persian throne; in 527 or 525 conquers Egypt. (Psammetichus III.)
527. Death of Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens.
525–414. Twenty-seventh (Persian) Egyptian dynasty.
522–485. Darius I., son of Hystaspes, reigns on the Persian throne. The first years of his reign are marked with many insurrections; a formidable one at Babylon. His empire extends from Macedonia to India, and from the Danube and the Black Sea to Nubia.
520. The prophets Haggai and Zechariah advocate the restoration of the temple at Jerusalem.
515. The **second Jewish temple** is completed **at Jerusalem.**
514. Hipparchus, son of Pisistratus, assassinated.
510. Hippias, the tyrant, expelled from Athens.
509. Patrician commonwealth is established **at Rome.** Rome makes a treaty with Carthage.
508. Constitutional **reforms of Cleisthenes** at Athens.
500–406. Highest development of Greek tragedy.
499. The **Ionian Greeks revolt** from Persia.
498. The Ionian Greeks, assisted by Athenians and Eretrians, burn Sardis; are defeated at Ephesus.
498–454. Alexander I. reigns in Macedonia.
494. The **Persians destroy Miletus.**
First **secession of the plebs at** Rome. (Probably legendary.)
The office of **Tribune of the people** is established at Rome. (An alternate date is 471.)
493. Themistocles, archon at Athens, creates naval base at Piræus.
492. Expedition of **the Persians** under Mardonius **against Greece.**
490. The Persians, under Datis, are defeated at **Marathon** (September 12).
488. Ostracism introduced at Athens.
487. Election by lot applied to archonships at Athens; generals become chief magistrates of the state; contest of comedies organized.
485. Darius dies; Xerxes I. succeeds him on the throne of Persia.
484. Xerxes conquers Egypt (revolted in 486).
480. Xerxes sets out from Sardis for the invasion of Greece; is checked by the Spartan Leonidas at **Thermopylæ** (August); is defeated in the great naval battle of **Salamis** (September 27 or 28). Carthaginians defeated by Gelo of Syracuse in **battle of Himera.**
479. The Greeks are victorious over the Persians at **Mycale and Platæa** (about September 10).
478. Athens heads the Delian Confederacy. Hiero follows Gelo as tyrant of Syracuse.
474. Hiero defeats Etruscans in **great sea fight at Cumæ.**
471. Themistocles, ostracized from Athens, goes to Argos, and later to Asia.
467. The **battle of Eurymedon.** Death of Hiero.
465. Xerxes assassinated by Artabanus.
464–424. Artaxerxes I. (*Longimanus*) is sovereign of Persia.
464–456. Messenians in revolt against Sparta.
463. Revolt of Thasos from Athens is suppressed.
462. Areopagus loses power in Athens.
461. Ostracism of Cimon; **Pericles comes to power;** radical democracy established in Athens.
459. Expedition of Athenians to Egypt to assist Inarus.
458. Mission of **Ezra** to Jerusalem.
457. Spartans defeat the Athenians at **Tanagra; Athens conquers Bœotia.**
456. Ægina is subjugated by the Athenians; **Æschylus dies** at Gela in Sicily.
454–413. Perdiccas II. reigns in Macedonia.
454. Athenian catastrophe in Egypt; treasury of confederacy transferred from Delos to Athens.
451–449. Decemviri rule in Rome.
449. Expedition of the Athenians against Cyprus; they are victorious near the Cyprian Salamis.
448. The Phocians attack Delphi; the **Sacred War;** renewal of hostilities between Athens and Sparta. Peace between Athens and Persia.
447. Thebans defeat Athenians at **Coronea;** end of Athenian power in Bœotia.
446. Herodotus is in Athens.

445. Nehemiah's first visit to Jerusalem; the walls of the city are rebuilt. Promulgation of the **Mosaic law** at Jerusalem.
Thirty years' peace made between Athens and Sparta.
Canulelan law permits marriage between Roman patricians and plebeians.
443. The censorship is instituted at Rome.
Thurii, in eastern Italy, is founded by Athenians.
438. Parthenon at Athens, begun in 447, completed. Campanians take Capua from Etruscans
437. Building of the **Propylæa** at Athens is begun
436. Amphipolis, in Thrace, is founded by Athenians. Corinthians make war on the Corcyræans.
432. Potidæa revolts from the Athenian alliance.
Nehemiah's second visit to Jerusalem.
Priest Manasseh expelled from Jerusalem; finds shelter with his father-in-law, Prince Sanballat, who builds him a temple on Mt. Gerizim. This is the **beginning** of the **Samaritan Church.**
431. Peloponnesian War in Greece begins (lasts till 404); Thebans attack Platæa.
430. Plague at Athens.
429. Potidæa is subdued by Athens. Pericles dies.
428. Revolt of Lesbos.
427. Aristophanes produces **first comedy.** Conflicts between the Dorian and Ionian cities of Sicily.
425. The Spartans at Sphacteria surrender to Cleon after a long siege.
424. Artaxerxes dies; his son, Xerxes II., is slain by his brother, Sogdianus, who in turn is slain by his brother Darius II. (*Nothus*), who reigns until 404. Athenians are defeated at **Delium,** in Bœotia.
Thucydides, historian, banished from Athens.
421. Peace of Nicias; **alliance** for fifty years **between Athens and Sparta.**
Cumæ taken by the Campanians.
420. Argos forms an alliance with Athens, and Thebes with Sparta.
418. Argives defeated at Mantineia by Sparta.
415. Athens sends an expedition against Syracuse, under Nicias, Lamachus, and Alcibiades. Alcibiades is recalled, but withdraws to Sparta.
414. Lamachus falls before Syracuse.
413. Archelaus seizes the Macedonian throne and kills Perdiccas.
Athenian expedition against Syracuse is destroyed miserably; Nicias is put to death; Decelea in Attica is occupied by Spartan troops.
412. Revolt of Athenian allies.
411. Athenian democracy overthrown; oligarchy of the **Four Hundred** is established in March, but falls after a rule of four months; a moderate democracy succeeds.
410. The Spartan fleet is destroyed by the Athenians off Cyzicus.
409. Hannibal of Carthage **invades Sicily.**
408. Cyrus appointed Persian commander in chief in Asia Minor; **Lysander** put in charge of Spartan naval operations; **Alcibiades** returns in triumph to Athens, but goes into exile again six months later.
406. Death of the Athenian tragic poets, **Sophocles and Euripides.** Victory of the Athenian fleet off the Arginusæ islands.
Agrigentum taken by Carthaginians.
405. Battle of Ægospotami; Dionysius made tyrant of Syracuse.
404–359. Artaxerxes II. (*Mnemon*) reigns in Persia.
404. Peace between Athens and Sparta **after the Peloponnesian War; walls of Athens destroyed;** the **Thirty Tyrants** are established in power at Athens, but are deposed after eight months' rule, in February, 403, and the former constitution is restored.
401. Cyrus the Younger, in revolt against his brother, Artaxerxes II., is killed in the battle of Cunaxa, and **Xenophon leads the retreat** of the **Ten Thousand Greeks** to the Black Sea.
400–394. Sparta conducts war in Asia Minor against Persians.
400. Gauls occupy Po valley.
399. Archelaus of Macedonia is assassinated.
Socrates put to death at Athens, aged 70 years.
396. Agesilaus takes command of Spartan army in Asia. The Roman troops under Camillus take Veii after a ten years' siege.
395–387. Corinthian War; Athens and Thebes, Corinth and Argos, united against Sparta.
394. The Athenian Conon, commanding a Persian fleet, is victorious over the Spartans, off Cnidus. Agesilaus recalled from Asia; victorious at Coronea.
393. Long Walls of Athens rebuilt by Conon.
390. Great defeat of the Romans by the Gauls in the **battle of the Allia.**
387. The peace of Antalcidas is consummated between Greece and Persia; the cities of Ionia are left in the power of the Persians.
383–379. War of Sparta against Olynthus.
383. Demosthenes born.
380. Isocrates's *Panegyricus* — plea for Hellenic union — published.
379–362. Prominence of Thebes in Greece; Epaminondas and Pelopidas are the leaders.
379. Theban oligarchy is overthrown.
378. Second Delian Confederacy founded.
377–351. Mausolus reigns over Caria at Halicarnassus.
376. Naval victory of the Athenians over the Spartans, near Naxos.
374. Peace is made between Athens and Sparta.
371. Epaminondas of Thebes **defeats the Spartans** at **Leuctra;** Thebes gains the ascendancy in Greece.
370. Megalopolis is founded in Arcadia; Mantineia is restored; death of Jason of Phera.
369. Expedition of Thebans under Pelopidas into Thessaly and Macedonia. [cuse.
367–357. Dionysius, the Younger, tyrant of Syra-
367. Office of **prætor** created in Rome for the administration of justice; end of period of military tribunes with consular powers.
366. Lucius Sextius is chosen **first consul from the plebeians** at Rome. Epaminondas invades Peloponnesus for the third time.
364. Pelopidas invades Thessaly and is slain at Cynoscephalæ, near Pharsalus.
364–359. Perdiccas III. reigns in Macedonia.
362. Battle of Mantineia.
361–285. Romans repel raids of Gauls.
360. Agesilaus of Sparta dies.
359–338. Artaxerxes III. (*Ochus*) reigns in Persia.
359–336. Philip II., youngest son of Amyntas II., reigns in Macedonia; he institutes reforms in the Macedonian army.
358. Philip defeats Pæonians and Illyrians.
357–354. Dion tyrant at Syracuse.
357. Philip seizes Amphipolis and Pydna; **war with Athens** results.
356. Philip seizes Potidæa and founds Philippi.
Alexander III. (the Great) born, son of Philip II.
355. Second Athenian Empire dissolved.
354–350. Eubulus controls policies of Athens.
354. Cære becomes first Roman municipium.
Demosthenes first appears before the people in an affair of state.
351. First **Philippic** delivered by **Demosthenes.**
Death of Mausolus of Caria.
348. Rome makes a commercial treaty with Carthage. Philip of Macedon extends his empire in Thrace as far as Byzantium.
347. Plato dies (born in 427; pupil of Socrates).
346. Philip makes peace with Athens (Peace of Philocrates); goes to Delphi; lays waste Phocis.
345–337. Timoleon general in Sicily; defeats Carthaginians at Crimisus.
343–341. First Samnite War (between Rome and Samnium).
342. Philip overruns Thrace. **Aristotle,** pupil of Plato, becomes Alexander's tutor. [League.
340–338. Great Latin War; dissolution of Latin
340. The Athenians oppose Philip with arms as he advances against Byzantium, and he is obliged to abandon the advance.
339–338. Sacred War; Philip, chosen amphictyonic general, seizes Elatea.
338. Philip defeats the Athenians and Thebans near **Chæronea** (August); **Macedonian hegemony** over Greece **established; Hellenic League** formed, with synod at Corinth.
Roman **silver coins issued** in Campania.
336. Darius III. (*Codomannus*) succeeds to the sovereignty of Persia.
Philip of Macedon assassinated by one of his bodyguard, Pausanias (August), and is succeeded by **Alexander the Great.**
335. Alexander subdues the Triballi, and razes Thebes (September).
334. He **undertakes the conquest of Persia** and defeats the Persian army at the Granicus (May).
333. Alexander defeats Darius near Issus (November); overruns Syria.
332. Alexander besieges and **destroys Tyre;** takes Gaza and (possibly) enters Jerusalem; occupies Egypt and **founds Alexandria.**
331. Alexander overcomes the Persians at Gaugamela, 60 miles from Arbela, and not far from the ancient Nineveh (October); goes to Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis.
Aristotle's *Politics* finished.
330. Darius seized by his kinsman, Bessus, and slain. Alexander marches through Parthia and Media; he puts his general, Parmenio, to death.
329. Alexander invades Bactria.
327–304. Second Samnite War.
327. Alexander marries Roxana, daughter of Oxyartes, the satrap of Sogdiana; he **invades India.**
326. Alexander conquers Porus, an Indian king
325. Nearchus (under Alexander's orders) in about seventy-five days sails down the Indus, across the sea, and up the Euphrates.
324. Alexander returns to Babylon.
323. He **dies** there; Philip III. (*Arrhidæus*), Alexander's half brother, nominally succeeds to the throne of Macedonia; Perdiccas is made regent; **Alexander's conquered territories divided among his generals;** Lysimachus receives Thrace; Antipater is made ruler of the remaining Macedonian Empire in Europe.
Ptolemy I. (*Soter*), son of Lagus, becomes **ruler, and** about 305 **king, of Egypt.**
322. Death of Demosthenes at Calauria; **death of Aristotle** at Chalkis; **Lamian War;** Antipater and the Macedonians defeat the Greeks near Cranmon; the Ætolians are the chief champions of Hellas; **Ætolian League formed.**
321. Romans defeated by the Samnites **at the Caudine Forks.**
Death of Perdiccas; Antipater follows as regent.
320. Ptolemy takes Jerusalem. [Asia.
319. Antipater dies; Eumenes is made General of
317–307. Demetrius of Phalerum rules Athens; age of Menander.
317. Philip Arrhidæus is put to death by Olympias.
316–289. Agathocles is tyrant at Syracuse.
316. Cassander, Antipater's son, rules in Macedonia.
312–308. Appius Claudius Cæcus censor; work begun on the **Appian Way** from Rome to Capua. **Appian aqueduct** built; powers of Senate assailed.
312. Battle of Gaza; Babylon reoccupied by Seleucus Nicator; era of the **Seleucidæ** begins.
311. Cassander, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Antigonus make a treaty of peace.
310. Cassander puts to death Alexander's widow, Roxana, and her son, Alexander IV.
Agathocles carries the war with the Carthaginians **into Africa.**
The Romans cross the Ciminian forest and defeat the Etruscans, who had joined the Samnites.
307. Demetrius Poliorcetes (son of Antigonus) liberates Athens. [king.
306. Battle of Salamis. Antigonus takes title of
305. Siege of Rhodes.
304. End of second Samnite War.
301. Antigonus is defeated and slain at the battle of Ipsus by Lysimachus and Seleucus.

AGE OF ROMAN REPUBLIC.

300. Antioch, Seleucia, Apamea, and Laodicea are founded by Seleucus.
298. Third Samnite War begins.
297. Cassander dies; Alexander V. and Antipater reign in Macedonia. Pyrrhus restored to throne of Epirus. [Samnites at Sentinum.
295. Fabius overcomes the Etruscans, Gauls, and
294. Demetrius I. (*Poliorcetes*) takes Athens; murders Alexander; **seizes Macedonian throne.**
290. Third Samnite War of the Romans **ends.**
288. Pyrrhus rules in Macedonia.
287. Hortensian law enacted in Rome, making the votes of the Comitia tributa binding on all citizens. Secession of the plebeians to Janiculum.
285–247. Ptolemy II. (*Philadelphus*) reigns in Egypt; the **Museum in Alexandria** flourishes with distinguished men of science and literature; Jewish Scriptures begin to be translated into Greek for the Jews at Alexandria (**Septuagint version**); **bucolic poetry** (Theocritus) at its best.
283. Demetrius Poliorcetes dies. [Tarentum.
282. War between Rome and the Greek city of
281. Pyrrhus of Epirus is summoned to Italy to aid Tarentum. Seleucus defeats Lysimachus at Corupedion; Lysimachus falls.
280–261. Antiochus I. (*Soter*) reigns in Syria.
280. Achæan League formed. Pyrrhus wins the **battle of Heraclea,** but with heavy loss. First meeting of **Greek phalanx** and **Roman legion.**
Death of Seleucus (281?).
279. The Gauls under Brennus **invade Macedonia,** and pillage Delphi.
Pyrrhus is victorious over the Romans in the battle of Asculum, but again with heavy loss (**"Pyrrhic victory."** See in the *Dictionary.*)
278–246. Nicomedes I. reigns in Bithynia; he invites the Gauls to enter Asia.
278. Alliance between Rome and Carthage; Pyrrhus in Sicily.
277. Gauls driven from Macedonia by Antigonus.
276–240. Antigonus (*Gonatas*) reigns in Macedonia.
276–195? Eratosthenes computes the **circumference of the earth** with substantial correctness.
275. Pyrrhus is beaten by the Romans under Curius Dentatus at Beneventum; from this victory may be dated the **supremacy of Rome in Italy.**
274. Pyrrhus defeats Antigonus and is declared king of Macedon, but in 272 he is **slain** near Argos, and the crown is restored to Antigonus. [phus.
273. Treaty between Rome and Ptolemy Philadel-
272. Surrender of Tarentum to Rome.
270. The philosopher **Epicurus** (born 342?) dies.
268. Hiero is recognized as tyrant of Syracuse.
First coinage of silver in Rome.
266. Treaty between Athens, Sparta, and Ptolemy.
264. First Punic War between Rome and Carthage begins. **Zeno,** philosopher, **dies** (another date, 261).
261–246. Antiochus II. (*Theos*) reigns in Syria.
261. Antigonus conquers Athens.
260. A Roman fleet, constructed to meet the Carthaginians, is **victorious off Mylæ.**
Aristarchus of Samos launches the **heliocentric theory** (that the earth moves round the sun).
256. Second and greater **victory** of the Roman fleet **off Ecnomus.** The consul M. Atilius Regulus "carries the war into Africa," but in the following year is defeated and captured.
251. Aratus frees Sicyon from tyranny and annexes it to the Achæan League.

250. Arsaces leads a revolt against the Seleucids and founds Parthian Empire. Era of the **Arsacidæ** begins.

248–242. The Carthaginian general, **Hamilcar,** holds Eryx (in Sicily) against all Roman attacks.

247–222. Ptolemy III. (*Euergetes*) reigns in Egypt; conquers Syria and holds it a few years. Struggle with Macedon for sea power in eastern Mediterranean ends with **destruction of Egyptian fleet.**

246–226. Seleucus II. (*Callinicus*) reigns in Syria. Dynastic war rends Seleucid Empire for 20 years.

245–213. Aratus is general of the Achæan League in practically every alternate year.

242. Corinth joins the Achæan League.

241–197. Attalus I. (*Soter*) reigns in Pergamum.

241. First Punic War ends with the Roman victory at the Ægades islands; Carthage agrees to pay an indemnity of 3,200 talents, and the larger part of **Sicily** becomes the **first Roman province.**

240. Livius Andronicus, the translator of the Odyssey into Latin, exhibits first play at Rome.

239–229. Demetrius II. reigns in Macedonia.

238. Sardinia, taken from Carthage, is made the **second Roman province.** Ætolian and Achæan Leagues unite to expel Macedonia from Greece.

235–220. Cleomenes III. reigns in Sparta.

231. Chrysippus becomes head of the Stoic school.

229–221. Antigonus (*Doson*) reigns in Macedonia.

229. The suppression of the **Illyrian pirates** leads to a treaty between Rome and Corcyra and other Greek powers.

228. Argos joins the Achæan League; Athens is freed from Macedonian garrisons, and adopts a policy of strict neutrality: age of Eurycleides and Micion. Prusias I. reigns in Bithynia; dies about 185; is succeeded by Prusias II.

227. The Spartans under Cleomenes III. defeat the Achæans at Laodicea, and Lydiades falls.

225–222. The **Gauls** of northern Italy **advance upon Rome,** but are utterly **routed** by the Romans; Cisalpine Gaul is subdued and colonies are established; **all Italy is now Roman.**

223–187. Antiochus III. (the Great) reigns in Syria.

223. Aratus calls the Macedonians under Antigonus to the aid of the Achæans against Cleomenes of Sparta; glory of the Achæan League passes away.

222–205. Ptolemy IV. (*Philopator*) reigns in Egypt.

221–179. Philip V. reigns in Macedon.

221. The Macedonians vanquish the Spartans under Cleomenes at Sellasia.

220–217. The Ætolians ravage Achaia; **Social War** (between Achæan and Ætolian leagues) follows.

219. Second **Illyrian War** of Rome.

218. Second Punic War begins; **Hannibal,** having established the Carthaginian power in Spain, **crosses the Alps** into Italy and defeats the Romans in the battles of the Ticinus and Trebbia; the Gauls of northern Italy join him.

217. Philip makes peace with the Ætolians at Naupactus.
Ptolemy defeats Antiochus III. of Syria at Raphia.
The **Romans** are **defeated** in battle of Lake Trasimenus **by Hannibal.**

216. Philip V. of Macedon makes an alliance with Hannibal.
Romans defeated by Hannibal at Cannæ, — the severest defeat ever sustained by Rome; Hannibal winters in Capua; some Italian towns renounce the Roman alliance; the Romans, by great efforts, raise and equip two new armies. [gins.

215. First war between Rome and Macedonia be-

213. The Achæan general Aratus dies.

212. Marcellus captures Syracuse and drives Carthaginians from Sicily; death of Archimedes: **close of the greatest epoch of Greek science.**
Ætolia joins Rome against Philip; Romans invade Greece.

208. Publius Scipio fails to prevent Hasdrubal, the brother of Hamibal, from crossing the Pyrenees to march into Italy.

207–192. Nabis is tyrant at Sparta.

207. Hasdrubal is defeated and killed in battle near the Metaurus before he is able to join Hannibal; Hannibal retires to southern Italy.

206. Ætolians make peace with the Macedonians.

205(203?)–181. Ptolemy V. (*Epiphanes*) reigns in Egypt; Philip of Macedon and Antiochus of Syria conspire to divide Empire of Egypt between them.

205. Philip of Macedon makes peace with Romans.

204. Publius Cornelius Scipio (*Africanus*) lands in Africa and is joined by Masinissa.

203. Hannibal retires from Italy to Carthage.

202. Scipio defeats Hannibal in the decisive battle of **Zama.**

201. Peace between Rome and Carthage.

200. Rome interferes again in Grecian affairs, and second war between Rome and Macedonia begins. Antiochus III. defeats Egyptians at Panium.

198. The Achæan League makes its first treaty with Rome.

197–159. Eumenes II. reigns in Pergamum.

197. Romans defeat Philip V. at Cynoscephalæ, and **end Macedonian supremacy in Greece.**

196. At the Isthmian games, the states which had been subject to Macedon are proclaimed free.

193. Antiochus of Syria makes treaty with Egypt, by which he retains Palestine and grants its tribute to Ptolemy as dowry with his daughter, Cleopatra I.

192. Nabis, the Spartan tyrant, murdered by the Ætolians; Sparta joins the Achæan League.
Antiochus enters Greece.

191. Elis and Messenia join the Achæan League.
Antiochus and his allies are defeated by the Romans at Thermopylæ.

190. Battle of Magnesia.

189. Fulvius, commanding Romans, conquers Ætolian League. Antiochus yields Asia Minor to Rome.

187–175. Seleucus IV. (*Philopator*) reigns in Syria.

187. Hannibal takes refuge at the court of Prusias.

183. Scipio Africanus, the Elder, dies (born 237).
Hannibal, to escape falling into the hands of the Romans, **commits suicide** in Bithynia.

182–148. Prusias II. reigns in Bithynia.

181–146. Ptolemy VII. (*Philometor*) rules in Egypt.

179–168. Perseus rules in Macedonia.

175–164. Antiochus IV. (*Epiphanes*) rules in Syria.

171. The third Macedonian War with Rome begins; dissolution of the Bœotian League.

170. Antiochus visits Jerusalem.

169. Death of **Ennius** (born 239), the first great Roman epic poet.

168. Perseus is defeated in the battle of Pydna (June); end of the Macedonian monarchy. Persecution of the Jews by Antiochus (*Epiphanes*); the temple at Jerusalem is defiled.

167. The Ætolian patriots are put to death, and 1,000 Achæan patriots (including the historian Polybius) are transported to Rome.
Jewish revolt against Antiochus by Mattathias and his five sons **(the Maccabees).**

166. Delos given by Rome to Athens.

162. Demetrius Soter kills Antiochus V. (ruled 164–162) and reigns in his stead until 150.

161. The Jews make a **treaty with Rome.**

160. Judas Maccabæus, leader of the Jews, is slain. Jonathan Maccabæus takes his place.

159–138. Attalus II. reigns at Pergamum.

153. Celtiberian War begins.

150–145. Alexander Balas, having dethroned Demetrius, reigns in Syria.

150. Roman senate releases the surviving leaders of the Achæan League.

149–92. Nicomedes II., having killed his father, Prusias II., reigns in Bithynia.

149. Cato (the Censor), writer on history and on agriculture, **dies** (born 234). Senate, through court of extortion, assumes control of provincial government: **height of senatorial power.**

148. The revolt in Macedonia is suppressed: **Macedonia a Roman province.**

146–117. Ptolemy IX. (*Euergetes* II., *Physcon*) reigns in Egypt.

146. Carthage is captured by Publius Cornelius Scipio, the Younger, and **utterly destroyed; Africa a Roman province.**
The Roman consul Mummius defeats the Achæans at Leucopetra, near Corinth; the **Romans destroy Corinth; Achæan League dissolved,** and all **Greece becomes** practically **subject to Rome** as a sort of dependency of the Roman province of Macedonia.

145–138. Demetrius Nicator overthrows Alexander Balas; reigns in Syria.

143–135. Simon Maccabæus, high priest and prince at Jerusalem, obtains from Demetrius a recognition of **Jewish independence.**

143–133. Numantine War in Spain.

139–129. Antiochus VII. (*Sidetes*), having slain the usurper Tryphon, reigns in Syria, in the stead of his captive brother, Demetrius Nicator.

139. Parthians, under Mithridates I., take Demetrius Nicator prisoner and **conquer Babylonia.**
The Greek dynasty of Bactria succumbs to Tatar tribe of Su.

136–132. The Servile War in Sicily.

135–105. John Hyrcanus I. is high priest and prince at Jerusalem.

133. Antiochus destroys the walls of Jerusalem.
Attalus III. of Pergamum bequeaths his kingdom to Rome.
Publius Scipio, the Younger, takes Numantia after a siege of more than a year; **death of Tiberius Gracchus,** who had attempted agrarian reforms.

129. Assassination of Scipio Africanus, the Younger.
Antiochus invades Parthia; he is defeated and **killed.** Demetrius Nicator is restored to the throne of Syria, and reigns until 125.

125–96. Antiochus VIII. (*Grypus*) reigns in Syria.

123–121. Caius Sempronius Gracchus continues his brother's agitation in favor of constitutional and agrarian reforms; he is slain.
Knights given control of court of extortion and provincial administration.

120. Mithridates VI. (*Eupator*) succeeds his father in Greater Phrygia and Pontus, and, about 115, takes government into his own hands.

118. Foundation of Narbo. Jugurtha shares with his cousins the throne of Numidia.

117. Ptolemy IX. dies: Ptolemy X. (*Soter* II.) reigns in Egypt from 117 to 107 and from 88 to 81.

113–101. War between the Romans and the Cimbri and Teutones.

112–105. War of the Romans with Jugurtha, king of Numidia.

111. Antiochus IX. (*Cyzicenus*) reigns over Cœle-Syria; his brother, Grypus, reigns at Antioch.

107–88. Ptolemy XI. reigns in Egypt.

105. Jugurthine War ends by the betrayal of Jugurtha to Marius.
Two Roman armies destroyed at Arausio.

104–99. Revolt of slaves in Sicily, Italy, and Attica.

103–76. Alexander Jannæus is king and high priest of the Jews.

102. Caius Marius overcomes the Teutones in the battle of the Aquæ Sextiæ.

101. Marius **annihilates the Cimbri** at Vercellæ; reform of the Roman army organization.

100. Marius, consul for the sixth time, crushes the revolutionists Saturninus and Glaucia.

95–83. Antiochus X. (*Eusebes*) reigns in Syria.

95–54. Tigranes II. (the Great) reigns in Armenia.

92–90. Reforms and assassination of M. Livius Drusus. [thynia.

92–74. Nicomedes III. (*Philopator*) reigns in Bi-

90–88. Revolt of Italian allies against Rome.

88. Civil war begins between Marius and L. Cornelius Sulla. Mithridates invades Asia Minor, and in one day massacres great numbers of Roman citizens (80,000–150,000). [Cinna.

87. Massacre of Sulla's partisans by Marius and

86. Marius dies at Rome in his 7th consulship.
Athens is stormed by Sulla.

83. Romans restore Nicomedes to Bithynian throne.

82. Sulla, having concluded the Mithridatic War, becomes **dictator** of Rome; proscription of the leaders of the party of Marius. Sulla reforms the constitution in the interest of the optimate (senatorial) party.

81. Ptolemy XIII. (*Auletes*) gains Egyptian throne.

79. Sulla abdicates; dies the following year.

77–71. Campaigns of Pompey against Sertorius in Spain.

74. Nicomedes of Bithynia bequeaths his kingdom to Rome. Third Mithridatic War begins.

73. Spartacus, the gladiator, **leads a revolt of slaves** against Rome.

71. Crassus crushes revolt of slaves.

70. Consulship of Pompey and Crassus. Constitution of Sulla overthrown.

69–64. Antiochus XIII. (*Asiaticus*) reigns in Syria.

69. Lucullus defeats Tigranes of Armenia.

67. Gabinian Law, by which Pompey is given command against pirates, passed.

66. Manilian Law; Pompey against Mithridates.

64. Pompey conquers Syria, and dethrones Antiochus.

63–40. Hyrcanus II. is high priest and ethnarch of the Jews.

63. Pompey takes Jerusalem.
The Mithridatic War is ended: Syria becomes a Roman province.
Cicero puts down the conspiracy of **Catiline.**

61. Caius Julius Cæsar (quæstor in 69, ædile in 65, Pontifex Maximus since 64, prætor in 62) gains military experience as proprætor of Farther Spain.

60. Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, form the **First Triumvirate.**

59. Consulship of Cæsar. Ptolemy XIII. (*Auletes*) recognized as king of Egypt.

58–51. Cæsar conquers Gaul.

56. Conference at Luca; renewal of the triumvirate.

55. Cæsar invades Britain.

54. Cæsar invades Britain for the second time.

53. Crassus is defeated by the Parthians at Carræ and **killed.**

52. Pompey, sole consul, **opens attack on Cæsar.**

51. Death of Ptolemy Auletes; **he is** succeeded by his daughter Cleopatra (born B. C. 69) and her brother Ptolemy XIV., younger than herself.

49. Cæsar crosses the Rubicon, and war breaks out between him and the senatorial party in Rome, led by Pompey.

48. Pompey conquered at Pharsalia, and **murdered** on the coast of Egypt by the order of Ptolemy.

47. Cæsar conquers Ptolemy. Cleopatra reigns in Egypt with her younger brother, Ptolemy XV. **Library at Alexandria burned.**
Cæsar defeats Pharnaces at Zela, and sends to the senate the famous message: **"Veni, vidi, vici."**

46. The followers of Pompey are defeated at Thapsus, and Marcus Porcius **Cato commits suicide** at Utica.
Julian calendar introduced (see CALENDAR, in the *Dictionary*).

45. Battle of Munda; Cæsar gains victory over the sons of Pompey.

44. Cæsar founds Roman colonies at Corinth and Carthage. **Cæsar,** autocrat through a life tenure of dictatorial, consular, censorial, and tribunicial power, **is assassinated** in the senate house at Rome, March 15.

AGE OF ROMAN EMPIRE.

43. Octavianus, Antony, and Lepidus form the **Second Triumvirate. Cicero delivers the Philippics** against Antony. Proscription of leaders of the senate; **Cicero is slain.**

42. **Brutus and Cassius,** leaders of the Republican party, are **vanquished at Philippi by Octavianus and Antony.**

41. **Cleopatra** is summoned before **Antony** to answer for the murder of her brother; he becomes infatuated with her and follows her to Egypt.

40. **Herod the Great** is proclaimed **king** of Judea.

36. Octavianus crushes Sextus Pompeius and forces Lepidus to withdraw from the triumvirate.

31. Octavianus defeats Antony and Cleopatra in the **battle of Actium,** September 2.

30. Octavianus occupies Egypt; **Antony and Cleopatra commit suicide.**

27. Octavianus receives the title of *Augustus* from the senate; beginning of the principate.

27–14 A. D. **Augustan age of Latin literature** (Vergil, Horace, Ovid, Tibullus, Propertius, Livy; Mæcenas the patron of literature).

27–19. Augustus rearranges the provinces.

23. Augustus abandons consulship and governs through tribunicial power.

20. Peace arranged with Parthian Empire.

19–16. Great domestic **reforms of Augustus.**

15. **Roman frontier advanced** to include Rhætia and Noricum.

13–6 A. D. **Germany conquered;** Roman frontier advanced from Rhine to Elbe.

12. **Death of Agrippa** (born 63.)

11–9. **Roman frontier advanced** to Danube; Pannonia and Mœsia organized. [Rhodes.

6 B. C.–2 A. D. **Tiberius in retirement** at

BEGINNING OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

4 B. C. **Jesus the Christ** is born. See CHRISTIAN ERA, in the *Dictionary.*

4 A. D. Death of Caius Cæsar, grandson of Augustus; Tiberius adopted by Augustus and made his colleague.

6–41. Judea under Roman procurators.

9. **Arminius** (Hermann), the great leader of the Teutonic nations, **defeats Varus,** and destroys three legions; **Germany abandoned by Rome.**

14. **Death of** the emperor **Augustus;** he is **succeeded by** his stepson, **Tiberius.**

14–37. Principate of Tiberius.

26–36. **Pontius Pilate** procurator of Judea.

27. **John the Baptist** begins his mission.
Tiberius withdraws from Rome to the island of Capreæ (now Capri). [Tiberius.

27–31. Sejanus master of Rome in the absence of

28. The **Christ begins his teaching** in Galilee.

30 (or **31**). **He is crucified** by order of the Roman procurator.

35. Conversion of **Saul of Tarsus.**

37. Caius Cæsar (*Caligula*) succeeds Tiberius.

41. **Claudius made emperor** by Prætorian Guard.

41–44. **Herod Agrippa** king of Judea.

43. Aulus Plautius occupies parts of Britain.

44–66. Judea under Roman procurators.

46–120. **Plutarch** lives.

47. The **Romans subdue South Britain.**

48. **Claudius** orders the taking of a **census** of the whole Roman Empire.

49. He **banishes the Jews from Rome;** he constructs a camp on the site of London.

50. Ostorius overcomes Caractacus, British king.

51. Caractacus is carried in chains to Rome.

51–68. **Nero emperor.**

61. **Boadicea,** queen of the Iceni, defeats the Romans, but is finally herself defeated.
St. Paul is brought a **prisoner to Rome.**

64. **Rome burned;** Nero begins a **persecution of the Christians.**

65. **Seneca,** the philosopher, **and Lucan,** the poet, are **put to death.** [Romans

66. Nero in Greece; Jews in Palestine rebel against

67. **St. Paul perishes by martyrdom.**

68. Galba, Otho, and Vitellius become emperors in succession.

69. Mutiny of the frontier armies; **Vespasian proclaimed emperor** by the legions in Syria.

70. **Titus partially destroys Jerusalem.**

75. Vespasian begins building of **Colosseum.**

79. Titus succeeds Vespasian.
Destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii by an eruption of Vesuvius. Agricola defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus and completes the conquest of Britain for the Romans.
Death of the elder Pliny.

81. Domitian becomes emperor, succeeding his elder brother, Titus. [philosophers.

93. Domitian persecutes the Jews, Christians, and

96. Domitian is assassinated, and is succeeded by **Nerva, first of the "five good emperors."**

98. **Trajan** becomes emperor.

103. Pliny the Younger is proconsul in Bithynia.

106. Trajan persecutes the Christians; he creates the province of Dacia.

110 (107?). Martyrdom at Rome of Ignatius, bishop of Antioch.

113. Trajan's column is reared in Rome.

115. Trajan annexes Parthia; **Roman Empire reaches its greatest extent; silver age of Roman literature** (Tacitus, Pliny, Quintilian, Juvenal) falls chiefly within Trajan's reign. (See LATIN, *n.*, **t,** in the *Dictionary*).

117–138. **Hadrian emperor** in Rome.

121. Hadrian builds the wall from the Solway to the Tyne.

122. Hadrian visits Egypt and Greece.

132. Bar-cocheba captures Jerusalem.

135. **Romans subdue a revolt in Judea;** half a million Jews perish.

138–161. Antoninus Pius emperor in Rome.

139. Wall built by the Romans between the Forth and the Clyde.

155. **Martyrdom of Polycarp,** a pupil of the apostle John.

161–180. **Marcus Aurelius emperor** in Rome.

162. The Parthians invade Syria.

166. **Persecution of the Christians** throughout the Roman Empire.

180–192. Commodus emperor in Rome.

193. Pertinax emperor. Julian buys the empire from the Prætorian Guard.

193–211. Mutiny of the frontier armies. Septimius Severus emperor.

196. **Byzantium taken by** the emperor **Severus;** he protects the Jews.

197. He defeats Albinus, governor of Britain, in a great battle at Lyons.

200. Age of Papinian, the great Roman jurist.

204. South Britain is divided into two provinces.

208. Severus establishes his court at Eboracum (York), and dies there in 211.

212. Edict of Caracalla (emperor 211–217) gives Roman citizenship to all freemen in the empire.

215. Caracalla causes massacres in Alexandria.

222. Ulpian, the great jurist, becomes prætorian prefect; Alexander Severus, emperor (222–235).

227. Ardshir (Artaxerxes), having come to the Persian throne in 211 or 212, overthrows the Parthian Empire and founds the Persian **monarchy of the Sassanidæ** (Sassanian Empire).

235–284. **Disintegration of the Roman Empire.** Repeated mutinies of the frontier armies, followed by **invasions of the barbarians.**

240–271. Sapor I. reigns over Persians. **Rise of Manichæism.**

250. **The Goths invade the Roman Empire.**
A persecution of the Christians begun by Decius.

252. Roman Empire stricken with a pestilence.

252–260. Sapor I. wages war against the Romans; he occupies Armenia, invades Syria, and captures the emperor Valerian.

253. **Franks invade Gaul, Spain, and Africa.**

255. The Goths overrun Thrace.

267. **Athens taken by the Goths.**

269. Claudius II. (Gothicus) triumphs over Goths.
Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, **conquers Egypt.**

270. **Aurelian** becomes **emperor;** abandons Dacia to the Goths.

271. Aurelian reëstablishes Roman sway in Egypt.

273. Zenobia is brought as prisoner to Rome, after the capture of Palmyra by Aurelian.
Tetricus is crushed in Gaul and **unity is restored to the Roman Empire.**

277. Emperor Probus drives Germans out of Gaul.

283. Carus invades Persia and conquers Seleucia and Ctesiphon.

284–305. **Diocletian emperor** in Rome. Diocletian makes Maximian his colleague.

286. Carausius in Britain makes himself Roman emperor.

293. Constantius and Galerius associated as Cæsars with the emperors Diocletian and Maximian.

294. Allectus slays Carausius and seizes the British dominion.

296. Constantius recovers Britain.

298. Galerius defeats Narses, king of Persia, and restores Tiridates to the Armenian throne. Persia makes peace with Diocletian.

303. Diocletian begins the so-called "tenth" persecution by an edict against the Christians.

305. **Abdication of Diocletian.**

306. Constantius dies at York, July 25; Constantine succeeds him.

308. **Six emperors** exist simultaneously **in the Roman Empire.** [sian crown.

310. Sapor (Shapur) II., a babe, receives the Per-

311. Galerius, in the name of Constantine, issues an **edict of toleration of the Christians.**

312. **Constantine converted** to Christianity. Battle of the Milvian Bridge.

313. **Edict of Milan.**

324. **Constantine** defeats Licinius at Chrysopolis and **rules alone.**

325. Constantine convokes **first general council of the Christian Church at Nicæa;** it formulates the **Nicene Creed; Arian controversy.**

326. **Foundation of Constantinople.**

332. Tenant farmers (*coloni*) bound to the soil. (See COLONUS in the *Dictionary.*)

334. Sarmatians allowed to settle in Thrace.

337. **Constantine dies.** May 22. Empire divided again into four parts.
Sapor begins a war against the Romans, which is waged for twenty-five years.

339. Awful **persecution of Christians in Persia.**

348. **Ulfilas** bishop to the Goths.

353–361. Constantius rules reunited empire.

360. **Britain invaded by** the **Scots** and the **Picts.**

361. **Julian proclaimed emperor** of the West by the Roman army in Gaul. He **abjures Christianity** and reopens the pagan temples.

363. **Julian is slain** in battle in Persia, near the Tigris, June 26.
Jovian, making peace with Sapor, yields up the Persian provinces; he **restores Christianity.**

364. **Division of the empire;** Valentinian takes the western division, Valens the eastern.

365. Sapor annexes Armenia to Persia; is soon again at war with the Romans.

371. Cessation of war between Persians and Romans.

374. **St. Ambrose elected Bishop of Milan;** he champions the cause of the Catholics against the Arians and pagans; he excommunicates the emperor Theodosius for his cruelty in the massacre of Thessalonica (390).

378. **Valens defeated and slain** by the Visigoths in the battle of Adrianople.

379–395. **Theodosius** the Great is **emperor.** Prohibits paganism.

381. **Second ecumenical council,** at Constantinople; **the Apollinarian controversy.**

382. Hieronymus, known as **St. Jerome,** one of the Fathers of the Latin Church, removes from Antioch to Rome: here he begins and completes the Latin version of the Bible known as the **Vulgate.**

387. **St. Augustine** of Hippo is baptized by **St. Ambrose.**

389. Worship of Serapis in Egypt abolished and his temple destroyed.

390. Armenia divided by treaty between Persia and Rome.

394. **Olympian games abolished.**

395. Triumph and death of Theodosius.
Roman Empire finally divided into Eastern and Western.
St. Augustine is made Bishop of Hippo. He becomes the champion of the orthodox faith against the Donatists and the Pelagians.

395–408. Stilicho, the power behind the throne of the Western Emperor Honorius. Arcadius reigns in the East.

396. **Alaric invades Greece.**

402. Honorius, the Western emperor, fixes his residence at Ravenna.

404. **St. Chrysostom** of Antioch is exiled to Cappadocia, where he composes his principal works.

408–450. Theodosius II. reigns in the East.

409. The **Vandals invade Spain.**

410. Honorius renounces the sovereignty of Britain.
Alaric and the Goths sack Rome, August 24.

420. Bahram (Varanes) V., a favorite hero of Persian tradition, becomes king of Persia.

422. Romans (Eastern Empire) and Persians make peace; **religious freedom** granted the Christians in Persia and Zoroastrians in the Roman Empire.

425–455. Valentinian III. emperor in the West; Aëtius the power behind the throne.

425. University of Constantinople organized.
Vortigern reigns in Britain.

426. **St. Augustine** of Hippo publishes the **De Civitate Dei,** "Concerning the City of God."

429. Armenia is united to Persia.
The Vandals under Genseric invade Africa.

431. Third ecumenical council at Ephesus; **Nestorian controversy.**

439. Carthage captured by Vandals.

440–461. **Leo I.,** surnamed the Great, is **pope.**

441. **Attila invades Thrace.**

449. **Hengist and Horsa,** Saxon invaders, land in England.

450–500. **Saxons and Jutes** make conquests and settlements in **England;** era of so-called **heptarchy.**

451. **Attila invades Gaul** and besieges Orléans; battle of Châlons.
Fourth ecumenical council, at Chalcedon; **Eutychian controversy.**

455. **Genseric** and the **Vandals capture Rome,** July 15.

476. **Barbarian mercenaries** demand a third of the land of Italy, and on refusal revolt, **overthrow the remnant of Roman imperial power,** dethroning Romulus Augustulus and proclaiming the Herulian **Odoacer,** their leader, **king.** This **ends the Western Roman Empire and closes** what is conventionally called **Ancient History.**

Map Showing
GROWTH AND GREATEST EXTENT OF
THE ROMAN EMPIRE
SCALE OF ENGLISH MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West 15 from Greenwich
Longitude 25 East from Greenwich
EXPLANATION.
Roman Territory at the beginning of the First Punic War (264 B.C.)
Conquests resulting from First Punic War (to 238 B.C.)
Conquests to the end of the Second Punic War (201 B.C.)
Conquests to 133 (B.C.)
Conquests to the death of Caesar (44 B.C.)
Conquests to the death of Augustus (14 A.D.)
Conquests to the death of Marcus Aurelius (180 A.D.)
Countries partly independent are shown in Outline Color
Dates of acquisition before Christ are shown thus. 201
Dates of acquisition after Christ are shown thus. 88 A.D.
Aquitania Imperial Provinces
Narbonensis Senatorial Provinces
Boundaries of the Roman Provinces before Diocletian
Boundary between Eastern and Western Empire (395 A.D.)
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II. MEDIEVAL PERIOD: 477 A. D. TO 1492.

Historical Outline.

The word "medieval" is used of the long period beginning at the extinction of the Roman Empire in Western Europe. Its end has been variously conceived, sometimes as being coincident with the fall of Constantinople, in 1453, sometimes with the spread of the Renaissance over Western Europe about 1400; more often, with the discovery of the New World, in 1492, or the outbreak of the Protestant Revolution, in 1517. The transitions from ancient to medieval and from medieval to modern times were gradual and, of course, not perceived by contemporaries.

These **great divisions of history** are made mainly for convenience of treatment. But they are based on something more than this, for the chief ideas and forces that underlie the development are, in the Middle Ages, strikingly different from those of either ancient or modern history. Our choice of the particular points of division, however, will depend upon which of these ideas and forces we consider fundamental. In this work the expression "Medieval History" is applied to all the series of European events and transformations between the establishment of the first barbarian kingdom in Italy, in 477 A. D. and the discovery of America, in 1492, the period forming an epoch of **great changes in** the conditions and grouping of **European nations.**

Whatever may be the historical phraseology, the old forces of civilization in Europe certainly seemed markedly to decline with the decadence and extinction of the western division of the Roman Empire, and Europe was transformed into a condition so unlike that which prevailed during the long Roman ascendancy as to mark a **new era in human history.** It was an era in which civil society was broken up and new races and new institutions were forcibly implanted. Only in the towns and cities of the south of Europe, and in a few other favored localities were the remains of the old activities of the Romans any longer discoverable.

Two groups of causes of this great transmutation of Europe may be noted. The first relates to the internal **decay of the Roman race** and of the institutions which it had created. The second relates to the upheaval and progressive westward and southern **movement of the barbarian nations** across the line of the Danube and the Rhine.

The causes of this movement of the Teutonic nations are obscure and difficult to separate from legend. The fact of the barbarian invasions is sufficiently tangible, but not the impelling forces. The Germanic nations, seated in the north and far east, after having been held at bay for several centuries, at last broke over the frontiers of Rome and, pouring through the passes of the Alps, overran Italy, center of the Empire, defeated the armies of the degenerates, took the capital, uprooted the unreal government of Romulus Augustulus, and instituted a barbarian kingdom in its stead. This was the **kingdom of the Herulians;** and with this event the chronological outline of Medieval History may properly begin.

While the barbarian invasions were sweeping over the Roman Empire, the Eastern Empire maintained itself and was powerful and flourished long after the Western Empire was extinguished. **Justinian** performed one of the greatest of services to Rome by the codification of the **Roman law,** which later served as the foundation for the **civil law** of nearly all the civilized nations. With the fall of the Western Empire, the political supremacy of Italy vanished and its influence on subsequent history was chiefly due to the power of the papacy, seated at Rome, and to the vigor of the Renaissance.

A new and unexpected force arose on the eastern borders of European commerce and influence, when, in 570, was born **Mohammed,** the Arabian prophet, founder of the religion which to-day rivals Christianity in the numbers of its adherents. This religion, originating in Arabia, spread through Persia, Palestine, and Syria into Africa and Spain. Its triumphal progress was checked by the Franks under **Charles Martel** in 732, the Saracens were driven beyond the Pyrenees, and then slowly yielded till, in 1492, the last of their kingdoms, **Grenada,** went out of existence. In 1300 the **Ottoman Turks,** from the interior of northern Asia Minor, who were also followers of the Prophet, and who had long assailed the Eastern Empire, began their conquests, which culminated in the **capture of Constantinople,** in 1453, and the destruction of the empire. The Turks held Asia Minor, Greece, Northern Africa, and the Balkan and Danube region. Till the end of the 17th century they threatened Christian civilization in Eastern Europe. The **Ottoman Empire** maintained itself over Christian subject peoples till the close of the World War in 1918.

The barbarian kingdoms which were founded in Italy had little subsequent effect on Europe. The central power was shifted to Gaul, where the **Franks,** under **Clovis,** accepted Christianity and laid the foundations for the modern state of **France.** It was a prince of the Frankish royal house founded by Clovis, **Charles Martel,** who checked the Mohammedan invasions, and under **Charlemagne** the Western Empire was revived. After Charlemagne's death (814) his empire soon fell to pieces, but was revived under **Otto the Great** as the **"Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation,"** which claiming, but never exercising, world dominion, was the strongest temporal force in Europe during the Middle Ages.

A second force of even wider importance was **the papacy.** Through the agency of the missionaries, priests, and monks of the church, the barbarians were everywhere Christianized and brought to adopt the essentials of Western civilization. What little remained of the classical learning of antiquity was kept alive in the monasteries of the church. The influence of the pope, however, was not confined to spiritual affairs: he claimed the right to excommunicate and depose sovereigns who disobeyed the commands of the church; and eventually brought together a temporal dominion, enveloping Rome, as a defense of his person and rights in rude times.

The political and social system of Western Europe throughout the greater part of the period was based upon the **feudal system,** by which the functions of the state were transferred from the central authority and exercised by individuals. Socially, the individual and the land were closely associated and, according to the strict feudal theory, there was no land without its landlord and no man without his overlord. Allegiance was owed, not to the state, but to the overlord, who in turn might be the vassal of a greater noble.

In Asia the Sui dynasty flourished in China, but was overthrown in the 11th century by the Tatars; and the great Mongol emperor, **Kuhlai Khan,** established an empire which included all of Asia, save Hindustan and Arabia, and stretched into Europe. **Buddhism** was introduced into Japan, which meant the introduction of Chinese civilization into that kingdom, and in the 7th century the imperial dynasty of the mikado was established.

In the medieval period two great spiritual and intellectual movements took hold on Europe, — the Crusades and the Renaissance. In the spiritual sphere, beginning in the 11th century, came an outburst of religious enthusiasm which culminated in the **Crusades.** This passionate revival resulted in seven military expeditions to recover Jerusalem and the Holy Land from the possession of the Infidels, and lasted through the 12th and 13th centuries. The Crusades were among the greatest events in medieval history; they increased the power and authority of the papacy and the church, and also of the princes, stimulated intellectual growth, widened men's horizons, developed commerce, hastened the rise of towns, and established a tradition of the right and ability of Europe to exercise power in Asia.

About the year 1300, began the revival of learning known as the **Renaissance,** which first showed itself in Italy with the appearance of **Dante,** but quickly spread throughout Western Europe. It began with an almost passionate study of classical learning and antiquities; it widened into a magnificent literature in the modern tongues, which were by this time established. Greek philosophers and mathematicians had long before reached Europe through the Arabic versions. After the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, these writings stimulated the thought of European philosophers and literary men, and ultimately led to the questioning of the religious authority of the church.

From being purely a literary revival, the Renaissance became an artistic movement and the sculptors and painters of that period have never since been equaled. As a result of this movement, men sought to widen their knowledge of the world and in the **Age of Discoveries,** beginning with the 15th century, under the lead of Prince **Henry the Navigator,** explored the coast of Africa, discovered the Cape of Good Hope, and finally reached America.

In England, the Saxon kingdom fell before the invasion of the Normans in the 11th century, and a strong monarchy was established by **William the Conqueror,** which was developed and protected by his successor, Henry II., at the expense of the great feudal lords. During the reign of John, the germ of popular government was established in the **Great Charter,** while just at the end of the period the **Tudor** reigning house was established by Henry VII., which made England a strong national state.

In Spain the period closes with the accession of **Ferdinand and Isabella** and the union of various little kingdoms into a powerful national despotism.

In France feudalism retained its hold, and the development of a supreme national monarchy was postponed; while **in Italy** the Italian cities and duchies prevented the growth of a national state, but by their rivalries stimulated the intellectual revival. **Germany and Austria,** though possessing an inchoate nationality, developed no strong government, but consisted of a multitude of jurisdictions, owing shadowy allegiance to the Emperor.

Thus medieval history includes the **long struggle of the Christian Church** to maintain itself in a contest with the new barbarian conditions, to resist the aggressive assaults of Islam, and finally to readjust itself to the changing forces of the time, economic, political, and intellectual. It leads up to the story of the Crusades and of the institutions of chivalry which came afterwards. It describes the struggle of the papacy and its gradually developed constitution, first with the Empire, then with the national states whose powers and organizations were maturing as a result of the Empire's weakness.

It includes the **revelation of a new world** hitherto unknown except vaguely in the story of Atlantis, the sagas of Icelandic bards, and the tradition repeated by Mandeville. It is the background of the growth of representative institutions, the economic and political advance of the towns, and in the westernmost parts of Europe the increased participation in government of the middle class. It brings Europe up to the revival of art and learning, the reformation of religion, the division of the Continent into nations under conditions political and ecclesiastical which prepared the ground for the division of the church and nations into Catholic and Protestant.

Chronology.

THE BARBARIAN ASCENDANCY IN EUROPE.

477 A. D. The Herulian king, **Odoacer,** confirms his authority in Italy. From his capital of Ravenna he maintains his authority in Italy for fourteen years and is recognized as "Patrician" by the Emperor Zeno.

486. Clovis, or Chlodwig, king of the Franks, **invades Gaul,** defeats the Roman Governor Syagrius at **Soissons,** and by this victory destroys the Roman ascendancy north of the Alps.

493. Theodoric the Great, king of the East Goths, lays siege to Ravenna and compels Odoacer to surrender it. Theodoric establishes the **Ostrogothic kingdom** in Italy, and Odoacer is put to death.

496. Clovis converted to Christianity and baptized.

507. Clovis engages in a war with the Visigoths, whom he signally defeats in a battle at **Poitiers,** and obtains the mastery of Aquitania.

511. He dies and his territory is divided among his sons, Theodoric, Childebert, Clodomir, and Clotaire.

525. Boethius, the philosopher, author of the "Consolation of Philosophy," after filling the highest offices under Theodoric the Great, is **falsely accused** of treason by his enemies; he is imprisoned and executed by the order of Theodoric, who dies in the following year.

527–565. Justinian reigns over the Eastern Roman, or Byzantine, Empire.

529–534. Justinian promulgates the **Code, Institutes, and Digest** — law books which have profoundly influenced the whole subsequent European legal development.

Chosroes I., greatest of the Sassanid dynasty, **ascends the Persian throne;** he divides the empire into four districts, encourages learning, and introduces many reforms.

534–5. Justinian's general, **Belisarius,** leads an army against the Vandals in Africa and the Ostrogoths in Italy. He **regains Sicily.**

536. Belisarius continues successful warfare against the Ostrogoths and enters Rome in triumph.

537. Justinian consecrates the cathedral of Saint Sophia, which still stands, in Constantinople.

538. Vitiges, king of the Ostrogoths, besieges Belisarius in Rome, but is repulsed.

539. Belisarius attacks Vitiges in Ravenna and takes the city.

541. He is recalled from Italy and carries on a war in Syria against the Persian invasion of Chosroes I., whom he successfully withstands.

552. Narses, who succeeds Belisarius in the command of the Italian army, vanquishes and slays Totila (*Baduila*), king of the Ostrogoths. In the following year the **Ostrogothic kingdom** is **finally destroyed** by Narses, and Italy is restored to the dominion of the Emperor Justinian; Narses is appointed the first exarch (*i.e.*, governor) of Italy, with Ravenna as his capital.

554. The Alemanni and Franks invade Italy; they are routed by Narses.
558. **Clotaire I. unites Franks** into a kingdom.
561. On Clotaire's death the nation is again divided into petty states.
566. The kingdom of the Gepidæ, in Pannonia, is destroyed by the Lombards and Avars under Alboin, who marries Rosamunda, daughter of the king of the Gepidæ.
570 or 571. **Mohammed is born.**
572. Alboin, after many conflicts, succeeds in forming a **kingdom of the Lombards** in Italy, though it relapses into independent duchies after his death, in 574.
590–604. Gregory the Great adds to the power and prestige of the papacy.
597. **St. Augustine, Apostle of the English,** begins his missionary works among the Anglo-Saxons under the direction of Pope Gregory the Great. and Kent is converted.
611. **Chosroes II.,** of Persia, **makes successful wars** against the Byzantine Empire, in which he conquers Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor.
613. The Franks are again united into one kingdom for a short time under the sway of Clotaire II.
622. Heraclius, the Byzantine emperor, begins a victorious campaign against the Persians.

THE MOHAMMEDAN ASCENDANCY.

622. **Mohammed** flees from Mecca to Medina, this "**Hegira**" marking the beginning of the cycle of **Mohammedan chronology.**
627. Heraclius wins a decisive victory over Chosroes II. at Nineveh.
629. **Mohammed** forces Mecca to acknowledge his sway; he makes an **invasion of Palestine.**
632. The Prophet dies and **Abu-Bekr,** his father-in-law, **succeeds** to the primacy of Islam **as first of the caliphs;** he undertakes the conquest of Syria.
634. **Omar,** another father-in-law of Mohammed, **becomes caliph** on the death of Abu-Bekr.
635. In the battle of Cadesia Omar overwhelmingly **defeats the Persians.**
636. The caliph gains a series of victories ending with the **conquest of Palestine and Syria.**
641. Omar wrests Egypt from the possession of the Byzantine Empire. The Saracens under Omar win the battle of Nehavend; the Persian monarchy passes under the sway of Islam.
644. **Omar is murdered; Othman,** Mohammed's son-in-law, **succeeds** him.
656. **Othman is assassinated,** and **Ali,** another of the sons-in-law of the Prophet, **becomes caliph.**
661. The dynasty of the **Ommiads** is founded by Moawiyah, a governor of Syria, son of Abu Sofian, who has refused allegiance to Ali; he transfers the capital from Kufa to Damascus, and makes the **succession to the caliphate hereditary.**
668. Yesid, son of the caliph, begins the first **siege of Constantinople** by the Arabs. It continues for seven years.
711. **Tarik,** the general of Islam, after the conquest of North Africa, **leads the Saracens into Spain,** where they vanquish the Visigoths under Roderick at the battle of Jerez de la Frontera; after three years the larger part of **Spain is dominated by the invaders.**
717. Second siege of Constantinople by the Arabs, lasts thirteen months. Its failure secures the Christian occupation of Constantinople for the time.
719. The Saracens capture Narbonne.
728. Luitprand, Lombard king, captures Ravenna.
732. **Charles Martel,** at the head of the Franks, **overthrows the Saracens in battle of Poitiers** and drives them back beyond the Pyrenees.
750. **Abbassides,** of the line of Abbas, one of Mohammed's uncles, overthrow the Ommiad dynasty.
751. **Pepin the Short,** son of Charles Martel, dethrones Childeric III. of the Merovingian line, **establishes a new dynasty** (afterwards known as the **Carolingian,** or **Carlovingian**), and reigns over the Franks.
752. The exarchate of Ravenna is destroyed by the Lombards, under the leadership of Aistulf.
755. Aistulf is conquered by Pepin the Short, who bestows Ravenna, the Pentapolis, and other possessions taken from the Lombards upon Pope Stephen *II.*, thus laying the **foundation of the Papal States.**
756. Abderrahman, the only Ommiad prince to escape death at the hands of the Abbassides, founds in Spain the Ommiad caliphate of Córdoba.
762. The caliph Al-Mansur transfers the capital of the Abbasside caliphate to Bagdad, of which he is the founder.
768. On the death of Pepin his two sons, **Carloman and Charles (Charlemagne),** succeed to the rule of the **Frankish Empire.**

THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

771. Karl, or Charles, the Great (**Charlemagne**), on the death of his brother Carloman, becomes **sole ruler of the Franks.**
772. Desiderius having led the Lombards to seize the pope's patrimony, **Charlemagne** destroys the kingdom of the Lombards and is **crowned king of the Lombards,** 773.
778. In response to the Arabian governor's request for aid against Abderrahman, Charlemagne invades Spain and annexes the country between the Ebro and the Pyrenees under the name of the "**Spanish March.**"
786. **Harun-al-Rashid** (the Just) becomes caliph of the Arabian Empire, and introduces an era of remarkable enlightenment and prosperity.
787. **Northmen** begin **invasions of England.**
788. Charlemagne makes Bavaria a part of his dominions.
796. Charlemagne, after a campaign of five years, reduces the Avars to subjection and incorporates their territory with the Frankish kingdom under the name of the "Avaric March."
800. *Dec. 25.* **Pope Leo III.,** having obtained the aid of **Charlemagne** to overcome an insurrection of the Romans, **crowns his benefactor** as successor of the Cæsars.
804. After a war of thirty-two years' duration **Charlemagne subjugates the Saxons;** they are compelled to embrace Christianity.
814. On the death of Charlemagne, **Louis the Debonair succeeds to the throne** of the so-called Roman Empire.
827. States of the **Anglo-Saxon heptarchy** acknowledge suzerainty of Egbert, king of Wessex. Saracens begin a campaign against Byzantines for possession of Sicily.
840. Louis dies, and the three sons, Lothaire, Louis the German, and Charles the Bald, claim the succession; they war for possession of the kingdom.
841. In a battle of the brothers fought at Fontenailles, Louis and Charles defeat Lothaire.
843. The three rivals make a treaty at Verdun by which the **empire is divided into three parts;** Lothaire receives Italy and the Central Frankish territories; Louis the German accepts Germany, the "Eastern Frankish lands"; and Charles the Bald takes France, or the "Western Frankish lands." The **Treaty of Verdun** marks the **beginning of national history** for the three states, **Italy, Germany, and France;** also, the beginning of the middle land of Lorraine.

ESTABLISHMENT OF EUROPEAN STATES.

845. The Northmen continue to invade France; they plunder Paris.
846. The Saracens make a campaign in Italy and lay siege to Rome. [941).
860. Russian attack on Constantinople (another in
862. **Rurik,** chief of the Varangians, establishes his power at Novgorod and thus lays the **foundation of the Russian Empire.**
866. **Alfonso the Great** becomes king of Asturias, the **Christian monarchy in Spain,** afterward called León.
867. The contests between the Latin and the Greek Christians culminate in the excommunication of the pope by Photius, patriarch of Constantinople, head of the Greek Church.
870. Svatopluk II., a West Slavic chieftain, leads a successful rebellion against the Emperor of Germany, Louis the German, great-grandson of Charlemagne; Svatopluk founds the kingdom of Great Moravia.
871. **Alfred the Great** becomes king of England and furthers development of **law and learning.**
872. **Oxford** (University College) founded, according to tradition.
874. **Iceland** is colonized by the Northmen. Nearer to the Western continent than the Eastern.
878. **Alfred defeats the Danes** at Edington and compels Guthrum, the Danish king, to embrace Christianity and be baptized.
Sicily is subjugated by the Saracens.
887. **Charles the Fat,** great-grandson of Charlemagne, **reunites the empire of Charlemagne,** with the exception of cisjurane Burgundy, which becomes an independent kingdom under Boso; is deposed by the Franks of the East and the West.
891. The Northmen are beaten at Louvain by Arnulf, who has been elected king by the East Franks in place of Charles the Fat.
893. **The Magyars** under Prince Arpád cross the Carpathians, defeat the Moravians under Svatopluk, and settle in the valley of the Tisza (Theiss) River.
899–900. **Alfred the Great dies,** and his son, Edward the Elder, ascends the throne of England.
906. Magyars conquer the kingdom of Great Moravia, which later (1029) becomes a part of Bohemia.
911. The **Carolingian dynasty** in Germany becomes **extinct** with the death of Louis the Child, last heir in right descent from Charlemagne, and Conrad, duke of Franconia, is chosen king.
Rollo, chief of the Northmen, receives from Charles the Simple, king of France, a grant of the province of Neustria, which becomes the duchy of Normandy.
912. Abderrahman III. begins to reign in Córdoba, introducing the **golden age of Arabian power in Spain.**
919. On the death of Conrad, the Germans elect Henry the Fowler king, the first of the Saxon line.
933. Henry the Fowler defeats the Hungarians. The **kingdom of Arles** is established by union of the two Burgundies, and so continues for a century.
936. Otto the Great becomes king of the Germans.
937. Athelstan, king of England, wins a victory over the Danes and Scots at **Brunanburh.**
951. Berenger II. of Italy is driven from his throne by Otto of Germany, but is restored in 952 and allowed to reign under Otto's suzerainty.
955. Hungarians defeated by Otto on the Lech.
961. Berenger II. is finally deprived of his crown, and the sovereignty of Italy passes from the line of Charlemagne to Otto.
962. Pope John XII. crowns Otto Emperor of the Romans.
963. Nicephorus Phocas accedes to the throne of the Byzantine Empire, and undertakes successful campaigns against the Asian Saracens.
966. Miecislas, **king of Poland,** becomes a **convert to Christianity.**
969. **Fatimites** (dynasty of Ali, who married Fatima, daughter of the Prophet) **subjugate Egypt.** Nicephorus is assassinated by his general, John Zimisces, who seizes the Byzantine crown.
973. Otto the Great dies, and his son, Otto II., succeeds to the throne of the German Empire.
978. Otto II. makes victorious invasion of France.
982. He is defeated by the Saracens and Greeks in South Italy.
986. The Norseman Herjulfson sights the coast of North America.
987. **Hugh Capet** seizes the **sovereignty of France,** and establishes the **Capetian dynasty.**
988. **Vladimir** the Great of **Russia** becomes a **convert to Christianity.**
997. The doge of Venice is proclaimed duke of Dalmatia; in this era **Venice** becomes the **dominant power** of the **Mediterranean.**
998. Otto III., Emperor of Germany, grandson of Otto the Great, conquers and slays Crescentius, who has seized the rule in Rome.
1000. Pope Sylvester II. crowns St. Stephen king of Hungary. Marks acceptance of Christianity under the Roman Church by Hungary.
Leif Ericson discovers North America.
1001. **Mahmud** of Ghazni **invades India.**

THE EMPIRE AND THE POPE.

1013. **Danes** under Sweyn **subjugate England.**
1016. Edmund Ironside, son of Ethelred II., and Canute, son of Sweyn, who has succeeded to the rule in Denmark, war for the English throne.
1017. **Canute** victorious **assumes the crown.**
1018. Basil II. adds Bulgaria to Byzantine Empire.
1019. Yaroslav gains the throne of Russia.
1024. Conrad II., first of the Franconian dynasty, ascends the German throne.
1027. Conrad yields Schleswig to the Danes.
1028. The Danes under Canute invade Norway.
1031. Ommiad caliphate of Córdoba extinguished.
1033. Sancho the Great, of Navarre, constitutes Castile a kingdom.
1034. Conrad II. of Germany adds the domain of Arles to his empire.
1037. Togrul Beg establishes the rule of the Seljuks in Persia.
1039. Conrad II. is succeeded by Henry III. in Germany.
Macbeth, thane of Cawdor, after slaying Duncan, becomes **king of the Scots.**
1041. The Normans overthrow the Byzantine dominion in Apulia.
1042. Hardecanute dies, and with his death the **Danish ascendancy in England ceases;** Edward the Confessor ascends the throne.
1046. Clement II. is decreed pope by Henry III. of Germany in a council held at Sutri to consider the cases of the rival claimants.
1050. The Seljukian Turkomans become masters of Persia.
1054. **Schism** between the **Latin and Greek Catholics** becomes complete. **Russia,** on the death of Yaroslav, **is dismembered;** principalities are created out of the imperial dominions.
1055. Togrul Beg establishes the suzerainty of the Seljuks over the caliphate of Bagdad. Arabian empire succeeded by Seljukian.
1056. Henry III. of Germany dies; succeeded by Henry IV., with his mother, Queen Agnes, regent.
1057. *Sept. 2.* Isaac Comnenus is crowned emperor at Byzantium, but remains on the throne only a year, and the dynasty of the Comneni does not begin until 1081.
1059. The **establishment of a college of cardinals** for the election of the popes is proclaimed by Pope Nicholas II.
1061. Robert Guiscard, duke of Apulia and Calabria, leads Normans against Saracens in Sicily.
1062. Henry IV. of Germany, while yet a child, is seized by Hanno, archbishop of Cologne, who usurps the imperial functions.
1066. Edward the Confessor is succeeded by Harold II. in England, who defeats Harold Hardraade, king of Norway, and Tostig his brother, at Stamford Bridge; thereupon **William, duke of Normandy,** called **the Conqueror,** leads a second

1066 (*continued*).
invasion, in which he **triumphs over Harold** at the **battle of Hastings** (**Senlac**), October 14, and establishes himself as king of England; this is called **the Norman Conquest.**

1071. Romanus Diogenes, the Byzantine emperor, is conquered, and made captive by the Seljuks under Alp-Arslan. Constantinople still safe.

1072. Palermo is wrested from the Saracens by Roger Guiscard, duke of Apulia and Calabria, who thus secures entire control of Sicily.

1074. **Pope Gregory VII.** (**Hildebrand**) summons a council in which simony is forbidden and the **celibacy of the clergy is decreed.**

1075. The pope declares against the lay investiture of the clergy and engages in a controversy concerning it with Henry IV. of Germany.

1076. The **pope is deposed** at a council held in Worms by Henry's summons; the **Emperor** in turn **is deposed** and excommunicated by the pope, who secures the coöperation of the German princes.

1077. **Henry** obliged to visit the pope and to humble himself for three days in the courtyard **at Canossa** before he is admitted to an audience. The pope extends absolution to the penitent Emperor; but a rival emperor, Rudolph of Swabia, is elected to the imperial dignity in Germany.

1080. Pope Gregory is again deposed at a council held by Henry, and Guibert, known as Antipope Clement III., is elected to the pontifical throne; in the same year Rudolph of Swabia dies.

1081. Henry makes an unsuccessful advance on Rome, and Hermann of Luxemburg is elected to succeed Rudolph of Swabia.
Constantinople captured by **Alexius (I.) Comnenus,** who proclaims himself **emperor of the Byzantine dominion,** beginning the Comnenian dynasty.

1084. The Seljuks overrun Syria and Asia Minor. Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) is besieged in the castle of Sant' Angelo by Henry IV., but is delivered by Robert Guiscard.

1086. William the Conqueror completes the survey of the English realm, the results of which are recorded in **Domesday Book.**

1087. On William's death one son, William Rufus, succeeds to the English throne, while the other, Robert, rules in Normandy. [Malek Shah]

1092. Seljukian Empire is disrupted by death of

FIRST EPOCH OF CRUSADES.

1095. **Councils** are held **at Piacenza and Clermont** by Pope Urban II. He proclaims a **crusade** of Christians for the **recovery of the Holy Sepulcher** from the infidel Turks, who possess Jerusalem and levy a tax on all Christian pilgrims visiting the city.

1096. Vast masses of men, incited by the exhortations of **Peter the Hermit** and **Walter the Penniless,** form an undisciplined army of crusaders and march in four bands through central Europe, Hungary, and the Danubian countries toward Constantinople; the Hungarians and Bulgarians, angered at the ravages of the crusaders, attack them, and only two of the four divisions reach Turkey where they are destroyed by the Turks.
The proper **army of crusaders,** the chivalry of medieval Europe, set out for the East under Godfrey of Bouillon, Hugh of Vermandois, Stephen of Blois, Robert of Flanders, Bohemond of Tarentum, Raymond of Toulouse, and others.

1097. **Nicæa is captured** by the crusaders in July, and they win a battle with the sultan of Iconium at Dorylæum; the principality of Edessa is created by Baldwin of Flanders.

1098. **Antioch is stormed** and yields to the crusaders, who, in their turn, are besieged, but rout their foes and open the way to Jerusalem.

1099. Bohemond is proclaimed prince of Antioch. July 15, **Jerusalem is stormed** and conquered; Godfrey of Bouillon assumes the sovereignty of the city; the Islamites are defeated at Ascalon by Godfrey and Tancred.

1100. **Henry I.,** the successor of William Rufus in England, defeats his brother Robert at Tinchebrai and **restores Normandy** to the English crown.

1111. **Pope Paschal II.** is placed under **arrest** by **Henry V.** of Germany, who thus secures the pontiff's consent to imperial investiture; the pope emphasizes his defeat by crowning the king, only to cancel all his concessions in the year following and to cause the **excommunication of Henry.**

1121. **Abélard,** notable among the founders of scholastic theology, is cited before the Synod of Soissons and his **books are burned.**

1122. Pope Calixtus II. having succeeded Paschal II., the difficulties between Henry IV. and Henry V. of Germany, on the one side, and the papal see on the other, are settled by the **Concordat of Worms.** The German Emperor concedes the privilege of a **free election of bishops;** the **first Lateran council** follows in the next year.

1125. The death of Henry V. of Germany puts an **end to the Franconian dynasty;** Lothaire II., duke of Saxony, is elected to succeed to the crown.

1127. The count of Sicily, Roger II., consolidates the **Norman territories in Italy:** he is proclaimed duke of Apulia and Calabria.

1128. Conrad, duke of Franconia, is declared king of the Lombards in opposition to Lothaire of Saxony, with whom he has engaged in war; the struggle does not terminate until seven years later, when **Lothaire subjugates his enemies.**

1133. **Lothaire** makes a successful **campaign in Italy,** to sustain Pope Innocent II. against the attacks of the antipope Anacletus II.

1138. Conrad III., **first of the Hohenstaufen line,** becomes Emperor; engages in a struggle with Henry the Proud, duke of Bavaria and Saxony.
Henry defeats Albert the Bear, on whom Conrad has bestowed Saxony, but dies the following year.

1139. Guelph VI. is defeated by Conrad in an effort to obtain Bavaria; the **Emperor,** however, ultimately **gives Saxony to Henry the Lion,** son and heir of Henry the Proud.
The **right of Stephen,** grandson of the Conqueror, to the crown of England is **disputed by Matilda,** wife of Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou and daughter of Henry I.
Gratian's *Decretum,* the first part of the *Corpus Juris Canonici,* is written.

1140. **Abélard** before the Council of Sens is **accused of heresy,** but is reconciled to Saint Bernard, who has prosecuted him.

1143. **Manuel Comnenus** reigns in Byzantium; he begins a **series of wars** against the Normans, Magyars, and Seljuks, lasting nearly twenty years.

1146. A **new crusade** is preached by **St. Bernard,** the cause of the movement being the capture of Edessa by the Fatimites and the massacre of the Christians there.

1147. **Conrad III.** of Germany and **Louis VII.** of France support the crusade; their armies **march to Constantinople,** where they are hindered by the secret hostility of Manuel Comnenus.

1149. **Christians,** after attempting to storm Damascus, are **forced to retreat;** they return to Europe.

1152. On the death of Conrad III., Frederick I. (**Barbarossa**) becomes **Emperor of Germany.**

1153. A treaty is concluded at Wallingford between Stephen and Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son, by which Henry is recognized as heir to the English crown.

1154. Stephen of England dies and is succeeded by **Henry of Anjou** (Henry II.), the first of the **Angevin** or **Plantagenet dynasty;** Henry holds large parts of France besides English realm.

1155. **Frederick I.,** making an expedition into Italy, **restores the authority of Pope Adrian IV.,** which has been overturned in a republican revolution led by **Arnold of Brescia** eleven years previously; Arnold is **put to death.**

1157. Frederick Barbarossa moves on Poland and forces that power to yield to his suzerainty.

1158. He makes a successful siege of Milan, which has refused to acknowledge his authority.

1159. **Alexander III.** accedes to the papacy, whereupon Frederick in opposition sets up **Victor IV.** as **anti-pope.**

1160. **Frederick** conquers Crema after a hard siege; he is then formally **excommunicated by Alexander.**

1162. Frederick replies to the excommunication of the pope by razing Milan; a **league of the Lombard cities** is formed against him and fourteen years after (1176), at Legnano, the forces of the league **defeat Frederick.**

1170. **Thomas à Becket,** archbishop of Canterbury, is **murdered** in Canterbury Cathedral and as a result Henry II. has to relinquish many of his claims against the church made in the Constitutions of Clarendon, in 1164.

1171. The **Fatimite dynasty of caliphs ceases** in Egypt with the victories of **Saladin,** who establishes the line of the Ayubites.

1174. **William the Lion,** king of Scotland, is **taken prisoner** by the English; he acknowledges the suzerainty of Henry II.

1177. The difficulties between Emperor **Frederick** of Germany and the league of the Lombard cities (**Lombard League**) are peaceably adjusted at Venice by the intervention of the pope.

1180. **Henry the Lion,** representative of the Saxon line, is **deprived of his dominions** by Frederick of Germany, who grants Bavaria to the House of Wittelsbach; the remainder of Saxony is divided, the duchy of Westphalia falling to Cologne, and the eastern territory to Bernard of Ascania.

1183. The **Peace of Constance** is declared by Emperor Frederick and the Lombard League; by the terms of settlement independence is conceded to the cities of the league.

1185. **Dynasty of the Comneni** in Constantinople **ceases,** but a younger line of the original house later (1204) secures a fragment of the empire in Asia Minor, and founds the empire of Trebizond.

1187. The **Christian kingdom** established **in Jerusalem** in 1099 by the crusaders under Godfrey of Bouillon is **overcome by Saladin,** who dethrones King Guy of Lusignan; William, archbishop of Tyre, thereupon preaches the **Third Crusade.**

SECOND EPOCH OF CRUSADES.

1189. **Richard I.** succeeds his father, Henry II., as king of England.
Frederick Barbarossa begins a crusade; forces from all parts of Europe hasten to join Guy of Lusignan in the **siege of Acre.**

1190. Frederick meets the infidels at Iconium and defeats them, but is afterward drowned in Cilicia; Henry VI. succeeds to the crown of Germany.
Richard, king of England, **joins the crusaders** together with **Philip Augustus,** king of France.

1191. **Acre yields** to the besiegers; **dissensions arise** among the Christian princes, and Philip retires to his kingdom.

1192. **Richard arranges a peace with Saladin** and then starts on his return to Europe, but is **imprisoned** by Leopold, duke of Austria, at the command of Henry VI of Germany.

1193. **John Lackland,** the brother of Richard, plots to seize the English throne.

1194. **Richard** regains his liberty, **returns to England,** resumes his authority, and **puts down the civil war** caused by the intrigues of John and Philip of France; he then engages in a successful war with Philip, but **dies** in the fifth year of the campaign. His brother John succeeds him, 1199.
The rule of the **Hohenstaufen** sovereigns is extended over the **Two Sicilies.**

1195. The **Moors defeat Alfonso,** king of Castile, at Alarcos.

1197. **Henry VI. dies** and leaves the German crown to his son Frederick II.

1198. Otto of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion, is proposed as Emperor by the Guelphs, and Philip of Swabia, brother of Henry, is chosen by the Ghibellines; the **War of the Guelphs and the Ghibellines** ensues, in which Philip is victorious.

1201. **A new crusade** having been proclaimed (1198) by **Pope Innocent III.,** Baldwin of Flanders, Boniface of Montferrat, and Simon de Montfort, with their forces and those of other princes, undertake an expedition; they engage the Venetians to transport them to the Holy Land, and in return they agree to conquer Zara.

1203. **The crusaders** attack the Eastern Empire and **capture Constantinople:** the emperor, Isaac Angelus, is restored to the throne from which he had been deposed.

1204. Saint Dominic (Domingo de Guzmán) removes from Osma, his native diocese in Spain, to Languedoc and founds the **order of the Dominicans,** which is confirmed by the pope, 1216.
A revolution in Constantinople follows the restoration of the Emperor, whereupon the crusaders again take the city and plunder it; the Byzantine Empire is divided, and with this division the **Latin Empire** in the East **supplants** the **Greek Empire,** Baldwin of Flanders ascending the throne. Much of the imperial territory is gained by the Venetians and by the Italian and French nobles. The Greek empire of **Trebizond is founded** by Alexius (V.) Comnenus, who thus establishes a secondary Comnenian dynasty (see 1185,) which continues until the fall of Trebizond before Mohammed II (1461); in 1205 the empire of Nicæa is established by Theodore Lascaris.

1205. **King John** of England **loses Normandy,** Maine, Poitou, Touraine, and Anjou, **to Philip Augustus** of France.
Baldwin, Latin emperor of Constantinople, is defeated in battle and taken prisoner by Joannice, czar of the Bulgarians.

1206. **The empire of the Mongols** is established by **Genghis Khan,** who invades China and subdues the Chowaresmians, whose territory reaches from India to the Caspian Sea.

1208. **A crusade against the Albigenses** under the protection of Raymond of Toulouse, having been decreed by Pope Innocent III., a massacre of them takes place at Béziers (1209).
King John of England **refuses** to receive Stephen **Langton,** elected archbishop of Canterbury by command of Pope Innocent III.; all **England is laid under an interdict** by the supreme pontiff.

1210. **Saint Francis of Assisi,** famous Italian monk and preacher, **founds** the order of **Franciscans,** which is confirmed by the pope thirteen years afterwards.
Philip of Swabia is murdered; Otto IV. of Brunswick succeeds him as Emperor of the Germans.

1211. Otto IV. makes an effort to win the Two Sicilies from Frederick II of Hohenstaufen, but fails; Frederick begins a **struggle for the German crown,** aided by Pope Innocent III

1212. The Almohade ascendancy of the Moors in Spain is broken by the united efforts of the kings of Castile, Navarre, and Aragon.
Thousands of French and German boys start for the Holy Land in the **Children's Crusade;** many perish on the way; many are sold into slavery.

1213. England is threatened by the French; **King John yields to the pope, receives Langton** as archbishop of Canterbury, delivers his kingdom to the pope; receives it back as a fief of the papacy.

1214. Otto IV. of Germany and John of England are defeated by Philip Augustus of France at the battle of Bouvines.

1215. **King John** of England is **forced** by his barons **to grant Magna Charta** (the Great Charter). The pope declares the charter null and void, and **Langton is suspended** from his archbishopric. The French faction among the barons sets up Prince Louis, son of Philip of France, as king of England; in 1216 the prince comes to England, but the death of John and the accession of his son, Henry III., put an end to the pretensions of Louis. Frederick II. of Hohenstaufen gains the German crown.

Genghis, the Great Khan of the Tatar hordes, **captures Peking**; the city is pillaged and burned. The armies of Genghis in twelve years overrun the greater part of Asia.

1216. Henry III accedes to the throne of England, and Honorius III. becomes pope.

1217. The **Fifth Crusade** is undertaken by Andrew II. of Hungary with other princes.

1218. He abandons the expedition; it is then led by William I., Count of Holland, and John of Brienne.

1219. Damietta is conquered by the crusaders.
St. Francis becomes a hermit at Monte Alverno, and announces the miracle of the stigmata.

1221. The **crusaders are defeated in Egypt** and forced to accept disadvantageous terms of peace.

1222. Andrew II. is compelled to sign **the Golden Bull**, the constitutional charter of Hungary and the foundation of the privileges of the nobility.

1224. **The Mongols** who have subdued Bokhara, Turkestan, and Samarkand, attack and **defeat the Russians** on the Kalka River.

1226. East Prussia conquered by the Teutonic Knights.
Louis VIII. of France dies after a reign of three years. Louis IX. becomes king; his mother, Blanche of Castile, being regent.
The Lombard cities reëstablish their league to oppose the domination of Frederick II. of Germany.

1227. **Genghis Khan**, on the eve of undertaking the conquest of Europe, **dies; his empire is divided** among his four sons.

1228. Frederick leads a crusade against the infidels, and after a year arranges a peace with the sultan of Egypt by which the **Christians receive Jerusalem**; Gregory IX., who has succeeded Honorius III. as pope (1227), makes an effort to secure the territories of Frederick.

1229. **Gregory IX. establishes the Inquisition** as a tribunal.

1230. Formal organization of the Holy Inquisition.

1236. Frederick II. of Germany makes war on cities of the Lombard League.

1237. He defeats them at Cortenuova; three years later he advances against Gregory; in 1241 the death of the pope ends the war.

1238. Batu Khan leads his Mongolian hordes into Russia and subjugates the Slavic princes.

1239. The French and the English undertake a **new crusade** under the leadership of Richard, Earl of Cornwall, and Thibaud, King of Navarre. **It ends in failure.**

1241. **Mongols advance on central Europe**, conquering the Poles, Silesians, and Hungarians.

1242. They overrun Asia Minor; destroy the Seljuks.

1245. At the Council of Lyons, Pope Innocent IV. announces deposition of Frederick II. of Germany.

1248. A **new crusade**, led by Louis IX. (**Saint Louis**) of France, is caused by the capture of Jerusalem by the Turks.

1249. Damietta is taken by the French crusaders.

1250–1669. **The Hanseatic League** of maritime and other commercial cities flourishes, with capital at Lübeck. Long in control of the Baltic trade.

1250. The Egyptians defeat the crusaders; St. Louis is made a prisoner, but is ransomed.
The Mamelukes become the rulers of Egypt.
Conrad IV. succeeds Frederick II. in Germany; he is opposed by William II., Count of Holland.

1251. Conrad dies, and with him the **Hohenstaufen line** of emperors **ends.** Knights of the shire first attend an English parliament, the beginning of an elective part of the National Assembly.

1257. William of Holland having been slain (1256) in battle, Alfonso of Castile and Richard of Cornwall, younger son of King John of England, are chosen to the throne of Germany; the latter, though crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, fails of recognition.

1258. Manfred proclaims himself king of Sicily.
A war breaks out between Venice and Genoa.
Hulaku Khan, the Mongol, destroys the caliphate of Bagdad.

1260. Bela IV. of Hungary loses Styria to Ottocar II. of Bohemia.

1261. **The Latin Empire** in the East is usurped by Michael Palæologus, emperor of Nicæa, who founds a dynasty in Byzantium.

1264. **Simon de Montfort**, Earl of Leicester, heads a **rebellion** of the English barons, who make Henry III. a prisoner.

1265. Simon de Montfort summons representatives from English boroughs to a parliament for the first time. He is **slain** at battle of **Evesham.**
Roger Bacon, the famous English philosopher and monk of the order of St. Francis, begins the composition of his **Opus Majus.**
Dante Alighieri is born at Florence.

1268. Bibars, sultan of Egypt and Syria, subdues the Christian principality of Antioch and makes it a part of his realm.

1270. Louis IX. leads a **new crusade** against the Mamelukes; in the course of the expedition he dies, near Tunis, August 25; Philip III. succeeds to the throne of France.

1272. Prince Edward of England, who has accompanied St. Louis, withdraws from the **crusade** and it is **abandoned; the attempt to recover the Holy Land is not again renewed.**
Edward I. succeeds to the English crown.

IRRUPTION OF ASIATICS.

1273. Rudolph of Hapsburg is chosen Emperor of Germany; this is the beginning of the ascendancy of **the House of Hapsburg.**

1274. *March 7.* **St. Thomas Aquinas,** the famous Italian scholastic theologian and philosopher, dies near Terracina, Italy. His chief work, *Summa Theologiæ*, greatly influences the opinions of succeeding philosophers.

1275. **Kublai Khan** establishes the Yuen dynasty in China.

1276. Rudolph of Germany wins Austria and other territories from Ottocar of Bohemia and sets his sons, Albert and Rudolph, to rule them (1278).

1278. Ottocar, trying to regain his dominions, perishes in the attempt.
The writings of **Roger Bacon** are **condemned** as contumacious and he himself is **imprisoned** for ten years. He spends the rest of his life in scientific experimentation and philosophical inquiries.

1279. **Seat of government in China** is **transferred** by the Mongols under Kublai Khan to Peking.

1280. Kublai Khan makes the **Mongolian power supreme in China.**

1282. A successful revolution against the rule of Charles of Anjou in Sicily begins with a massacre of the French in Palermo, known as the **Sicilian Vespers**; Pedro III. of Aragon is made king.

1283. Edward I. of England subdues Wales.
Prussia, after a war of fifty years, is **conquered by the Teutons.**

1288. Osman or Othman (the Conqueror), a Turkish adventurer, begins a war of thirty-eight years' duration which establishes the Turkish Empire in Asia Minor under the Ottoman dynasty.

1290. On the death of Margaret, queen of Scotland, **Robert Bruce** and **John Baliol** begin a **civil war** for the possession of the throne, which, two years later, Edward of England adjudges to Baliol; Baliol is renounced by Edward (1296), because of his alliance with France in a war against England.

1291. Malek el-Ashref, sultan of Egypt and Syria, conquers Acre, thus terminating the kingdom of Jerusalem; **end of the Christian power in the Holy Land.**
First league of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden to resist control by their lords.
Adolphus of Nassau is chosen Emperor of Germany.

1295. Edward I. of England summons the "Model Parliament," including knights and burgesses.

1296. John Baliol of Scotland refuses to acknowledge Edward I of England as his feudal lord; an Anglo-Scotch war of 33 years' duration begins.

1297. **William Wallace** leads the Scots to a victory over the English at **Stirling**; he is defeated in the following year at Falkirk.

1298. Albert of Austria, son of Rudolph of Hapsburg, makes war on Adolphus of Nassau, Emperor of Germany; Adolphus is defeated and slain, and Albert ascends the throne.

1300. The **pope proclaims a jubilee** of the Church, with indulgences to all who make pilgrimages to Rome.
Dante becomes one of the priors of Florence and is embroiled in political contentions.

1301. With the end of the Arpád dynasty, the **crown of Hungary becomes elective.**
Duns Scotus becomes professor of theology at Oxford.

1302. Philip IV. (the Fair) of France summons the **first assembly of the States-General,** which includes the third estate, or representatives of the burghers.
Flanders rebels against the French rule (established in 1279) and defeats Philip at Courtrai.

1303. The long-continued **disputes between France and the papacy,** growing out of the king's tax on ecclesiastical property and out of the pope's declaration of his superiority to all temporal sovereigns, culminate in Philip's arrest of Boniface VIII.; pope is rescued from prison, but dies.

1304. **Scotland is conquered** by Edward I. of England.
Birth of Petrarch, Italian poet (*Sonnets, Odes*) Dies 1374.

1305. **William Wallace** of Scotland **put to death.**

1306. **Robert Bruce,** the grandson of Baliol's rival, leads a rebellion against the English domination and is **proclaimed king.**

1307. Edward II., son of Edward I., succeeds his father as king of England.

1308. Albert of Hapsburg, Emperor of Germany, is assassinated, and Henry VII. of Luxemburg is elected his successor.

1309. Pope Clement V., a Frenchman, **removes the papal court from Rome to Avignon,** then follows (1309–77) the so-called **"Babylonian Captivity"** of sixty-eight years, ended by the return of Pope Gregory XI. to Rome.

1312. **The Knights Templars are condemned** by the Council of Vienne; De Molay, the grand master, and others of the order are burned in France two years afterwards.
Henry VII. of Germany, having led an expedition into Italy, fails in the siege of Florence and dies in the following year.

1313. Birth of Boccaccio, Italian novelist and poet (*Decameron* 1353). Dies 1375.

1314. *June 24.* Robert Bruce and the Scots win a victory over the English at **Bannockburn.**
An eight years' war for the possession of the German throne begins between Louis of Bavaria and Frederick of Austria; Louis is at last the victor.

1315. Formal Swiss League of Confederation. November 15, battle of **Morgarten,** in which Swiss infantry defeat mailed horsemen.

1318. **Dante** completes the **Divina Commedia** after eighteen years of composition. He goes to Ravenna in 1320 and dies in the following year.

1324. Louis of Bavaria is excommunicated by Pope John XXII., whereupon the German king invades Italy and decrees the deposition of the pope; he is ultimately compelled to retreat (1328).

1326. The policy of Edward II in supporting foreign favorites leads to a domestic rebellion; the queen, with Roger Mortimer, takes Edward prisoner; in the following year Edward is deposed by Parliament, and soon afterwards is assassinated; on his deposition Edward III. becomes king.

1328. **Scotland is recognized as independent** by the English king, and the war between the two nations ends.
The direct **Capetian dynasty** ceases in France with the death of Charles IV., and Philip VI. of Valois institutes a new **dynasty.**

1330. Turks under Orkhan conquer Nicæa, thus firmly establishing the Ottomans in Asia Minor.

1332. Edward Baliol attempts to dethrone David Bruce of Scotland.

1333. Edward III. of England invades Scotland and defeats the forces of the regent, Archibald Douglas, in the **battle of Halidon Hill.**

1334. Giotto begins his work on the cathedral of Florence.

1337. Flanders, under leadership of Jacob van Arteveld, refuses to submit to rule of Count Louis of Flanders.
Edward III. of England, with the aid of the Low Countries and Germany, undertakes a war against France for the purpose of uniting the two realms under the Plantagenet crown; thus begins an Anglo-French strife, the **Hundred Years' War,** destined to continue intermittently until 1453.

1339. Edward fails in an invasion of Flanders, but is successful elsewhere; proclaimed king of France.

RENAISSANCE EPOCH.

1340? **Chaucer,** the "Father of English Poetry," is born in London. He dies October 25, 1400.

1342. Edward III. supports John of Montfort in opposition to France, which aids Jeanne de Penthièvre; the English king invades Brittany.

1346. Pope Clement VI. secures the election of Charles of Luxemburg as Emperor of Germany to displace Louis of Bavaria; the latter dies, and Charles is eventually accepted as Emperor (1349).
Edward III. defeats Philip VI. of France in the great national **battle at Crécy,** August 26.
David **Bruce invades England;** he is overcome and taken captive.

1347. Calais is captured by the English.
Cola di Rienzi, called "the last of the Roman tribunes," leads a revolution in Rome.

1348. The **black death** spreads to Europe from the Orient, reappearing several times in the next few years and killing thousands of the people. (See BLACK DEATH, in the *Dictionary.*)

1353. Completion of the League of the Eight Old Places in Switzerland, cities joining with the mountain cantons.

1354. The Genoese meet the allied Venetians, Byzantines, and Catalans in a naval battle off Constantinople; the war continues for 27 years.
Rienzi, the tribune, **rules in Rome** for a season, but is overthrown and assassinated, October 8.

1355. **Marino Falieri,** doge of Venice, heads an unsuccessful conspiracy against the Council of Ten; he is seized, condemned, and beheaded.
Capture of Gallipoli by the Turks, giving them control of the Dardanelles. They take Adrianople (1361) and Thessalonica (1430). By 1478 they have conquered the greater part of the Bal-

1355 (*continued*).
kans and subdued the Christian peoples. This Asiatic occupation in Europe is not effectively opposed by the interior European powers, and Turkey remains a European power.

1356. The **Golden Bull** of the Emperor Charles IV. confines the right of electing the emperor to seven electoral princes. At the decisive **battle of Poitiers,** September 19, John the Good, of France, is taken prisoner by the English under Edward the Black Prince. Victories of the English at Crécy and Poitiers, due chiefly to the valor and efficiency of the archers, demonstrate the **equality of bowmen with mailed warriors,** and thus contribute powerfully to the **extinction of feudalism.**

1358. The **peasants of France revolt.** The uprising is called in French the *Jacquerie.* (See JACQUERIE, in the *Dict.*)

1361. Turks capture Adrianople.

1364. Charles V. ascends the throne of France and the war with England is renewed.

1365 1500. Foundation of German universities, especially Vienna (1365), Erfurt (1378), Heidelberg (1386), Leipzig (1409), Wittenberg (1502).

1368. The Ming dynasty is established in China; distinguished for its arts and culture.

1369. Timur Lenk (**Tamerlane**), the Asiatic conqueror, descendant of Genghis Khan, **revives the Mongolian Empire;** he makes a successful campaign against Khorassan, and captures Balkh after a siege of three years.

1371. David Bruce dies; **Robert II.,** succeeding to throne of Scotland, founds **Stuart dynasty.**
Casimir the Great of Poland dies; with him ends the Piast dynasty; Louis the Great of Hungary acquires the Polish sovereignty.

1377. Gregory XI. leaves Avignon and ends the "Babylonian Captivity" by **restoring the papal court to Rome.**

1378. Urban VI. succeeds Gregory XI. in the papacy, and Clement VII. is elected antipope; with the election of Clement the **great schism** in western Christendom begins, which does not end for nearly 40 years (1417).

1379. The Genoese fight the Venetians for supremacy of the sea.

1380. The Genoese are defeated by the Venetians at Chioggia and never recover their equality.

1381. The **English peasants revolt** under the leadership of Wat Tyler and John Ball; they seize London, but are soon overcome, and Tyler is put to death. (See PEASANTS' REVOLT, in the *Dict.*)

1382. The rule of Count Louis II. is rejected by the citizens of Ghent, and Philip van Arteveld, their leader, is made governor; the French interfere to restore Louis, and Philip is slain.
John Wycliffe translates Bible into English.

1384. Philip the Bold, of Burgundy, gets Flanders.

1386. Chaucer becomes knight of the shire for Kent. In the fourteen years following he composes **the Canterbury Tales.**
Jagellon is made king of Poland, as Ladislas II.; he thus establishes the **Jagellonian dynasty.**
The Duke of Gloucester takes the place of regent for Richard II. of England.

1397. The **Union of Kalmar** is effected, by which **Norway, Sweden, and Denmark are united** under one crown, Queen Margaret, the "Semiramis of the North," being the first sovereign.

1399. Richard II. of England is deposed and the **line of Lancaster** is established by Henry IV.

1400. Emperor Wenceslaus of Germany is deposed and Rupert of the Palatinate succeeds him.
Completion of Froissart's *Chronicles of France, England, Scotland, and Spain.*

1401. The English Parliament decrees the **burning of heretics.** Statute is aimed against **Lollards,** a religious sect following the tenets of Wycliffe.

1403. Henry IV. of England overcomes the conspiracy of the Percys at **battle of Shrewsbury.**

1409. Gregory XII. and Benedict XIII. are deposed from the papacy at the Council of Pisa, and Alexander V. becomes pope; *three* popes instead of *two* contend for the tiara.

1413. Rome is captured by Ladislas of Naples.

1414–1418. The Council of Constance.

1415. Henry V. of England **defeats the French at Agincourt,** October 25.
The **University of Salamanca,** chief seat of classical learning in Spain, is founded
Pope John XXIII. is deposed by the Council of Constance.
John Huss, at one time rector of the University of Prague, an advocate of the doctrines of Wycliffe, is condemned for heresy by the Council of Constance in defiance of a safe-conduct from the Emperor and **burned at the stake;** in the following year **Jerome of Prague,** another prominent reformer, suffers the like martyrdom.

1417. Pope Martin V. accepted by the whole church.

1419. The **Hussites gain** in numbers and make an attack on the town hall in Prague. A year later a crusade is made against them, but under the leadership of Ján **Ziska** they are victorious. Afterwards they ravage Saxony, Franconia, and Bavaria; their uprising ends with the Treaty of Iglau, by which Sigismund is accepted as king of Bohemia (1436).
The Portuguese, under the patronage of **Henry the Navigator,** sail to the Madeira Islands.

1420. By the Treaty of Troyes, **Henry V.** of England **succeeds to the French crown;** he enters Paris. Two years later both he and Charles VI. of France die. Henry VI. is proclaimed king of France. The French support Charles VII., the son of Charles VI., and the **war between the two nations is resumed.**

1426. James I. is set at liberty by the English; he **gains the throne of Scotland.**

1428. The city of Orléans is besieged by the English; a year later **Joan of Arc,** the Maid of Orléans, inspires the French to raise the siege.

1431. Joan of Arc is burned at the stake by the English in the market place of Rouen, in May; in December Henry VI. is crowned in Paris.

1437. James I. of Scotland is **assassinated;** James II. succeeds him.
With the death of Sigismund, the Luxemburg dynasty in Germany and Bohemia comes to an end and Albert II. of Hapsburg succeeds to the crown.

1438–1450. Invention of printing by Gutenberg and others. The Mazarin Bible printed 1450–55. (See under BIBLE, in the *Dictionary.*)

1439. The union of the Latin and Greek Churches is decreed by the Council of Florence, but the schism remains practically unaltered.

1442. Alfonso V. of Aragon gains possession of Naples.

1444. The **importation of slaves from Africa is begun** by the Portuguese.

1450. Normandy is regained by the French, and Guienne is taken from the English in the following year; the English are again defeated at Castillon (1453), where the **Hundred Years' War ends;** only Calais remains to England of all her Continental conquests.

1452. Great exodus of **Greek scholars** from Constantinople; they make their way into the more enlightened parts of western Europe and greatly promote the revival of arts and learning.
Birth of Leonardo da Vinci, Italian painter, architect, and sculptor. Dies 1519.

1453. Constantinople falls before Mohammed II. (the Conqueror), May 29; the Emperor Constantine XIII., the last representative of the Eastern Empire, is killed. The extinction of the **Eastern** Empire marks the final subsidence of the forces of the ancient civilization.

EVENTS LEADING TO FOUNDATION OF MODERN EUROPE.

1455. The **Wars of the Roses,** in which the crown of England is fought for by the houses of **York** (*white rose*) and **Lancaster** (*red rose*) break out; the Duke of York takes up arms against Henry VI. and his supporters.

1456. Turks capture Athens and in four years' campaign gain possession of nearly all Greece.
Pope Pius II. (Æneas Sylvius), a Renaissance pope.

1461. The **Yorkists, defeated** by the Lancastrians **at St. Albans,** February 17, are afterward successful, and Edward IV. is proclaimed king.

1465. Henry VI. is captured and **imprisoned in the Tower of London;** a Yorkist ascendancy of five years follows.

1470. Henry VI. restored by Earl of Warwick.
Completion of Sir Thomas Malory's *Morte d'Arthur.*

1471. Edward IV. invades England; the **Lancastrians are overcome** at **Barnet,** April 14, where Warwick is killed, and again at **Tewkesbury,** May 4, where Margaret's force is destroyed; in May **Henry VI. is murdered in the Tower.**

1473. Louis XI. of France begins a **war against his feudatory princes;** in a contest of nearly five years, he is successful in breaking their power.

1474. Isabella ascends the throne of Castile and Leon. By her marriage with **Ferdinand** of Aragon (in 1469) the way is prepared for the **union of all Spain** under their grandson Charles V.
Birth of Ariosto, Italian poet (*Orlando Furioso* 1516). Dies 1533.

1475. Edward IV. of England undertakes a brief war against France.
The Turks gain an ascendancy in the Black Sea, and subdue the Crimea.
Birth of Michelangelo, Italian painter, sculptor, architect, and poet. Dies 1564.

1476. Charles the Bold defeated by the Swiss at the battle of **Granson,** March 2.

1477. René of Lorraine conquers and slays Charles the Bold at Nancy, January 5; Louis XI. of France makes a conquest of Burgundy; Mary, the daughter of Charles, retains possession of the Netherlands and Franche-Comté, and is married to Maximilian of Austria. Three years later, on the death of René, **Louis seizes Anjou,** and in the following year **Provence** is **added to the French realm.**
William Caxton, first English printer, sets up his press near Westminster Abbey, and prints the first book in England.

1482. The war between Maximilian of Austria and Louis of France relative to the French seizures of territory terminates with the **Treaty of Arras.**

1483. Edward IV. of England, having put to death his brother (the Duke of Clarence), dies; and **Richard III., last of the Plantagenet kings, succeeds** to the throne.
Birth of Raphael, Italian painter. Dies 1520.

1485. Henry Tudor, duke of Richmond, vanquishes and slays Richard at **Bosworth Field,** August 22; this ends the **Wars of the Roses,** and the Duke of Richmond takes the throne as **Henry VII.,** thus establishing the **Tudor dynasty.**

1486. By his marriage with the princess Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV., Henry VII. effects a **union of the Houses of York and Lancaster.**

1487. Bartholomeu **Dias,** in a voyage along the coast of Africa southward, **discovers the Cape of Good Hope.**

1488. Anne of France (dame de Beaujeu), regent for her brother, Charles VIII. of France, **defeats** the forces of **Louis,** duke of Orléans, who has tried to seize the French crown; the duke is made a prisoner.
James III. of Scotland is slain in a struggle with his nobles, and his son ascends the throne as James IV.

1489. Treaty of Medina del Campo between Henry VII. of England and Ferdinand of Aragon provides for the marriage of Arthur, Prince of Wales, and Catherine, Ferdinand's daughter.

1491. Charles VIII. of France, by his marriage with the Duchess Anne of Brittany, **gains** possession of **Brittany;** in the next year Henry VII. of England, makes a campaign against the French, but a treaty of peace is concluded at Étaples.

1492. Alexander VI. (Borgia) pope.
Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, after a war of ten years against the Moorish kingdom of Granada, enter the capital as victors, in January; with this event the **dominion of the Moors in Spain terminates.** Granada is incorporated with the Christian kingdoms. The Jews are expelled from the territories of Spain.

III. EARLY MODERN PERIOD: 1492 TO 1814.

Historical Outline.

MODERN HISTORY strictly includes the whole recent progress of mankind to the present day. It is convenient, however, to group together the events and tendencies of the three centuries ending with the close of the Napoleonic period, during which the habits of thought and government, the organization of society, and the religious beliefs of the Christian world took on the forms with which men of to-day are familiar.

The modern era opens with the **Age of Discovery.** During the Renaissance man was finding himself; now he found the world. No change in the whole course of history is more significant than that which resulted from the expansion of the Roman and the Medieval world, which took no account of anything outside the Mediterranean region and western Europe, into the world which includes Asia and the Americas. The epoch-making voyage of Columbus and the discovery of a sea route to India by Vasco da Gama meant more than the discovery of new land and the opening up of new spheres of trade. It opened the way for expansion from Europe and the foundation of colonies east and west, which developed into new nations, holding different ideas from those of the mother countries.

In this Age of Discovery **Spain** was **preëminent.** The strong monarchy established by Ferdinand and Isabella was in a position more favorable than that of any other European state to throw its strength and resources into the foundation of a colonial empire, and the Spaniards were bold and successful navigators and traders. Spain took full advantage of her opportunity and laid the foundation for a colonial empire not inferior in extent and even in duration to that of ancient Rome or of the modern British Empire. She impressed her language, her religion, and her culture upon South America, the West Indies, portions of North America, and the Philippines; and down to 1815 her control was still active. Then the empire collapsed and finally disappeared, except for Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, but the Spanish language and religion remained the basis of South American culture.

In this period came the logical result of the questionings of the Renaissance — the **Protestant Reformation.** Beginning in a series of attempts to remedy abuses of the Roman Catholic Church the movement, under Luther, Calvin, Zwingli, Knox, Huss, and their followers, caused a schism which has never been healed. The chief issue was the denial of the authority of a universal church and a reliance on the dictates of the individual conscience. Not only did the Reformation put an end to the universality of the Roman Church, but in the religious wars which followed it dislocated the political power and weakened the influence of that other great medieval institution, the Holy Roman Empire.

The **Age of Discovery** opened the world to European settlement, while the Reformation led to the foundation of Protestant powers which denied the papal authority. Both Catholic and Protestant nations entered the race for colonial expansion. Thus **France,** through the discovery of the St. Lawrence and the explorations of her *voyageurs* and missionaries, opened up and **acquired an empire in North America,** including the valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. So, too, **England,** after breaking the naval supremacy of Spain, **founded colonies along the Atlantic seaboard** which were a perpetual challenge not only to the papal power, but to the sovereignty which Spain claimed over that region. In the Eastern Hemisphere, first the **Portuguese** and then the **Dutch** acquired **colonial possessions** and tapped the lucrative trade of India.

The period was favorable to the development of **strong national states. England** had a system of representative government in the elective House of Commons, but allowed **Henry VIII.** to exercise an almost absolute monarchy. Henry's daughter Elizabeth, also, was a genuine national sovereign, though arbitrary. The popular element in the government, however, joined issue with the Stuart kings, and the civil war against Charles I. laid the foundations for a real parliamentary government which was superior to the crown and which with the accession of William III. became supreme.

In **Russia** Ivan the Terrible and, at a later date, Peter the Great, by unchecked absolutism brought the nation into contact with Europe and made a beginning in modern state organization. In **Austria** and **Germany** the **Holy Roman Empire** persisted in a feeble and declining form, a bar to the development of vigorous nationalism, a poor defense against the onslaughts of the Turks. During this period the Baltic powers of **Denmark** and **Sweden** had brief periods of prosperity and wide European influence, especially under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. of Sweden. **Italy** was the prey of the ambition of the greater European powers and the scene of frequent wars and invasions. In **France,** beginning with Francis I., a strong national state was developed which, though torn by the religious wars of the Huguenot period, became, under Louis XIV., the strongest factor in European life and politics.

The 18th century witnessed the struggle of Europe against the supremacy of Louis XIV. In a series of wars which encircled the world, **France** was **defeated** in India, America, and Europe, and **England** emerged as **the most powerful state** with the widest colonial possessions. **Prussia** rose as a force to be reckoned with and became the center of Germany.

The 18th century closed with what may be called the **Era of Revolution. In America** the English colonists, questioning the right of England to control their economic development, and demanding wider powers of self-government, declared their independence. With France as their ally, they achieved their aim, and the **United States of America** was founded, which was destined to make the military force and political ideas of the New World a factor in European policy. In **France** the **revolution** was of even greater effect; it gave point to the teachings of the philosophers of the previous age. The despotism, which had continued from the days of Louis XIV., based on the feudal system, fell before the attack of democratic ideas. Feudalism was destroyed. **France became a republic,** and her republican ideas permeated even the most despotic systems of Europe, while her revolutionary armies attempted by military force to mold these ideals into states.

From the democratic enthusiasm of the French revolutionary republic developed the **military empire of Napoleon.** Once again, as in the time of Louis XIV., France dominated Europe and one man dominated France. Spain and Italy were conquered; Prussia and Austria were humbled; and Napoleon drew the boundaries of new states, placed new sovereigns on old and new thrones, and impressed his system on all Europe. Only England and Russia remained outside his power. In 1812 he invaded Russia, but the very vastness of that empire defeated him, and a disastrous retreat was the beginning of his downfall. Under the lead of England, the European nations rallied and on the field of **Waterloo** were finally successful and put an end to the ambition of France to dominate Europe.

The **Congress of Vienna** in 1815 remade the map of Europe and established boundaries and policies which, with the exception of the unification of Italy and Germany, remained throughout the 19th century. Thus the year 1815 may well be taken as the ending of early modern history and the beginning of nineteenth-century history.

Chronology.

For events affecting any one country only, or especially, see the history of that country in the NATIONAL HISTORIES, beginning page 39.

ERA OF THE RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION.

1492. **Christopher Columbus,** leading an expedition under the auspices of Ferdinand and Isabella, **reaches America,** October 12, discovering Haiti (Hispaniola) and Cuba; on his second voyage, made in 1493, he discovers Porto Rico, and on his third voyage, in 1498, he reaches Trinidad and the coast of South America. From Hispaniola he is **sent back to Spain in chains** (1501), but is allowed his liberty and makes his fourth and **last voyage** in 1502. **Columbus dies in neglect and penury** at Valladolid, May 20, 1506.

1493. Charles VIII. of France makes a treaty of peace with Maximilian, just made Emperor of Germany, at Senlis. Maximilian attempts to reform the Empire. Institutes the **Aulic Council** (1501).

1494. The **Medici** are driven from Florence, and **Savonarola,** the Italian reformer, restores the republican form of government.

The **Franco-Italian wars,** waged between France and Spain, break out; they continue for twenty-five years, having for their cause the claim of Charles VIII. to the throne of Naples. In these conflicts the Italians range themselves alternately with the Spaniards and with the French.

Birth of **Hans Sachs,** November 5; most famous of the German Meistersingers. Died 1576.

1495. After a year's campaign, **Charles** conquers Naples, but **is forced to withdraw from Italy,** owing to a league formed against him by the pope and Ferdinand (of Naples), who regains the Neapolitan crown.

1497. **Mainland of North America** discovered by **John Cabot.**

Vasco da Gama sails around the **Cape of Good Hope.** [arrives in **India.**

1498. Vasco da Gama finds an all-water route and **Sebastian Cabot** traces a great part of the **Atlantic coast** of North America. [May 23.

Savonarola executed as a heretic at Florence.

1499. Vespucci and Ojeda trace the coast of South America.

The **Swiss** practically acknowledged as **independent** after war with Maximilian of Germany.

1500–1600. Period of **Renaissance in French literature:** Rabelais (*Pantagruel* 1533), Marot, Calvin, Amyot, Bodin, Montaigne (*Essays* 1580).

1500. Ludovico Sforza regains Milan from the French, who had seized it a year before.

Birth of **Benvenuto Cellini,** Italian artist in metal and author (*Autobiography*). Died 1571.

1501. The **French,** by Louis XII.'s conquest of Naples and with the aid of Ferdinand of Aragon, **reëstablish their power in Italy.**

Cesare Borgia, son of Pope Alexander VI., gains dominion of Faenza, Rimini, and Pesaro, with the title of Duke of Romagna.

1502. **War in Italy breaks out again** between the French and Spaniards, the French being driven from Naples after a conflict of nearly a year.

1506. On the death of Philip I. of Castile, Ferdinand assumes the rule as regent for Joan the Mad Madagascar is discovered by Portuguese.

Church of St. Peter at Rome begun on site of ancient church, completed in 1590; dedicated 1626.

1508. Maximilian of Germany, Pope Julius II., Louis XII. of France, and Ferdinand of Aragon form the **League of Cambrai** against Venice; the Venetians are overcome at Agnadello (1509).

1511. Pope Julius II. forms the **Holy League** for protection against France; in this Spain, Venice, and England (under Henry VIII., who has married Catherine of Aragon, widow of his brother Arthur, and daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella) are united against Louis XII.

1512. The **French** win a victory at Ravenna, April 11, but are **forced to withdraw from Lombardy,** and Sforza dynasty is restored in Milan; Ferdinand of Aragon conquers Spanish Navarre.

The Medici regain their authority in Florence.

1513. Henry VIII. of England, with the aid of Maximilian of Germany, **invades France;** the French are overwhelmed in the **battle of the Spurs** at Guinegate, August 16; Thérouanne and Tournai are taken by the English. [pope.

Pope Leo X one of the Medici; a renaissance

England is invaded by the Scots under James IV.; the Scots are defeated at **Flodden Field,** September 9, and James is killed; Queen Margaret becomes regent for her son, James V.

Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.

Niccolò Machiavelli writes *The Prince,* a classic in the history of political thought.

1514. Henry VIII. makes treaties of peace with Scotland and France.

1515. **Francis I.,** succeeding Louis XII. as king of France, **marches into Italy,** and with the aid of the Venetians defeats the Swiss allies of Milan at Marignano, September 13 and 14, thus breaking the prestige of the Swiss infantry; he gains possession of Lombardy. Early in the next year he establishes the Perpetual Peace with the Swiss and makes a **concordat with Pope Leo X.** From this time Switzerland is a recruiting ground for the French army.

1516. **Sir Thomas More's** *Utopia,* an account of an imaginary Commonwealth, is published.

New Testament in Greek published by **Erasmus.**

1517. **Leo X.** decrees preaching of **indulgences** for the benefit of St. Peter's Church in Rome. In October, **Martin Luther puts forth his 95 theses** at Wittenberg, and the **Reformation begins in Germany.** [the Swiss.

1518. **Zwingli** begins the **Reformation among**

1519. On the death of Maximilian of Germany, Charles I. of Spain, his grandson, who is also the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella, is elected Emperor as **Charles V.;** Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, the Sicilies, and Sardinia are thus joined under one sovereignty.

Fernando **Magellan,** a Portuguese, makes a voyage for Spain through the straits separating Tierra del Fuego from Patagonia; two years later he lands on the Ladrones and reaches the Philippines (March, 1521), where he is killed; one of his ships completes **circumnavigation of globe** (1522).

1520. Francis I. of France entertains Henry VIII. of England at a meeting on the **Field of the Cloth of Gold,** near Guines.

Pope Leo X. issues a **bull of excommunication against Luther,** but the reformer burns the papal edict.

Christian II. of Denmark invades Sweden and establishes himself in its sovereignty; overthrown in 1521 in a revolt of the Swedes led by Gustavus Vasa, who eventually becomes king (1523).

1521. Charles V. of Germany and Francis I. of France engage in a series of wars covering a period of more than a score of years; the conflict originates in counterclaims to the possession of Navarre, Naples, Milan, and Burgundy.
Hernando **Cortes,** the Spanish conqueror, **invades Mexico** and after a long siege takes the capital city.
Luther is summoned before the **Diet of Worms** ("Here I stand"); he is adjudged guilty of heresy against the teachings of the Catholic Church.

1522. Charles V. of Germany attacks the French and defeats them at La Bicocca, in Aprïl.

1521. The French withdraw from Italy and the **Chevalier Bayard,** one of their leaders, falls in the retreat.
German Peasants' War breaks out in Swabia and Franconia, accompanied with frightful outrages. The disturbance lasts nearly a year.

1525. The imperial troops defeat the army of Francis at Pavia, Febrnary 24, and make the French king prisoner.
East Prussia is made by Albert of Brandenburg a hereditary principality.

1526. Treaty is made at Madrid, January 14, between Charles V. and Francis I., by which the French king is set at liberty.
The sultan, **Solyman the Magnificent,** who has conquered Belgrade (1521), vanquishes the Hungarians at Mohács, August 29. Hungarian power broken for more than a century.
Ibrahim Lodi of Delhi is overcome by the Mogul Baber, descendant of Tamerlane, at Panipat. The **Mogul dynasty in India** is thus established.
New Testament (Tyndale's version) introduced into England.

1527. Second war between the French and Imperialists, in which France is aided by the pope, the Venetians, and the Sforzas (the League of Cognac). **Rome is captured** by the forces of the Constable Bourbon; the pope is made prisoner Frightful sack of the city.
The **Medici** are **driven from Florence.**

1528. Henry VIII. of England and Francis I. of France join forces in the war against Charles V. of Germany.

1529. Cardinal Wolsey, lord chancellor of England, loses the favor of Henry VIII., and is deprived of his offices.
The **reformers in Germany** present a **protest** (hence the name **Protestant**) to the **Diet of Spires,** April 19.
Charles V. and Francis I. make a **treaty at Cambral,** August 5, by which Italy is surrendered to the Empire; restored by German forces (1530).
Sultan Solyman seizes Buda and makes an unsuccessful **attack on Vienna;** he then establishes on the Hungarian throne John Zapolya, [illegible] of Transylvania.

1530. Pope Clement VII. crowns Charles V. of Germany at Bologna as King of the Lombards and Emperor of the Romans; the Emperor makes a grant of Malta to the **Knights of St. John** (see HOSPITALLER, in the *Dictionary*). The **Protestant Confession of Faith** is presented to the Diet of Augsburg.

1531. The **Protestant states of Germany,** with the Saxon elector at their head, form the **League of Schmalkalden,** for mutual protection.
The Swiss Catholics rout the army of Zurich in the battle of Kappel, Oct. 11, and **Zwingli is killed.**

1532. Christian II. of Denmark is deposed by his subjects, and imprisoned by Frederick II., his successor.

1533. Francisco Pizarro, the Spanish adventurer, completes the **conquest of Peru.**
Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, pronounces null and void the marriage of Henry VIII of England and Catherine of Aragon (who has a daughter, Mary), disregarding the decision of Pope Clement VII.; the king makes **Anne Boleyn** his queen (who bears him a daughter, **Elizabeth**).

1534. England renounces the sovereignty of the pope, and the parliament passes the Act of Supremacy declaring the king and his successors to be the protectors and only supreme heads of the church in England.
The **Anabaptists,** under John of Leyden, institute an anarchistic community at Münster, which continues for a year.
Order of the Jesuits founded by Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard. [monwealth.
Geneva becomes an independent Protestant com-
The **translation of the Bible into German** is completed by Martin **Luther.**

1535. Henry VIII. is formally proclaimed the **supreme head** of the **English Church.** He incorporates Wales into the kingdom, and gives it representation in Parliament.
Sir Thomas More, successor of Cardinal Wolsey as lord chancellor, having refused to take the oath of succession, is found guilty of treason and **beheaded.**
Charles V. of Germany subjugates Tunis.
The dynasty of the Sforzas in Milan ends and Charles V. seizes the territory.
The French navigator **Jacques Cartier** ascends the **River St. Lawrence.**

1536. Henry VIII. causes **Anne Boleyn** to be put to death on a charge of infidelity; he then marries **Jane Seymour** (who has a son, Edward). Later she dies and he marries **Anne of Cleves;** divorces her; marries **Catherine Howard;** then marries **Catherine Parr** (sixth wife), who survives him.
Christian III. gains the ascendancy in Denmark; he proscribes the Catholic Church in his realm.
John Calvin publishes his **Institutes of the Christian Religion;** he makes his residence in Geneva, but in 1538 is expelled from the city for a time. [assassinated.
1537. Alessandro de' Medici, Duke of Florence, is

1538. Charles V. and Francis I make a truce of ten years at Nice. [cles, defining heresy
1539. The English Parliament passes the **Six Arti-**

1540. Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex, the king's vicegerent in ecclesiastical concerns, is **put to death** on a charge of treason.
Pope Paul III. sanctions the **Society of Jesus** (Jesuits) founded in 1534.

1541. Hungary is again overrun by the troops of Sultan Solyman. [Lord) of Ireland
Henry VIII. assumes the title of King (instead of

1542. In Scotland the English army wins the battle of **Solway Moss,** in November. On the death of James V., **Mary Stuart succeeds** to the throne; Earl of Arran is regent

1543. Henry VIII. of England joins Charles V. against France.
Copernicus publishes a work on the solar system; shows that the earth is a planet. (See COPERNICAN SYSTEM, in the *Dictionary.*)

1545. The **Council of Trent** begins its sittings, but without attendance on the part of the Protestants; it continues in session, with some interruptions, until 1563.

1546. Cardinal Beaton, primate of Scotland, orders the burning of George Wishart as a heretic; the cardinal is assassinated.

1547. Henry VIII. of England **dies;** he is succeeded by his son **Edward VI.,** son of Jane Seymour, with the Duke of Somerset as Lord Protector. A Protestant *régime.*
A war between Charles V. of Germany and the allied Protestant princes of the Schmalkaldic League ends in a **victory for the Emperor** at Mühlberg, April 24.
Birth of **Cervantes,** October 9; Spanish novelist and poet (*Don Quixote* 1605, 1615). Dies 1616.

1548. The **Augsburg Interim** is promulgated in Germany, in which the decree of toleration to the reformers is declared, pending the decisions of the Council of Trent.

ERA OF RELIGIOUS WARS.

1549. The **Art of Uniformity** in Public Worship is declared in England; the **Book of Common Prayer** is adopted.

1550–1600. The **Pleiad** of France (see PLEIAD, 2 c, in the *Dict.*). Followed by Malherbe and Régnier.

1550. The English make treaties of peace with the French and the Scots.

1552. The Duke of Somerset, convicted of treason, is put to death.
The **Forty-two Articles** of the reformed religion in England are established by law; the number is afterward (1563) reduced to **Thirty-nine;** they continue to be a test of orthodoxy for three and a half centuries
Charles V. of Germany is attacked by Maurice of Saxony, the champion of Protestantism; the Emperor is forced to yield and by the Treaty of Passau **freedom of worship** is accorded to the followers of Luther.
Ivan the Terrible extends the Russian dominion; he makes a successful campaign against the Tatars of Kazan, and two years later overcomes Astrakhan.

1553. Mary Tudor, daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon, succeeds to the throne of England on the death of her brother, Edward VI.; an unsuccessful effort is made by the Duke of Northumberland to secure the crown for his daughter-in-law, **Lady Jane Grey;** she is put to death in the following year.
Michael **Servetus,** the Spanish philosopher and physiologist, is **burned at the stake** in Geneva with the approval of Calvin.

1554. Queen Mary of England **espouses Philip II.** of Spain, son of Charles V.; he is made king of Naples and Sicily by his father, and a year later he receives the sovereignty of the Netherlands. He comes to England expecting to be cosovereign of that country.

1555. The **Peace of Augsburg** makes an end in Germany of the war between the Catholics and Lutherans.

1556. Cranmer, Protestant archbishop of Canterbury, is **burned at the stake** as a heretic, March 21. Many executions at **Smithfield.**
Charles V. abdicates the crown of Spain to his son Philip; he is succeeded in the Empire by his brother, Ferdinand I.
Accession of **Akbar the Great** as Mogul emperor; extends his power over the greater part of India; his reign notable for progress in social and economic reforms, architecture, and religion. Dies in 1605.

1557. The French are defeated by the army of Philip II. at Saint-Quentin, August 10.

1558–1589. Early period of **Elizabethan Age** of English literature: **Drama** — Kyd (*Spanish Tragedy* 1585?), Nash, Lyly, Peele, Greene (*Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay* 1589?), Marlowe (*Tamburlaine* 1587); **Poetry** — Spenser (*Faërie Queene* 1590); **Prose** — Lyly (*Euphues* 1579), Sidney (*Arcadia* 1590), Hooker (*Ecclesiastical Polity* 1594).

1558. Calais, the last stronghold of England in France, is **retaken by France.**
Francis, the danphin of France, **marries Mary Stuart** of Scotland.
Elizabeth Tudor, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, **succeeds to the throne** of England, November 17, on death of Mary. Protestant religion established.

1559. France, England, and Spain conclude the Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis; Philip II. takes in marriage the Princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of the French king.
John Knox preaches in Scotland; the Protestant reformers in that country rebel against the regent, Mary of Guise.
Philip II. of Spain makes his half sister, Margaret of Parma, regent of the Netherlands, which are on the point of rebellion over religion.
June 24. Sigismund attacks Duke of Kurland.

1560. The Scottish reformers make a treaty with Queen Elizabeth at Berwick by which they secure the English forces as allies. Mary of Guise dies. Mary Stuart and her husband Francis II., now king of France, conclude with the reformers and Elizabeth the **Treaty of Edinburgh.**

1561. Mary, Queen of Scots, arrives in her realm from France. [O'Neill.
The Irish rebel under the leadership of **Shane**
The Livonian Knights, or Sword bearers (see FORTGLAIVE, in the *Dict.*) are forced to cede Livonia to Sigismund Angustus of Poland and Lithuania; the last grand master of the order becomes a vassal as Duke of Kurland.

1562. A limited **privilege of worship** is extended to the **Huguenots** by the Edict of Saint-Germain issned by the Catholic king. Massacres of the Protestants occur at various places. **Huguenot wars** begin. The Huguenots under Condé and Coligny are overcome at Dreux, December 19. In the following year (February) the Duke of Guise is murdered; his death is followed by the Pacification of Amboise.

1563. The Calvinists proclaim the **Heidelberg Catechism** (see in the *Dictionary*).

1565. Mary Stuart marries her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley. [is repulsed.
Mustafa Pasha makes an attack on Malta, which
St. Augustine, the oldest permanent settlement of the white race within the present limits of the United States, is **founded** by the Spaniards.

1566. The nobles of the **Netherlands** form the **league of the Gueux,** or "Beggars" (see GUEUX, in the *Dict.*); the refusal of their demands precipitates a **civil war.**
Hungary is invaded for the last time by **Solyman** the Magnificent, who **dies** at the siege of Sziget; his successor, Selim II., storms and takes the city.

1567. Lord Darnley, the husband of Queen Mary of Scotland, **is assassinated,** and the queen marries the Earl of **Bothwell,** who is openly accused of the murder of Darnley; she is thereupon imprisoned and forced to abdicate in favor of her son, James VI., who reigns under regency of Murray.
The rebellion of Shane O'Neill in Ireland is suppressed and the leader is killed.
The **Huguenot wars** in France break out afresh.
The **Duke of Alva** reaches the Netherlands with a Spanish army to aid the contest against the league of the Gueux; institutes the **Blood Council** (see in the *Dictionary*).

1568. Mary of Scotland, having escaped from imprisonment, is met by the regent Murray, at Langside (May 13); the queen is defeated and flees for refuge to England, but is **made a captive** by Queen Elizabeth.
The temporary Peace of Longjumeau is concluded between the Catholics and Huguenots in France; the strife is renewed after the assembly of the Protestant leaders at La Rochelle.
Margaret of Parma, the regent William of Orange, and many of the nobles having withdrawn from the Netherlands, the Duke of Alva, with great cruelty, causes many to be put to death, including the counts of **Egmont and Horn. William of Orange** and his brother, **Louis of Nassau,** make a Protestant campaign against the Spanish forces in the Netherlands, but are repulsed.

1569. The Moriscos in Spain rebel; in the following year they are overcome by Don John of Austria.
The Huguenots are beaten at Jarnac, March 13; the Duke of Condé is taken prisoner and shot; the Huguenot army under Coligny is routed at Moncontonr, October 3.

1569 (*continued*).
Cosmo de' Medici the Great becomes grand duke of Florence. [sovereignty.
Poland and Lithuania are **united** under one

ERA OF DECLINE OF SPAIN.

1570–1610. Elizabethan era in England; spirit of adventure and discovery, a greater freedom of thought and action, and a remarkable development of literature, especially of the drama.

1570. Murray, the regent of Scotland, is murdered.
The English make an invasion of Scotland.
The **Catholics and Huguenots** in France **make peace** by the Treaty of Saint-Germain.

1571. The pope, the Spaniards, and the Venetians unite in the **Holy League against the Turks;** the fleet of the league, under Don John of Austria, **victorious at Lepanto,** October 7.

1572. Henry, king of Navarre, marries Margaret of Valois, sister of Charles IX.
The **Massacre of St. Bartholomew** in Paris, with the sanction of the king, August 24; Coligny and many other **Huguenots are slain,** whereupon the Huguenots again take up arms.
A general **rising of the Dutch against Spanish rule** takes place under William of Orange. In the following year the troops of Spain conquer Haarlem, but besiege Leiden without success.
With the death of Sigismund Augustus, the **crown of Poland becomes elective;** a year later Henry, Duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., is chosen king, but on the death of Charles he ascends the French throne as Henry III.; he gives up the Polish crown, to which Stephen Báthori of Transylvania is ultimately elected (1575).
Publication of the *Lusiad* of Camoëns, the great epic of Portugal.

1573. The Huguenots, after a successful defense of La Rochelle, are granted a measure of toleration in France; two years afterward Henry of Navarre escapes from Paris and becomes their leader.

1576. Catholic League is formed in France against the Huguenots.
The revolting provinces of the Netherlands, both Catholic and Protestant, put aside all differences among themselves, and unite in the **Pacification of Ghent,** to resist Spanish dominion; Don John of Austria is appointed governor by his half brother, Philip II. of Spain; he is not accepted by the provinces.

1577–1580. Voyage of Sir Francis Drake for England (second circumnavigation).

1577. Henry III. of France and the Huguenots conclude the Treaty of Bergerac.

1578. Don John of Austria, governor of the Netherlands, is victorious over the army of the rebels at the battle of Gembloux, January 31; he dies, and Alessandro Farnese, Duke of Parma, succeeds him.

1579. The **Union of Utrecht** is formed by the seven Protestant provinces of the Netherlands; this union, two years later, renounces the authority of Spain, declares complete independence, and settles the hereditary stadholdership of the nation on William of Orange-Nassau, called the Silent. This event is the **foundation of the Dutch Republic.**

1580. Philip II. of Spain makes a campaign against Portugal and subdues it. [**Concord.**
The German Lutherans publish the **Formula of**

1581. Annexation of Portugal by Spain.

1582. Ermak-Timofeevich leads the Cossacks to the **conquest of Siberia.**
Pope Gregory XIII. reforms the calendar and declares that October 5 of the current year be changed to October 15; hence the Gregorian calendar or New Style, gradually adopted and still in general use (see CALENDAR, in the *Dictionary*).
Jesuit missionaries reach China.

1583. Newfoundland is granted to **Sir Humphrey Gilbert** by Queen Elizabeth; the "first English colony."

1584. William of Orange is murdered, July 10; his son, Maurice of Nassau, becomes the head of the seven provinces of the Netherlands; the Duke of Parma, Spanish governor of the Netherlands, besieges Antwerp, and in the following year captures the city.
The Catholic League of France makes a treaty of alliance with Philip II. of Spain against the French Huguenots.
North Carolina is reached by an expedition of **Sir Walter Raleigh;** the territory is named **Virginia** by the queen.

1585. The Catholic League takes up arms against Henry III. of France, but the king and the Catholics are reconciled by the Treaty of Nemours; the war against the Huguenots is resumed.
Sir Francis Drake leads an English expedition against the Spanish colonies in America without formal war.
John Davis, English navigator, sets out on a two years' cruise in search of northwest passage to Asia.

1587. Mary, Queen of Scots, implicated in the conspiracy of Savage, Ballard, Babington, and others, is **beheaded** February 8, by order of Queen Elizabeth.
Henry III. of France is defeated by Henry of Navarre at the battle of Coutras.

1588. Philip II. of Spain sends the **Invincible Armada** against England; the Spanish fleet, under the Duke of Medina-Sidonia, is assailed by English ships under Drake and Howard; it is terrorized by fire ships, overwhelmed by a tempest, and only a remnant escapes.
Henry of Guise enters Paris; the king, Henry III., is forced to flee from the city; the sovereign summons a meeting of the States-General at Blois; the assassination of the Duke of Guise is ordered, and the duke is slain, December 23.

1589–1620. Shakespeare and Elizabethan literature: Shakespeare, dramatist and poet (about 37 plays — comedies, histories, tragedies 1588–1611; poems 1593–1594; sonnets 1609); died 1616. **Other dramatists** — Ben Jonson (*The Alchemist* 1610), Lodge, Chapman, Beaumont and Fletcher (*Philaster* 1609?), Middleton, Webster, Dekker, Massinger; **Poetry** — Drayton, Donne; **Prose** — Bacon (*Essays* 1597), Hakluyt, Raleigh.

1589. Henry III. makes an alliance with Henry of Navarre and the Huguenots, and the combined forces move against Paris. The king is stabbed by an assassin while at Saint-Cloud, August 1; he dies on the following day, thus **ending the dynasty of Valois. Henry of Navarre** (Henry IV.) **succeeds to the throne** and establishes the **Bourbon line** of French sovereigns.

1590. Henry IV. defeats the forces of the Catholic League under the Duke of Mayenne at **Ivry,** March 14; a Spanish army, under command of the Duke of Alva, joins the Catholic troops and delivers Paris from the king's attack.

1592. The Presbyterian Church is established as the **National Church of Scotland,** to supersede the Episcopal ecclesiarchy.

1593. Henry IV. of France **abjures the Protestant faith;** he is crowned in the following yea. at Chartres, February 27. On March 22 of the same year he enters Paris without opposition.

1595. Henry IV. undertakes a campaign against Spain.

1596. The **Catholic League is dissolved.**

1597. The Spaniards are defeated at Turnhout by the Dutch under Maurice of Nassau, aided by his English allies.
The Dutch complete their **first voyage to the East Indies** by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

1598. Toleration is conceded to the Huguenots by the **Edict of Nantes,** proclaimed by Henry IV. of France, April 13; on May 2 a **treaty between France and Spain** is concluded at Vervins.
The **Rurik dynasty,** Scandinavian in origin, ends in Russia with the death of Feodor I., and Boris Godunov ascends the throne.

1599. Sigismund Vasa tries to establish the Catholic religion in Sweden and is **driven from his throne** for his defection from the national faith.

1600. The Archduke Albert of Austria, governor of the Netherlands, is overcome by the Dutch under Maurice of Nassau at Nieuport.
The philosopher **Giordano Bruno,** after seven years' imprisonment in Rome by the Inquisition on a charge of heresy, is **burned at the stake.**
The **English East India Company** is formed.

1602. The **Dutch East India Company** is formed.

1603. The **Tudor dynasty** in England **ends** with the **death of Queen Elizabeth,** March 24; James VI. of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart, a Protestant, and descendant of Henry VII. of England, receives the crown as **James I.** A conspiracy to place Arabella Stuart on the throne is unsuccessful, and its alleged promoter, **Sir Walter Raleigh,** is **imprisoned.** Peace made with Spain.

ERA OF THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

1604. The English bishops and the Puritan leaders meet James I. in a **conference** at **Hampton Court.** He objects to Presbyterianism as a limit on royal power.

1605. A conspiracy is formed to blow up the king and Parliament of England, but the plot is discovered and the leaders seized, November 5. **"Gunpowder Plot"** (see GUNPOWDER PLOT, in the *Dictionary*).
Feodor II. succeeds to the Russian throne; he is afterward dethroned by the Pseudo Demetrius.
The Turks are overcome at Busrah by Abbas the Great, of Persia. [Reigns till 1627.
Jahangir, son of Akbar, becomes Mogul emperor.

1606. Pseudo Demetrius of Russia is slain; succeeded by Shuiski, who takes the title of Basil IV.
The **London** and **Plymouth companies** are chartered by patents of James I. of England.
Australia discovered by Dutch, who land at Carpentaria.

1607. Jamestown, in Virginia, first permanent English settlement in North America, **is founded** by the London Company, May 14.

1608. The Protestant states of Germany establish the Evangelical Union.
Rudolph II. of Germany is forced to give up Austria, Moravia, and Hungary to his brother Matthias. [found **Quebec.**
The **French** under **Samuel de Champlain**
Invention of the telescope.

1609. A Catholic league is formed in Germany; Rudolph II. is compelled to grant religious toleration to the Bohemians; two years later (1611) he is forced to surrender his crown to Matthias.
A treaty of peace for two years is made by Spain and the Netherlands. [Philip III.
The **Moriscos** are finally **driven out of Spain** by
Henry Hudson, sailing under the flag of the Dutch East India Company, ascends the Hudson River; in the following year he explores Hudson Bay, but perishes on the voyage.

1610. The second Pseudo Demetrius gains the throne of Russia by the aid of Polish nobles; in a short time he is assassinated.
Henry IV. of France is **assassinated** by Ravaillac, May 14; Louis XIII. becomes king, with Marie de Médicis as regent.
By means of the newly invented telescope Galileo discovers the satellites of Jupiter.
Authorized Version, or **King James Bible,** completed; the work is issued the following year.

1613. The **Romanov dynasty begins** in Russia with the accession of Mikhail Romanov as czar; first national sovereign.

1614. The Dutch build a fort on **Manhattan Island** and afterward purchase the territory from the Indians (1626).
The system of logarithms is invented by Lord John Napier.

1615. Louis XIII. of France marries Anne of Austria, daughter of Philip III. of Spain. Foundation of later French claim to Spanish throne.
First regular newspaper in Europe (*Frankfurter Journal*).

1616. The **circulation of the blood** is demonstrated by William Harvey.
Shakespeare dies, April 23.

1617. By the Peace of Stolbova, Russia cedes Karelia and Ingria to Sweden.

1618. Crisis in the religious rivalries of Germany. Most of northern states and cities are Protestant — either Lutheran or Calvinistic. Many Protestants in Bohemia, Austria, and Hungary. Southern Germany mostly Catholic. Constant difficulties in the Imperial Diet. Settlement of Augsburg of 1555 overthrown.
The **Thirty Years' War** begins in Germany with the insurrection of the Bohemians under Count Thurn; the conflict is caused by the insistence of the Emperor Matthias on securing the succession in Bohemia and Hungary to his cousin, Ferdinand, Duke of Styria, a Catholic, and therefore unacceptable to the Protestant states.

1619. Arminianism, a Protestant doctrine emphasizing free will, is condemned as heresy at the **Synod of Dort.** (See ARMINIANISM, and SYNOD OF DORT, in the *Dictionary*.)
Ferdinand of Austria, having succeeded Matthias, is elected Emperor as Ferdinand II.; Frederick V., elector palatine and son-in-law of James I. of England, becomes king of Bohemia.
The first legislative assembly elected in America sits in Virginia; the same year the cultivation of cotton is begun.
Negroes are brought by a Dutch vessel to Jamestown and are sold as slaves; this event is the **origin of African slavery** in the **United States.**

1620–1680. Puritan Age of English literature: Poetry — Milton (Minor poems 1629–1637, *Paradise Lost* 1667; Prose works 1641–1654), Herrick, Herbert, Daniel; **Prose** — Bunyan (*Pilgrim's Progress* 1678), Burton, Browne, Fuller, Taylor, Walton (*Compleat Angler* 1653).

1620–1665. Most brilliant period of **Spanish drama:** Lope de Vega (1562–1635) and Calderón de la Barca (1600–1681).

1620. Ferdinand II. of Germany is supported by the Catholic League; the forces of the **Protestants are defeated** at White Mountain, in November.
The Protestants are massacred in the Valtellina.
The **Pilgrim Fathers** of New England **land at Plymouth,** December 21; first permanent English colony in northern section of the continent.

1621. Francis Bacon, Baron Verulam, lord chancellor of England, is impeached on a charge of accepting bribes and is deprived of his offices.
Philip IV. ascends Spanish throne; he renews war with the Netherlands.
Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden begins a victorious campaign of nine years' duration against the Poles.

1622. War breaks out between Louis XIII. of France and the Huguenots.
Ferdinand II. and Gábor Bethlen, prince of Transylvania, who invaded Hungary in 1619, conclude a peace at Nikolsburg.
The Dutch West India Company successfully colonizes the **New Netherlands.**

1623. Dutch colonists of Manhattan build Fort Orange (Albany) on the Hudson.

1624. The London Company is abolished and **Virginia** is placed under the **direct control** of the **English crown.**

1625. The wars of the Huguenots break out afresh in France, but a treaty of peace is made with Louis XIII. in the following year.

EUROPE
after the
PEACE OF WESTPHALIA
IN 1648
ENGLISH MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400
The Boundary of the Empire is shown by rule on black
Longitude East from Greenwich
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
Bay of Biscay
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
UNITED PROVINCES
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
DENMARK
NORWAY
SWEDEN
THE EMPIRE
SWITZERLAND
POLAND
RUSSIA
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
PAPAL STATES
NAPLES
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Crete
Cyprus
EGYPT
PASHALIC OF ALGIERS
PASHALIC OF TUNIS
PASHALIC OF TRIPOLI
PERSIA
London
Paris
Madrid
Rome
Vienna
Berlin
Stockholm
Copenhagen
Moscow
Constantinople
Edinburgh
Dublin
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Warsaw
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1625 (*continued*).
The cause of the German Protestants is espoused by **Christian IV.** of Denmark; he is **defeated** by the Catholics under **Tilly** at the battle of Lutter.

1628. Charles I. of England, who succeeded his father in 1625, is forced to assent to the **Petition of Right,** providing against the abuse of the royal prerogative.
La Rochelle, stronghold of the Huguenots, after resisting the besiegers for a year, is **forced to yield.**
Shah Jahan, son of Jahangir, **ascends the throne** as Mogul emperor of India. Founds modern Delhi and builds the famous **Taj Mahal,** 1631–1645 (see TAJ MAHAL, in the *Dict.*). Reigns until 1658.

1629. The Huguenot wars in France are terminated; Louis XIII. makes **Richelieu** his prime minister.
The **Edict of Restitution** is proclaimed by Ferdinand II., whereby the Protestants are ordered to restore to the Catholic Church all the property of which it has been dispossessed. A peace is concluded with Denmark.

1630–1700. Seventeenth century period of **French prose writers:** J. G. de Balzac, La Rochefoucauld, La Bruyère, Madame de Sévigné, Descartes, Pascal, Bossuet, Fénelon, Boileau, La Fontaine.

1631. Count Johann **Tilly** and Count Gottfried **Pappenheim,** the Imperial generals, **storm Magdeburg** with great atrocities. May 20, **Gustavus Adolphus,** of Sweden, enters the war in Germany and **defeats the Imperialist general Tilly** at Breitenfeld (September 17). Gustavus moves forward to the Rhine.

1632. Gustavus defeats Tilly at Rain, and enters Munich. He **besieges Wallenstein,** greatest of Imperial generals, near Nuremberg, **and defeats him** at Lützen (November 16), **but falls on the field of battle.** Gustavus is succeeded on the throne of Sweden by his daughter, **Christina,** with Count Oxenstiern as regent. [**terbury.**]

1633. William Laud is made **archbishop of Can-**[
The Swiss cantons and the German Protestant states form the Union of Heilbronn; they undertake a war against the Emperor and the Catholics, but are overcome (1634) at Nördlingen, Sept. 6.
Galileo, Italian scientist, prosecuted by the Inquisition for asserting that the **world is round.**

1634. Wallenstein is treacherously **murdered** at Eger, February 25.

1635. Ferdinand II. and the elector of Saxony conclude the **Peace of Prague.** [and Spain]
Richelieu undertakes a campaign against Austria[
The **French Academy is founded.**

1636. John Hampden refuses to pay ship money as required by the writs of ship money issued by Charles I. of England; the Court of Exchequer refuses by a vote of 7 to 5 to sustain his resistance. (See SHIP MONEY, in the *Dictionary.*)

1637. An attempt to introduce the **English forms of worship** into **Scotland** meets with vehement **resistance.**

1638. The Scots declare the **abolition of episcopacy** in Scotland and publish the **National Covenant.** [Rheinfelden]
Bernard of Weimar defeats the Imperial army at[

1639. The National Covenant is defended with arms by the Scots. [the Downs.]
Spaniards defeated by Dutch in a sea battle in[

1640–1700. Classic period of French drama: Rotrou, Corneille (*Le Cid* 1636), Molière (*L'Avare* 1668), Racine (*Athalie* 1691).

1640. The **Short Parliament** sits in April and May and is followed by the **Long Parliament,** which begins its session in November; the **Scots invade England.**
Frederick William, the Great Elector, becomes ruler of Brandenburg; the **foundation of** the later **Prussia.**
Catalonia revolts from Spain; **Portugal regains her freedom,** with John, Duke of Braganza, as king, styled John IV.

1641. Archbishop Laud is imprisoned in the Tower of London; the **Earl of Strafford,** the king's adviser, is **put to death.** In the same year the **Star Chamber** and the **Court of High Commission** are **abolished.** A rebellion breaks out in Ireland.
Descartes publishes his philosophical system, in which the superstructure of all positive knowledge is based on self-consciousness.

1642. Charles I. of England engages in **open war with the Parliament;** the **battle of Edge Hill** is fought, October 23, without decisive results.
Richelieu dies.
Jansen's teaching as to the doctrine of St. Augustine is condemned by Pope Urban VIII. (See JANSENISM, in the *Dictionary.*)
Tasman, a Dutch voyager, discovers **Van Diemen's Land,** or Tasmania, and **New Zealand.**

1643. The **Westminster Assembly,** meeting to formulate a body of doctrine, continues its session until 1649.
Prince Rupert captures Bristol; the **battle of Newbury** is fought, September 20; the Parliament subscribes to the **Solemn League and Covenant** as a bond between the Scots and the English, having for its end the support of Presbyterianism in Scotland and a contention for its supremacy in England and Ireland.
Louis XIII. of France is succeeded by his minor son, the boy **Louis XIV.,** May 14, with his mother **Anne of Austria** as regent, and **Mazarin** as primo minister. Louis XIV. assumes power in 1661; reigns till 1715.
The Duke d'Enghien defeats the Spanish at Rocroi, but the French are beaten by the Imperial army at Tuttlingen.
Sweden is attacked by Christian IV. of Denmark.
Torricelli invents the barometer.

1644. The **Scots enter England;** at the **battle of Marston Moor,** July 2, the Royalists under Prince Rupert are overcome by the allied armies of the Scots and the Parliament; the Covenanters are vanquished at Tippermuir.
The Ming dynasty in China overthrown by Manchus invited in to defend a faction. The **Manchu dynasty** thus **founded** lasts until 1912.
Roger Williams secures a patent for the confederate government of the colonies of Rhode Island.

1645. *Jan. 10.* **William Laud,** archbishop of Canterbury, having been impeached for treason in 1643, is **beheaded.**
At the **battle of Naseby,** June 14, Royalists defeated by Fairfax, assisted by Cromwell and Ireton.

1646. Charles I. of England **gives himself up to the Scots** in May; the Prince of Wales seeks refuge in Holland.

1647. The Scots deliver **Charles I.** to the English Parliament; he is cast **into prison,** January 30.
Masaniello leads an insurrection in Naples.
Beginning of the **Quaker** movement by **George Fox.**

1648. The **English Royalists** rise in arms for the deliverance of Charles I.; they are aided by the Scots, but are **defeated by Cromwell.** The Parliament adopts the **Westminster Confession of Faith,** and the **Long Parliament** (later designated the Rump Parliament) **is purged by Cromwell.** [Spain.]
Independence of Holland is acknowledged by[
The **Thirty Years' War ends:** treaties are signed at Osnabrück and Münster. A general treaty is signed at Münster and the **Peace of Westphalia** is completed, October 24. Holland and Switzerland are independent. Alsace is assigned to France, with Metz, Toul, and Verdun; Sweden receives German Baltic territory; Saxony is much enlarged; the Upper Palatinate is apportioned to Bavaria; and a new electorate is instituted for the Rhine Palatinate. The Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Reformed creeds in Germany are recognized in full equality. The ecclesiastical connection of the states becomes definitely fixed on the principle of *cujus regio ejus religio* [Latin, "the ruler establishes the religion"], each prince or city to decide what the faith of the people shall be. Since 1648 no European nation has formally and permanently changed its religion. The **political status of Modern Europe** is in large measure determined by this treaty. The principle of the **balance of power,** asserted at various times in ancient and medieval history, receives confirmation and may be said to have become established as a part of international law.

1648–1689. Decay of Poland, due to decline of royal power and the weakness and confusion of the Diet. This body, composed of a senate of bishops, voivodes, and castellans, and a body of representatives chosen by the total nobility, leaves the common people out of account. It elects the king, makes war, and passes laws; but the Slav principle of unanimous consent (*liberum veto*) makes unity impossible. Rivalry, force, and the machinations of outside sovereigns eventually bring about anarchy.

ERA OF LOUIS FOURTEENTH.

1649. England nominally a republic, the "Commonwealth," in whose name acts are done and "Ordinances" passed by Parliament. Military authority comes in; the **Protectorate** (1653) becomes virtually **a monarchy.**

1652. *July 8.* Naval war between **England** and **Holland.** Ends in 1654.

1654. Charles X. becomes king of Sweden. He **invades Poland** in 1655. War ends in 1660.
Air pump invented by von Guericke.

1655. Alexander VII. pope.

1656. Russia, Denmark, and the Emperor declare **war on Sweden;** joined by the elector of Brandenburg.

1657. Poland in the **Treaty of Wehlau** recognizes the elector's sovereignty over East Prussia.

1658. Aurangzeb, Mogul emperor. A long and splendid reign, renowned for its buildings and arts, which continues till 1707.
Dutch of New Netherland annex the Swedish possessions on the Delaware; end of Swedish power on the continent of North America.

1659. Peace of the Pyrenees (France and Spain) includes marriage of **Louis XIV.** with **Maria Theresa,** daughter of Philip IV. of Spain. Basis of later claim of Louis of right to dispose of **Spanish crown.**

1660–1700. Period of the Restoration in English literature: Poetry — Dryden (*Absalom and Achitophel* 1681), Butler (*Hudibras* 1663); **Drama** — Congreve, Otway, Wycherley; **Prose** — Pepys (*Diary* 1660–1669), Evelyn, Hobbes (*Leviathan* 1651), Locke. First English newspaper, *Public Intelligencer,* 1663. Followed by *Publick Occurrences* (Boston, Mass., 1690).

1660. Peace of Copenhagen; Denmark surrenders to Sweden southern part of the Scandinavian peninsula. Never again lost.
May 3. **Peace of Oliva** (Sweden with Poland, Brandenburg, and Holy Roman Empire); Livonia to Sweden, East Prussia to Brandenburg.

1661. Chinese emperor Kang-hi comes to the throne; reigns till 1721. Conquers Tibet and Formosa. For first time **China is involved with a European power;** war with Russia (1684–1689). Reign noted for science and literature. French and English traders settle at Canton.
Death of Mazarin. Beginning of personal government of **Louis XIV.,** a spirited young prince who at once forms plans of war and conquest ("Le Grand Monarque").
Bombay is part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza; **ceded to England** in 1665. Granted to the **East India Company** in 1668.

1663. The Diet of the Holy Roman Empire fixed formally at Regensburg (Ratisbon), which remains the legislative capital

1665. *Feb. 22.* **England at war with Holland,** due to rivalry of trade and colonies. New Amsterdam (captured in 1664) becomes **New York;** confirmed, 1667, at end of war.
April. **Plague in London;** great loss of life.

1666. *Jan. 16.* **War** breaks out **with France;** ends in 1667.

1667. *July 31.* **Peace of Breda** (England, Holland, France). Acadia returned to France, but she loses some West India islands; England cedes Surinam to the Dutch.
Clement IX. pope. [deposed]
Portuguese revolution at Lisbon. King Pedro II.[

1668. Reflecting **teleseope** made by **Newton.**
Jan. 23. Triple Alliance (England, Holland, and Sweden) formed to check Louis XIV., who buys off Charles II., king of England, by a secret subsidy treaty (1670).
May 2. **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle** (France, Spain) stops war; question of claims to Spanish crown postponed.

1669. Crete taken from Venice by the Turks, who hold it till 1898.

1670. Clement X. pope.
Hudson's Bay Company chartered by the British crown. Sets up hunting and trading posts on the watershed of Hudson Bay and subsequently west of the mountains. Charter given up in 1869 as a territorial authority. Still continues in trade.

1672. Third war of **England against Holland.** Ends in 1674. Made possible by influence of France over Charles II. [of Zaravno, 1676]
Turks make war on Poland. Defeated 1673. Peace[
August. Mob kills the De Witt brothers, leaders of the aristocratic republican party in Holland. Question of war or peace with France.

1675. *June 18.* **Battle of Fehrbellin.** Frederick William, "The Great Elector" of Brandenburg, defeats the Swedish allies of Louis XIV., and thus establishes Brandenburg as a European power — predecessor of Prussia. War ends in 1679.
St. Paul's, London, begun, from designs of Christopher Wren. Completed in 1710.

1677. Marriage of William of Orange with **Mary,** eldest daughter of the Duke of York, who later becomes King James II. of England. Makes possible the later revolution in England and the organization of opposition to Louis XIV.

1678. Turkey, which has now subjugated most of Hungary, Moldavia, and Wallachia, pushes northeast and engages in the **first war with Russia.** This reveals the great rivalry between the two nations.
"Popish Plot" excitement in England. Marks revival of Catholic-Protestant rivalries.

1678–1679. Peace of Nimwegen (Nijmegen), a series of treaties which brought to a close the war between the French and the Dutch and their allies caused by Louis XIV.'s invasion of the Netherlands in 1672. It made various **territorial adjustments** and included a treaty between France and Holland (Aug. 10, 1878), to which was annexed a separate commercial treaty; one between France and Spain (Sept. 17, 1678); one between the Emperor and France and Sweden (Feb. 6, 1679); and one between Holland and Sweden (Oct. 12, 1679); also, the following treaties: at **Fontainebleau,** between France and Denmark (Sept. 2, 1679); at **Lund,** between Denmark and Sweden (Sept 26, 1679).

1679. *June 29.* **Peace of Saint-Germain** (Brandenburg and Louis XIV., in name of Sweden) German territory (Pomerania) restored to Sweden.

1680? Tramways with wooden rails used near Newcastle, England.

1682. Discovery and exploration of the lower Mississippi by La Salle for France. He names the region **Louisiana,** for Louis XIV. (April 9).

1683. Siege of Vienna. Successful relief by joint German and Polish army under Charles of Lorraine and John Sobieski, king of Poland. Farthest point of **Turkish** advance and beginning of **withdrawal.**

French invasion of the **Spanish Netherlands,** occupation of Luxemburg, and seizure of Treves (Trier) (1684). Lorraine permanently occupied by France, but Treves is given up.

1684. Truce of Regensburg (Louis XIV. retains all the "reunions" made up to August 1, 1681, including Strassburg, which is held till 1871).

1685. Revocation of the **Edict of Nantes.** Many Huguenots emigrate to England, Holland, and Germany; and some to the English colonies, in spite of prohibition. Protestant services are forbidden and Protestants not to engage in professions or arms. Enforced by dragonnades, with quartering of licentious soldiery in Protestant houses.

1686. Foundation of **Calcutta,** in India.

Buda, capital of Hungary, **retaken** by Austrians after being held by the **Turks** 145 years. Permanent loss of west of Hungary for the Turks.

League of Augsburg (Holy Roman Emperor, Sweden, Spain, Holland, and German states) against France. Louis XIV. at once invades Palatinate and his army frightfully ravages the country. Leaves deep impression of the terrors of French **conquest.**

1687. *Aug. 12.* Battle of Harkány. Most important single event in overthrow of Turkish ascendancy in Hungary.

Joseph I. of Austria crowned king of Hungary.

Principia published by Sir Isaac Newton (theory of attraction of gravitation).

1688. Revolution in England. James II. driven out, and received by Louis XIV. William, stadholder of Holland, lands and assumes power.

ERA OF GRAND ALLIANCE.

1689–1748. England develops a **navy** to protect her commerce and colonies, which subsequently is to serve as her favorite instrument in war. France, Spain, and the northern sea powers lose prestige. In all wars **privateers** freely used to destroy enemy's commerce. Islands and other coast colonies frequently change hands.

1689. Peter I., "the Great," reigns as sole monarch of Russia (till 1725).

William III. and Mary (until 1694), sovereigns of England, by will of Parliament. William reigns solely from 1694 till 1702.

Grand Alliance against France, on principle of **"balance of power"** in Europe. Engineered by William III.; includes Holy Roman Emperor, Sweden, England, Holland, small German states, and Savoy. Resulting war continues till 1697.

Alexander VIII. pope.

May 7. **England at war with France.**

1690. War extends to America. Port Royal taken by a colonial expedition (see UNITED STATES).

1691. Innocent XII. pope. [Holy Roman Empire.]

1692. Hanover becomes the ninth electorate in the Witchcraft trials in New England. Revulsion there and in Europe follows.

1693. National debt of England begins by a loan made by associated goldsmiths.

1694. Bank of England founded. First modern national bank.

1697–1698. Peter the Great undertakes a journey, for his instruction, through Germany to Holland. Works as ship carpenter in Saardam (Zaandam), and afterwards goes to England.

1697. Charles XII. king of Sweden. A great soldier and conqueror; in a war with Russia advances as far as present Ukraine. Reigns till 1718.

Peace of Ryswick (France, England, Spain, Holland). Ends the long war against Louis XIV., who formally recognizes the Protestant sovereign of England. Mutual restoration of conquests. Proves only a breathing space.

Augustus II., elector of Saxony, becomes king of Poland after the death of John Sobieski, and adopts the Catholic faith of the country.

1698. First Treaty of **Partition of Spain** (England, France, and Holland). Foreseeing the death of Charles II. of Spain without heirs, they propose to recognize Joseph Ferdinand of Bavaria as sovereign of Spain, India, and Spanish Netherlands; and to apportion other Spanish dependencies. Never carried out.

March. **Darien** settlement on isthmus of Panama, founded by Paterson for a company of Scottish subscribers. Expects it to become a world-commercial city. England does not support him; colony fails in 1700.

1699. *Jan. 26.* Peace of Karlowitz (Turkey, Austria, Venice). Turkey yields all Hungary except Temesvár; and also cedes the Morea (peninsula of Greece) to Venice.

1700–1750. Age of Voltaire: Voltaire (*Henriade* 1728; *Zaïre* 1732), Saint-Simon, Fontenelle, Vauvenargues, Montesquieu (*Esprit des lois* 1748), Le Sage (*Gil Blas* 1735), Abbé Prévost.

1700–1745. Early Eighteenth Century of English literature, sometimes called the Age of Pope: **Poetry** — Pope (*Essay on Man* 1732–1734), Young (*Night Thoughts* 1742–1745), Watts (*Hymns* 1707), Thomson (*Seasons* 1726–1730); **Prose** — Addison (*Spectator* 1711–1712), Steele, Swift (*Gulliver's Travels* 1726), Defoe (*Robinson Crusoe* 1719).

1700. Clement XI. pope.

Nov. 1. Death of Charles II. As he is childless, a great dispute about the **Spanish Succession** arises. **Louis XIV.** claims through his wife Maria Theresa, older sister of Charles, but Louis at the marriage renounced all claims to the throne for his descendants. **Leopold I.,** Emperor, **claims** through his marriage to Margaret Theresa, younger sister of Charles II. Louis insists that his grandson **Philip of Anjou** (who is eventually seated) is the rightful heir. Leopold puts forward his second son Charles. **Joseph Ferdinand,** electoral prince of Bavaria and grandson of Margaret Theresa through his mother (Maria Antoinette), claims also to be rightful heir, but dies February 6, 1699. [partition treaty.]

Nov. 13. France and England make a second Philip of Anjou, designated by will of Charles as heir to the throne, goes to Spain and becomes king as **Philip V.** [over the Russians at **Narva.**]

Nov. 30. Victory of Charles XII. of Sweden.

1701. Frederick III. of Brandenburg assumes title of "King of Prussia," which is a possession not in the Holy Roman Empire. Emperor approves, and Frederick crowns himself as Frederick I. at Königsberg, thus establishing the **Hohenzollern dynasty,** which lasts till 1918.

Sept. 17. **Second Grand Alliance** (Emperor, England, Holland, German states, Portugal, Savoy) against France. The real issue is whether France shall control the navy and colonies of Spain. War rages in northern, central, and southern Europe and in America. Lasts till 1713.

1702. Anne, second daughter of James II., wife of Prince George of Denmark, **becomes queen of England** on the death of William III. (March 8). Reigns till 1714. Becomes patroness of Churchill, made Duke of Marlborough, the principal British commander in this period.

Publication of Cotton Mather's *Magnalia;* first comprehensive American work.

1703. Peter the Great establishes the capital of Russia at the new city of **St. Petersburg** (now Petrograd) near the Baltic. [land.]

1704. Stanislas Leszczynski elected king of Po- **Gibraltar** taken by Rooke and auxiliary Dutch troops. Becomes the greatest naval fortress of Great Britain; still held in 1920.

Aug. 13. Battle of Höchstädt and Blindheim (**Blenheim**). Eugene and **Marlborough** defeat the French.

1705. Death of Emperor Leopold I. His son Joseph I. becomes Emperor. Joseph's younger brother Charles is Austrian candidate for throne of Spain, supported by the Alliance. [**millies.**]

1706. *May 23.* Victory of Marlborough at **Ra-**

Sept. 7. Victory of Eugene at **Turin.**

Sept. 24. **Peace of Altranstädt** between Sweden and Augustus II of Poland and Saxony. Augustus renounces throne of Poland in favor of Stanislas Leszczynski.

1707. *May 1.* **Union of England and Scotland** under the name of **Great Britain** goes into effect. One Parliament, but Scottish laws continue in effect. Scotland officially called North Britain. Scotchmen thenceforth prominent in the activities of the empire. [Quickly suppressed.]

1708. Revolt of the Cossack leader **Mazeppa.**

July 11. French defeated at Oudenarde.

1709. *July 8.* Russian victory at **Poltava,** which establishes Peter's approach to the Baltic, and destroys the Swedish power in eastern Europe. Charles XII. joins the Turks.

Sept. 11. Eugene and Marlborough defeat the French at **Malplaquet.**

1711. Charles, brother of Joseph, succeeds on Joseph's death as **Emperor** of the Holy Roman Empire and sovereign of Austria and Hungary. Reigns till 1740. His accession to the Imperial throne destroys the interest of the allies in his claim to Spain. Hence the Grand Alliance ends.

Czar Peter makes the **Peace of the Pruth** by bribing the Turks. Ends the war with Sweden and Charles XII. is allowed to return home.

1713. Frederick William I., son of Frederick I., king of Prussia. Builds up an effective army; a harsh sovereign and parent. Reigns till 1740.

April 11. **Peace of Utrecht** (several documents). **Philip V.** recognized as rightful sovereign of Spain. Spanish Netherlands go to Austria. Spain grants **asiento** (slave-trade privilege) to English, who receive territory in America from France. Emperor refuses to recognize Philip, but makes peace with France (Rastatt and Baden; March–September). Spain thenceforward pursues an independent policy; and after death of Louis XIV. in 1715, France is weak. The expected combination of the two states fails.

April 19. **Charles VI.** establishes **succession** in his Austrian and Hungarian domains ("Pragmatic Sanction"). All lands belonging to the Austrian group of states to be indivisible; in case of lack of male heirs, Charles's daughters should inherit. Eldest was Maria Theresa. Their heirs should follow in primogeniture.

ERA OF BALANCE OF POWERS.

1714–1718. War of Turks with Venice, and after 1716 with the Emperor. Easy conquest of Morea by the Turks.

1714. George, Elector of Hanover, **becomes king of England** (as George I.) by descent from Sophia, granddaughter of James I., on death of Queen Anne. Lands in England, September 14, and is accepted as king by the Whigs, who are in power. Personal union of Great Britain and Hanover which lasts till 1830. Till 1745 repeated plots of the "Jacobites."

1715. Louis XV. becomes king of France at age of five years; great-grandson of Louis XIV. Long regency, which is a weak and profligate government. Louis reigns till 1774.

Barrier Treaty (England, Austria, Netherlands).

1716. *Aug. 5.* **Defeat of Turks** (Austro-Venetian war against Turkey) by Prince Eugene at Peterwardein (Hungary).

1717. Yoshimune, one of the ablest of the **Tokugawa clan,** becomes shogun, the actual ruler of Japan, though the mikado is titular emperor. Reigns till 1744.

1718–1720. "Mississippi Bubble." Speculation in France of John Law. Seeks to exploit the resources of Louisiana; includes issue of paper money. Fails disastrously.

1718. *July 21.* **Peace of Passarowitz** (Požarevac) between the Turks, Venice, and the Empire. Turks accept the loss of Hungary; also cede Serbia (Belgrade), northern Bosnia, and Little Wallachia. Venice cedes the Morea to Turkey, but keeps posts in Albania and Dalmatia.

Aug. 2. **Quadruple Alliance** (France, England, the Emperor, and after 1719, Holland). Object, to support the settlement of the Peace of Utrecht. **Holland** nominally governed by their High Mightinesses the **States-General,** as a federation, drifts into a kind of limited monarchy under the House of Orange.

Dec. 11. Charles XII. of Sweden assassinated.

1721. Peter assumes the title **"Czar of all the Russias,"** first borne by Ivan the Terrible.

Inoculation as a preventive of severe smallpox introduced into England by Lady Montagu. A palliative of a world scourge.

Aug. 30. **Peace of Nystad** (Sweden and Russia). Sweden cedes Ingria, Esthonia, Livonia, and eastern Finland with Viborg, thus abandoning control of Baltic Provinces. End of significance of Sweden in eastern Europe.

1723. Louis XV. assumes the government, and the regency comes to an end.

1724–1800. Revival of Italian drama: Metastasio, Goldoni, Alfieri.

1724. Benedict XIII. pope.

1725. Catherine I., widow of Peter, assumes the throne in Russia. Accepts the advice of Menshikov, trusted by Peter. Reigns till 1727.

1727. *June 1.* **George II.** assumes the crown of England on death of his father, George I.

Peter II. of Russia, grandson of Peter I., becomes titular emperor, at 12 years of age. Reigns till 1730.

1728. Bering Strait discovered and named by Bering, a Dane in Russian service.

1730–1800. Methodism in England. An attempt to reform Church of England; results in a new nonconformist church ("Wesleyan"). John and Charles Wesley leaders. The Wesleys and Whitefield visit the English colonies of North America.

1730. Clement XII. pope.

Anna Ivanovna, younger daughter of the elder brother of Peter the Great, empress of Russia.

1733. Augustus II., king of Poland, dies. **War of Polish Succession** follows. Diet prevented from seeking a national candidate. A king, Frederick Augustus (Augustus III.), chosen by external pressure which is reducing Poland to impotence.

1735. Linnæus publishes his *Systema Naturae.* A great step in scientific research and classification.

1738. *Nov. 18.* **Peace of Vienna.** At end of Polish War; Lorraine ceded to France (for Stanislas).

1739. Invasion of India by Nadir Shah, of Persia. Sack of Delhi.

ERA OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

1740. Ivan VI., son of Anna of Brunswick, is czar of Russia. Reigns only a year.

At death of Charles VI., **Maria Theresa,** his daughter, becomes queen of the Austrian lands. As a woman cannot take the Empire, Charles Albert of Bavaria is made Emperor (1742) and also coregent of the Austrian lands from 1740.

At death of Frederick William I. of Prussia, his son **Frederick II. ("the Great")** becomes king and

1740 (*continued*).
begins the War of the Austrian Succession, or **first Silesian War.**

1741. Elizabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great, empress of Russia. Reigns till 1762.
Mainland of Alaska discovered by Bering and Chirikov. Settlements on Kodiak Island in 1784 and Baranof Island (Sitka) in 1799.

1742. *May, July.* Separate Peace of Breslau and Berlin between Austria and Prussia ends first Silesian War.

1743. *May 7.* **Peace of Åbo** (Sweden and Russia); ends war brought on by the "Hats" of Sweden. Czarina Elizabeth victorious, yet agrees to surrender most of Finland if her cousin, Adolphus Frederick of Holstein, is made heir to Swedish crown. He succeeds in 1751. [**Dettingen.**
June 27. Allies defeat French in battle of

1744. Frederick of Prussia begins second Silesian War. War between Great Britain and France in America called **King George's War;** is another installment of War of the Austrian Succession. In 1745 British navy and colonists take Louisburg (Cape Breton). War lasts till 1748.

1745–1798. Latter half of Eighteenth Century of English literature; the Age of Johnson: **Prose** — Johnson (*Lives of the English Poets* 1779–1781), Hume, Gibbon, Burke; Richardson (*Pamela* 1740), Fielding (*Tom Jones* 1749), Smollett (*Roderick Random* 1748), Sterne (*Sentimental Journey* 1768), Goldsmith (*Vicar of Wakefield* 1766); **Poetry** — Cowper (*The Task* 1785), Gray (*Elegy* 1751), Goldsmith (*Traveler* 1765; *Deserted Village* 1770); **Drama** — Goldsmith (*She Stoops to Conquer* 1774), Sheridan (*Rivals* 1775).

1745. Francis I., husband of Maria Theresa, **Emperor.** Reigns till 1765.
January. Alliance between Austria, Saxony, England, and Holland against Prussia.
April 22. Separate Peace of Füssen. Elector of Bavaria obtains restitution of his dominions by acknowledging pragmatic sanction and supporting Imperial candidacy of Maria Theresa's husband.
May 11. French victory of Fontenoy ("Irish Brigade") over allies.
Dec. 25. **Peace of Dresden** between Prussia and Austria (Saxony) ends second Silesian War.

1746. Capture of Madras by the French; restored by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.

1748–1832. Golden Era of German literature and philosophy: Klopstock (*Messias* 1748), Lessing (*Minna von Barnhelm* 1767), Wieland, Herder, Goethe (*Faust* 1790, 1831), Schiller (*Wilhelm Tell* 1804), Richter; Kant (*Critique of Pure Reason* 1781), Fichte, Hegel, the Schlegels.

1748. *Oct. 18.* **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle** (Great Britain, France, Austria, Sardinia, Prussia, Spain, Holland); ends War of the Austrian Succession. General restitution of conquests: Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to Don Philip, restoration of Duke of Modena and republic of Genoa, recognition of pragmatic sanction and of Emperor Francis. Silesia guaranteed to Prussia.

1750–1800. Period of the Revolution in French literature (includes also Rousseau and the Encyclopedists): Buffon, Beaumarchais (*Le Mariage de Figaro* 1778), Bernardin de Saint-Pierre (*Paul et Virginie* 1787), André Chénier, M. J. Chénier.

1751–1765. The Encyclopedists in France: Diderot and D'Alembert (see ENCYCLOPEDIST, in the *Dict.*).

1751. War between French and British in India. Defense of Arcot by Clive. War lasts till 1760.

1752. England introduces the Gregorian calendar, already long used on the Continent.
Franklin's discoveries in **electricity.**

1754. Hostilities in upper Ohio Valley between English (George Washington) and French develop into **French and Indian War** (see UNITED STATES). [published

1755. Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language*

1756–1763. "Seven Years' War" to preserve balance of power among European states begins. Includes American (French and Indian) War and also hostilities in Asia and Africa. **Frederick the Great** again fights Austria.

1757. Frederick the Great is almost crushed by Austrians and Russians, but is **relieved** by death of his enemy, Elizabeth of Russia, whose successor, Peter III., withdraws Russian troops.
War rages on the sea, with many naval battles. Great Britain in 1757 seems worsted, but revives under **William Pitt** (Earl of Chatham), who reorganizes the management of the army and navy. Spain comes into the war in 1762.
June 23. **Clive** at Plassey defeats great army of Siraj-ud-Daula, Nawab of Bengal. Establishes English supremacy in India.

1758. Clement XIII. pope.

1760. George III., son of George II., first of the Hanoverian sovereigns born in England. Pursues a policy of asserting royal power, combined with bribery of members of Parliament. The **Whig nobles,** who have directed the government since 1689, **lose prestige.** George III. reigns till 1811 when he goes insane; and his grandson George is regent till the king's death (1820).

1761–1762. Publication of J. J. Rousseau's *La nouvelle Héloïse, Le contrat social* ("The Bible of the French Revolution"), and *Émile;* of great influence in education and social life.

1761. Duke of Bridgewater's Canal in England. Is at about the beginning of an era of canal building in Europe, which lasts till railroads come.

1762. *May 5.* **Peace of St. Petersburg.** Russia restores her conquests to Prussia.

1763. Captain Cook's voyages in the Pacific, including islands and parts of the northwest coast of America. The voyages continue till 1778.
Feb. 10. **Peace of Paris** (Great Britain, France, and Spain). England gets Canada and Louisiana, east of Mississippi, from France; also Minorca, Dominica, Grenada, St. Vincent, Tobago, and Senegal. England restores conquests in India to France, also Goree, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Saint-Pierre, and Miquelon, and cedes St. Lucia to her. She gets Florida from Spain, restoring Cuba and Manila. The war a terrible defeat for France by sea and land; destroys her colonial empire.
Feb. 15. **Peace of Hubertsburg** between the Empire and Central European powers. Terminates war in Central Europe.

1764. Stanislas Poniatowski king of Poland. Last of the Polish sovereigns. Reigns till 1795.

1765. Joseph II. Holy Roman Emperor and also sovereign of the Austrian lands. Reigns till 1790.
Appearance of **Blackstone's** *Commentaries* in England. Has great influence over field of law and government in England and the colonies.

1767. James Hargreaves invents the **spinning jenny,** followed by Arkwright's **spinning frame** (1769), Crompton's **mule spinner** (1779), and Cartwright's **power loom** (1785). These inventions **revolutionize** the **textile industries.**

1768. Catherine II., a German princess, widow of Czar Peter, becomes the greatest sovereign of Russia (next to Peter the Great). A ruler of great energy; rules through ministerial favorites.

1769. Steam engine invented by Watt. Eventually revolutionizes industry. [edition).

1771. Encyclopedia Britannica published (first

1772. Poland deprived of territory by Russia, Austria, and Prussia in the **first partition;** each of the three annexes a belt of territory.

1773. Pope Clement abolishes the order of **Jesuits.**

1774. Warren Hastings governor-gen. of India. Later accused of oppression and unsuccessfully impeached in England. Recalled in 1785.
July 12. **Peace of Kuchük Kainarja** (Turkey and Russia). Turkey renounces suzerainty over Crimea and elsewhere in Black Sea region, and gives Russia indefinite **right to protect** the Orthodox **churches** in Turkish Empire.
Oxygen is discovered by Priestley in England (who called it *dephlogisticated air*) and by Scheele.

ERA OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

1775–1800. American political philosophers, statesmen, and writers. James Otis, Thomas Paine (*Common Sense* 1776; *Age of Reason* 1794), Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson (*Declaration of Independence* 1776), Francis Hopkinson, Noah Webster, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin (*Autobiography*).

1775–1783. War of Independence of the British Colonies **in North America.** See UNITED STATES
France allies with the colonies (1778), and Spain aids them. Holland goes into the war in 1780 and makes a treaty with the United States in 1782. Many naval battles. France loses most of her commercial marine. Continental Congress as a federal government directs national affairs of the thirteen colonies till 1781, when Articles of Confederation go into effect. This is the first American nation; it is founded on the **right of revolution,** denies the divine right of kings, establishes a successful democracy, and creates a workable federation.

1775. Pius VI. is pope.

1776. Appearance of Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations,* first systematic treatise on the economic organization of society.
July 4. Adoption of **Declaration of Independence** by the American Congress. Formally signed August 2. First official use of term **United States of America.** A model for many revolutionary bodies in other countries, and a **landmark in the history of liberty.**

1778–1779. War of the Bavarian Succession, resulting from Joseph II.'s (see 1765) attempt to acquire territory in Bavaria.

1779. *May 13.* **Peace of Teschen** settles the differences arising from the Bavarian question, Palatinate and Bavaria being united.
Sept. 23. **John Paul Jones** defeats and captures British ship *Serapis* off English coast. First decisive **naval victory** of the United States.

1780. Reforms of Joseph II. in Austrian lands. Freedom of religion, suppression of monasteries, etc. Ahead of his time. Dies, 1790; reforms fail.
Declaration of **Armed Neutrality** (Russia, Denmark, and Sweden) to protect neutral flags from **right of search** claimed by Great Britain. United States invited to come in, but never actually ratifies. Partly checks the British practices.

1782. *Nov. 30.* **Peace of Versailles and Paris** (definitive treaty same terms Sept. 3, 1783) (Great Britain and United States, and separately with France and Spain). **Independence of United States** together with very favorable western boundary (Mississippi River); Senegal to France; Minorca and Florida to Spain. Acknowledges the new order of things in the Western Hemisphere. Is followed by recognition of the United States by most civilized nations.

1784. *Feb. 2.* Ship *Empress* starts on a voyage from New York to China; arrives May 14, 1785, and opens up Oriental trade to the United States.

1785. *July.* **League of the German Princes** (Prussia, Saxony and Hanover, Brunswick, Mainz, Hesse-Cassel, Baden, Mecklenburg-Anhalt, and the Thuringian lands). Intended as a substitute for the decaying Empire.

1786. *Aug. 17.* **Death of Frederick the Great.** Succeeded by King Frederick William II., who reigns till 1797.

1787. Drafting of the **Constitution of the United States** by the Federal Convention (May 5–Sept. 17). It is ratified by the States (1787–1790). Goes into effect in 1789. Becomes a model for federal governments in other countries.
Catherine's second war with the Turks; caused by Russian claims in Georgia and her annexation of the Crimea. Austria aids Russia. Ends in 1792.
Triple Alliance (Prussia, Great Britain, Holland) opposed to aggrandizement of Russia and Austria. Austria later abandons Russian alliance and makes peace with Turkey (Sistova, Aug. 4, 1791).

1788. Swedish war with Russia, in Russian Finland. Ends in 1790. [stored for the time.
Austrian Netherlands revolt. Authority re-
London Times newspaper established. Becomes a great political force.

1789. *April 3.* George Washington president of the United States; serves till 1797.

ERA OF FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1789. *June 17.* Oath of the Tennis Court, which marks the **beginning of the French Revolution** and the rise of antimonarchical spirit in Europe. Develops into a Constituent Assembly, which draws up a constitution on the general model of Great Britain. **Mirabeau** is the leading figure.

1790. On death of Joseph II., Leopold II. becomes Emperor and king. Reigns till 1792.

1791. Warning against Revolution by Conference of Pillnitz (Leopold II. and Frederick William II.). Beginning of coalition against France.
Oct. 1. French Legislative Assembly meets; practically the government of France under a limited monarchy. Lasts till September, 1792.

1792. *Jan. 9.* **Peace of Jassy** between Russia and Turkey. Danger of a European war over Eastern question. England and Prussia both threaten Catherine. **War** by Austria and Prussia **against France.** Offensive **manifesto of Duke of Brunswick.** French take Austrian Netherlands, but lose them again. Allied successes lead to **massacres** in French prisons (September 2) and to **proclamation of a republic** (September 21). Tide turns in favor of French arms in 1793.
September. National Convention of the French Republic. Lasts till October, 1795. **Louis XVI.** (Capet) **executed** January 21, 1793.

1793–1797. First coalition against France (Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, the German Empire, Spain, Holland, and other smaller states).

1793–1794. Reign of Terror in France. System of Committee of Public Safety. Revolutionary tribunals and public guillotining. **Robespierre,** extreme radical, **falls** July 27, 1794; is executed.

1793. *April 22.* **Neutrality proclamation** of President Washington. Beginning of policy of keeping out of European complications, and new assertion of the status of neutrals.
Sept. 23. **Second partition of Poland** by Russia and Prussia. Prussia gets Posen, Danzig, and Thorn. Russia gets all the eastern provinces from Livonia to Moldavia.
In Haiti freedom for Negroes proclaimed by French Convention. Later withdrawn.
First British **embassy** (Lord George Macartney) **to China.** [cotton culture).
Whitney patents his cotton gin (revolutionizes

1794. *Nov. 19.* **Jay Treaty** (Great Britain and the United States); neutral trade, boundaries, commerce. Followed by **treaty with Spain** (1795); boundaries, Mississippi navigation, commerce. These treaties give the United States the full status of a member of the then existing family of nations, and open up international commerce.
Polish revolt under **Kosciusko,** who is defeated at Maciejowice. Last effort to save the nation.

1795. French invade Austrian Netherlands and states of **Holland. Batavian Republic** set up; under French control in various forms till 1814.
Final partition of Poland (Russia, Prussia, and Austria). The kingdom extirpated; but the people adhere to their language, religion, and national

1795 (*continued*). traditions. Russia assured possession of the Baltic Provinces. [tion of the Niger.]
Mungo Park, African traveler, begins explora-
April 5. **Peace of Basel** (France and German states). Prussia cedes west bank Rhine to France.
July. **Peace of Basel** with Spain (France and Spain). *Status quo,* except cession of Santo Domingo to France.
Oct. 5. **Directory established in France** by Constitution in face of Parisian insurrection, suppressed chiefly by **Bonaparte.** Directory supported by popular desire for peace, order, and property. Acknowledges personal rights won by revolution, but is an oligarchy supported by bayonets.

1796–1797. General **Bonaparte** makes a daring **campaign in Italy.** Crushes the Sardinians, beats the Italians (Lodi), and forces the pope to cede part of the papal territory.

1796. Dr. Jenner begins to practice **vaccination,** which slowly supersedes inoculation, and reduces the dreaded smallpox.
May 15. Peace between France and Sardinia, the latter ceding Savoy and Nice.

1797. John Adams president of the United States till 1801. X Y Z episode with France.
Napoleon's Alpine and Italian campaign. Venetian Republic falls.
Frederick William II. of Prussia dies. **Frederick William III.** succeeds; reigns till 1840.
Oct. 17. Peace of Campoformido (France and Austria) closing war which began in 1792. Austria cedes large areas including Netherlands, but receives Venice and Illyria.

1798–1799. Bonaparte in Egypt. Captures Malta, Cairo (after **battle of the Pyramids**). Defeated in sea fight of **battle of the Nile** (August 1, 1798). Invades Palestine, 1799; abandons his army and returns to France in October.

1798. Roman Republic takes the place of the papal government. Swiss Confederation is brought to an end after five centuries. Replaced by the **Helvetic Republic,** a centralized state.

1799–1801. Second coalition (Russia, Austria, England, Portugal, Naples, and the Ottoman Porte). Defeated by French in every campaign (Marengo, Hohenlinden). Obliged to accept peace.

1799. *January.* **Parthenopean Republic** set up in Naples. Lasts only a few months.
In France the **Directory falls** (June); establishment of the **Consulate** (November) by Constitution of Year VIII. (of the French Revolutionary Calendar). Nominally a republic, actually a dictatorship by First Consul Bonaparte. **Naval war** between **France** and the **United States.** Capture of merchantmen and a few ship duels. Ended by Convention of September 30, 1800.

ERA OF NAPOLEON.

1800–1850. Era of stone roads. Makes possible a system of stagecoaches and diligences.

1800–1841. Early Russian national literature: Krylov, Zhukovski, Pushkin (*Boris Godunov*), Karamzin, Lermontov.

1800–1849. Steam power, textile machinery, and improvements in metals make it possible to manufacture many lines of goods on a large scale. This leads to the **factory system,** particularly in Great Britain, by which workpeople are assembled in large numbers and the processes are divided (" division of labor "). The result is the **growth of manufacturing towns** with poor conditions of life and with woman and child labor. Beginning of modern industrial legislation.

1800–1832. Early Nineteenth-Century literature in England; Age of Wordsworth: **Poetry** — Wordsworth, Burns, Scott (*Lady of the Lake* 1810), Coleridge (*Ancient Mariner* 1798), Byron (*Childe Harold* 1812–1818), Shelley (*Prometheus Unbound* 1820), Keats (*Eve of St. Agnes* 1820); **Prose** — De Quincey, Coleridge, Lamb (*Essays of Elia* 1820–1833), Hunt, Landor, Hazlitt, Jane Austen, Scott (*Waverley* 1814; *Ivanhoe* 1820).

1800–1820. Reaction period in **French literature:** Chateaubriand (*Atala* 1800), Madame de Staël (*De l'Allemagne* 1810), J. de Maistre, Nodier.

1800. Pius VII. is pope. [States till 1809.]

1801. Thomas Jefferson president of the United
Restoration of Catholic worship in France. Napoleon agrees to a " **concordat** " regulating the relations of papal power with the government and Catholic Church of France.
Feb. 9. **Peace of Lunéville.** Germany west of the Rhine in the possession of France. Recognition of the various " republics " France had set up. Tuscany ceded to Parma. Deposed princes west of the Rhine to be compensated out of church and free-city territory east of the river.
March 23. Paul I. emperor of Russia murdered. Succeeded by his son, **Alexander I.** (1801–1825).

1802. Italian Republic; Bonaparte president.
March 27. **Peace of Amiens** (Great Britain, France, Spain, and Holland). British to restore all over-sea conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. First peace by Great Britain since 1793. Proves to be only a truce.
Aug. 2. By new constitution (5th for France) Napoleon made Consul for life, virtually sovereign.

1803. *April 30.* **Napoleon** agrees to a **treaty** with the United States **ceding Louisiana,** and thus giving up a plan for reviving the French colonies in North America. Makes the United States the strongest North American power.
War renewed between **France and England,** the latter refusing to give up Malta. Napoleon assembles a large army at Boulogne and threatens the invasion of England. Has no sufficient naval force to break British control of the Channel.
Report of the special committee of the Holy Roman Empire on the " mediatization " of small states and cities by incorporating them in larger neighbors (*Reichsdeputationshauptschluss*). All the free cities but six thus lose their privileges.
Breaks up organization of **Holy Roman Empire. Act of Mediation,** a federal constitution drawn by Napoleon **for Switzerland.**

1804–1806. Explorations of **Lewis and Clark,** for United States government (see UNITED STATES).

1804. First locomotive steam engine, used on the Merthyr Tydfil road in Wales.
February. Conspiracy against life of Bonaparte.
May 18. **Napoleon I.** declared **Emperor of the French.** A hereditary monarchy is thus established. Crowns himself (December 2). Sets up a new nobility, chiefly of successful generals and diplomats. At first is not admitted to the fellowship of " legitimate " European sovereigns. In 1805 takes title of King of Italy.
The German emperor, who is also archduke of Austria, assumes the title of " **Hereditary Emperor of Austria** and King of Bohemia and Hungary." (See AUSTRIA.)
Duke d'Enghien seized outside of France and shot (March 21) on suspicion of complicity in **plots against Napoleon.** Enrages conservative Europe and makes enemies for Napoleon.

1805. Third coalition against France (England, Russia, Austria, Sweden, and Naples) to restore the balance of power. France makes Spain its ally and builds up joint fleet that is defeated by British under Nelson at Trafalgar (Oct. 21, 1805).
October. **Napoleon** breaks loose against coalition: captures Ulm; penetrates Austria, defeats allies **at Austerlitz** (" Battle of Three Emperors "). Thus prevents Prussia from joining and forces a peace. Abandons hope of invading England.
Dec. 26. **Peace of Pressburg** (France and Austria). Venice ceded to Italy, much of Austria to Bavaria, the elector of which is made a king. Formation after this treaty of **Confederation of the Rhine** carries control of the small states of the Holy Roman Empire.

1806–1807. Fourth coalition against France (Prussia, Russia, Great Britain, Sweden). Prussia crushed at Jena and Auerstädt (October 14, 1806). Prussian military system collapses; Napoleon occupies large part of Prussia and enters Berlin (Oct. 27, 1806).

1806. Louis Bonaparte, brother of Napoleon, is made **king of Holland.**
Aug. 6–8. Francis abdicates as " German Emperor," and the **Holy Roman Empire comes to an end** after 1000 years.
Joseph Bonaparte, Napoleon's elder brother, made **king of Naples.** Bourbon court withdraws to Sicily. [1812.]
War between Russia and Turkey. Lasts till
Nov. 21. **Berlin decree** in which Napoleon proclaims a paper blockade of Great Britain and the closing of the Continent to British trade (" Continental system "). Intended to counteract British naval and commercial supremacy (" War of whale and elephant "). Is a reply to British order in council of May 16.

1807–1812. Persistent opposition of the United States to both French and British systems by protests, limitation of commerce, and hints of war.

1807. First successful trial of a steamboat. Fulton's *Clermont* on the Hudson.
Slave trade for English colonies or by English ships forbidden by Act of Parliament, effective March 1, 1809. Secured by a propaganda.
Feb.–June. Battles of **Eylau** and **Friedland.** Deadlock of armies. **Napoleon offers peace.**
July 7–9. **Peace of Tilsit.** Prussia cut down in area and inhabitants. Russia recognizes Napoleonic kingdoms and new duchy of Warsaw (Poland), accepts Continental system, but is encouraged in ambitions to the east and south.
August. Foundation of the **kingdom of Westphalia.** Napoleon's brother Jérôme made king.
November. **Portugal** refuses to accept the Continental system and is **occupied by the French.** King and family take refuge in Brazil.
Dec. 17. **Milan decree,** intensifying the Berlin decree and Continental system at expense of neutrals, esp. United States, which passes an Embargo Act against France and Great Britain. Repealed in 1809.

1808–1812. Revival of Prussia under Stein, who reforms courts, frees serfs, and looks after business. New school system. University at Berlin (1810). Napoleon forces Stein out of public life, recognizing the effectiveness of these reforms.

1808–1811. Revolt of some Spanish colonies in South America (Venezuela, Uruguay, Paraguay, Chile, Buenos Aires, and Mexico). All put down.

1808. Invasion of Spain by Napoleon, who aims at conquest, carrying with it the Spanish colonies. He, therefore, in May seizes the (abdicated) king (Charles IV.) and the heir to the throne, and makes his brother Joseph king of Spain, giving throne of Naples to his brother-in-law, Murat. Napoleon checked by the defeat of his troops in Portugal by a British army (" **Peninsular War** ").
September, October. Assembly of Princes at Erfurt does homage to **Napoleon,** who is **at the zenith of his career.** [ally king) of Sweden.]

1809. Bernadotte becomes prince royal (eventu-
Fifth coalition (England and Austria). British under Sir Arthur Wellesley (later **Duke of Wellington,** " Iron Duke ") push back the French in Portugal and Spain. Austria again ventures war, is defeated at **Wagram** (July 5–6) and forced to accept Peace of Vienna (October 14), making great territorial sacrifices, including the northern coast of the Adriatic. [1817.]
James Madison president of the United States till
Sept. 17. **Peace of Fredrikshamn** (Russia, Sweden). Finland is ceded to Russia; is promised a separate administration.

1810–1812. Special session of the **Spanish Cortes** called at Cádiz, assumes the sovereignty and draws up a **constitution** (completed in 1812).

1810. Several dependencies of France incorporated with the central **French Empire:** Holland, Oldenburg, canton of Valais, some German states, and the Hanseatic cities. 130 departments in France. Continental sovereigns give up jealousy of a self-made monarchy and accept Napoleon as a brother. Emperor of Austria gives his daughter, **Marie Louise,** in marriage to **Napoleon.** France free from land war except in Spain, which proves a terrible drain. Louis, king of Holland, abdicates, rather than consent to ruin of his adopted country.

1811. *March.* **Birth of a son to Napoleon** (" King of Rome "), later Duke of Reichstadt.
Symptoms of **hostility by Napoleon** toward **Russia,** which is weary of the Continental system. British army presses hard on the French in Spain.

1812. Napoleon's campaign in Russia. Grand army of 420,000 men, including contingents from Italy, Germany, and even Prussia and Austria. Crosses Niemen in June. Breaks through Russians with heavy losses (Smolensk, Borodino). **Reaches Moscow** September 14. **Russians burn the city** October 19. **Retreat begins.** Frightful suffering, especially at the crossing of the Berezina; a remnant leaves Russia (December). Three fourths of army lost.
May 28. **Peace of Bucharest.** The Pruth made the boundary between Turkey and Russia; Russia takes parts of Bessarabia and Moldavia.

1813. Bolivar drives the Spaniards from Caracas. Mexico again declares its independence.
Rising of Europe against Napoleon. Feb. 13, appeal of Frederick William III. of Prussia for volunteers. Feb. 28, Treaty of Kalish with Russia. **Prussian people rise.** Landwehr and Landsturm. Order of " Iron Cross " founded. **Napoleon** raises new armies and **accepts war.** England furnishes navy and money. **Sixth coalition** against France (Prussia, Russia, Sweden, Great Britain, Austria) joins in war by land and sea. Leipzig, " **battle of the Nations**" (Oct. 16 and 18). **French defeated,** their kinglets in western Germany flee. **Napoleon forced to cross the Rhine** (October).
June 21. **Wellington wins at Vitoria,** and the French yield most of Spain.
July 5–Oct. 11. Effort to come to an understanding with Napoleon at **Congress of Prague.** That failing, Austria joins the allies (August 12). Great **campaign in central Germany** (battle of Dresden, Aug. 26, 27). Allies unite at Teplitz-Schönau (Sept. 9) in a declaration of purpose to continue war. Bavaria deserts Napoleon (Oct. 5).

1814. *Jan. 1.* Prussian troops with Blücher cross the Rhine, and carry the war **into the French Empire,** which has not seen an invader since 1795.
Jan. 14. **Peace of Kiel** adjusts the relations of the Scandinavian powers, Russia, and England. **Union of Sweden and Norway** as two kingdoms under one monarch.
Feb. 5–March 19. **Congress at Châtillon.** Napoleon offered boundaries of 1792, but refuses.
March 31. **Allies enter Paris.** Senate declares that Napoleon and his family have forfeited the throne, and he is forced to abdicate (April 6). Allies select the island of **Elba** as a principality **for Napoleon,** who goes there May 4.
May. **Return of the Bourbon royal family** and many of the *émigrés,* who expect a restoration of privileges. Spanish Bourbons are also restored.
May 30. (First) Peace of Paris. France retains most of the boundaries of 1792, with some annexations. Most of lost colonies restored.
September. **Congress of Vienna** assembles to reconstruct Europe.

IV. NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD: 1814 TO 1914.

Historical Outline.

THE 19th century, as here considered, practically includes the period from the Congress of Vienna in 1814 to the opening of the World War in 1914. **These hundred years have a unity unusual in history;** the new political, social, and economic conditions separate the period from earlier centuries and lead up to the World War.

The century began with exhaustion and reaction. Europe was weary of the wars of revolutionary France. The Quadruple Alliance against Napoleon was successful not merely in the overthrow of Napoleon, but also in the resistance to the new ideas by the autocracy of France, Austria, Prussia, and Spain. Europe had seen so many sovereigns deposed and set up by France and Napoleon that the only safety for royalty seemed the "principle of legitimacy." Hence, the Holy Alliance, formed by Russia, Prussia, Austria, and eventually France, which developed under the leadership of Count Metternich as a bulwark of conservatism and weapon of repression. Autocracy was strengthened in the countries of the allies; and the Alliance used its power to suppress democratic movements elsewhere. Thus, the revolutions in Italy and in Spain were suppressed by the allies; and for years after the Congress of Vienna the forces of reaction controlled the world.

Even in England, the freest state in Europe, the **policy of suppression** initiated in the previous century continued until 1832. Not until the Reform Bill of that date, which extended the vote to the middle classes, could England be said to have a genuinely popular or democratic government. In the United States, under the influence of the ideas of the Revolution restated by Jefferson, a real democracy was growing up; and the success of federal government was attracting the attention of Europe. The conditions of the whole country, and especially of the West, were favorable to a rough, good-humored, and active popular government, which revealed itself in national affairs by the election of Jackson in 1828.

The year **1830** was ushered in by **revolutions**. In France the Bourbon monarchy came to an end with the abdication of Charles X. and the accession of Louis Philippe, the citizen king, who established a constitutional monarchy of considerable liberalism in France, which lasted until 1848. Another revolution disrupted the artificial kingdom of the Netherlands, which the Congress of Vienna had created. Belgium declared her independence and was recognized as an independent state whose neutrality was guaranteed by the powers. The revolution blazed up far to the eastward in Poland, which the czar of Russia had erected as a separate kingdom united to Russia by personal union. The Poles desired greater liberality and, above all, independence; and they revolted. They were crushed and their country disappeared from the map, continuing only as a Russian province. Revolutions in the parts of Italy held by Austria were easily suppressed and small disturbances in the minor states in Germany were unsuccessful. In England the movements of the period were mostly political.

The 19th century was **an age of inventions.** From the downfall of Napoleon to the outbreak of the World War, greater material changes took place than from the beginning of history to the Napoleonic era. In science, new discoveries were made; new applications of knowledge in medicine and hygiene checked or ended plagues and pestilences which had decimated whole sections of the world. Humanity and sympathy demanded that the sufferings due to poverty, disease, and ignorance should be relieved.

In material progress the **greatest advance was in communication and transportation.** At the beginning of this period the journey from Boston to New York occupied as many days as it now does hours. In Europe large cities lived in fear of starvation because of the impossibility of the transportation of supplies. The transportation of the raw cotton demanded by Manchester manufacturers from Liverpool, only 30 miles away, was often delayed a month. The invention of the steam engine and the building of railways altered these conditions. Moreover, the application of steam to navigation aided the rapid transport of the commerce of the world from one point to another. Danger from famine seemed to disappear and the resources of the whole world could be concentrated at any point and the products of every nation could be exchanged throughout the world.

Communication by steam was supplemented by electricity; and the telephone and telegraph, and later the wireless, made it possible for nations to transfer ideas even more quickly than they exchanged products. The world of thought grew closer and what happened in one country was almost instantaneously known in another. Social, economic, and political ideas became common property.

Machinery, steam, and electricity were applied in other fields. **Industry was revolutionized.** At the beginning of the century it was conducted by means of man or animal power, wind or water, in the homes of the workers. The relation between employer and employee was intimate and constant. With the application of steam came the factory system: transportation brought raw products to centers; power was distributed in great factories employing large numbers of workers. These workers no longer were under the intimate observation of the owner, who now, instead of being an individual, was likely to be a corporation, less in touch with the needs and demands of the workers and more intent on securing profits. The massing of population in industrial centers caused a migration from country districts and the rise of cities in which lived large populations of workmen, too often crowded in inadequate houses.

In 1848 another **series of revolutions** swept over Europe, which, as in 1830, began in France. The monarchy of Louis Philippe gave way to the Second Republic, which was speedily replaced by the Second Empire. Hungary, under Kossuth, revolted from Austria and for a moment enjoyed independence. The Czechs of Bohemia also demanded independence and their demands were temporarily conceded; but Austria, soon regaining her power, suppressed their aspirations. The Austrian provinces of Italy revolted and renounced Austrian control, but the jealousies of the Italians as yet prevented united action, and the Austrian army restored authority.

In Germany the revolutionary movement affected a large number of states. In the Parliament at Frankfurt am Main the attempt was made to establish a German federal union, at the head of which should be the Prussian king; but on his refusal the idea was abandoned for a score of years. Nevertheless, as a result of this movement Prussia and several other German states received constitutions which, by the standards of those days, seemed liberal.

The 19th century was the **period of development of nationalities.** The Congress of Vienna had drawn the map of Europe for the benefit of dynasties, with scant regard to races or peoples. Throughout the century there was a steady revival of nationalism. It was seen in the unsuccessful struggles of Hungary and Bohemia for national independence in 1848. Although Italy, also, failed in 1848 to realize her aspirations, Cavour and Garibaldi succeeded in driving out the Austrians and converting Italy from a geographical expression to a united kingdom in 1861. In 1866 the German states freed themselves from the control of Austria, and under William I. of Prussia founded a strongly nationalistic federal empire.

In southeastern Europe the Balkan peoples, who had suffered for centuries under the oppression of the Turks, struggled successfully for their freedom and founded national states, jealous of one another, whose conflicting claims and relations to their neighbors made a danger spot in Europe. The Poles and Bohemians and other peoples in Austria-Hungary still failed to achieve their legitimate national aspirations. In the Far East Japan opened her doors to Western influence, borrowed what she considered the best from Western culture, and developed a nationality and civilization peculiarly her own. She sought expansion not merely in Korea, but also in China. After defeating China in 1895, she dared to challenge Russia and in the drawn conflict (1905) won not merely Korea, but also recognition as a first-rate power, to be reckoned with in world politics.

The 19th century was **a century of expansion.** During the 18th century Great Britain appropriated much of the French colonial empire, and though she lost some of her own colonies through the successful American Revolution and the establishment of the United States of America, she was more than compensated for this loss by expansion elsewhere. In India she established an empire which in population outranks that of ancient Rome or the Spanish American empire. As in ancient times Rome strove to civilize the peoples conquered by her, so Great Britain tries in India to raise a people of lower standards of living to European conceptions. In Australia and New Zealand the English colonies developed into great self-governing dominions; and in South Africa the British possessions were consolidated and by the conquest of the independent Boer states, the South African Union became the determining factor in that portion of the continent.

This era of colonial expansion was affected by the dismemberment of empires and divisions of continents. The Turkish Empire lost most of its European possessions to the newly formed Balkan states, its African suzerainties to England, Italy, and France. In eastern Europe Russia's ambition to find an outlet to the Mediterranean threatened Turkey's possession of Constantinople and furnished a problem for European diplomacy. The continent of Africa was partitioned among the European states, England, France, Portugal, Belgium, Spain, and later Germany, were rivals for portions of its territory. Twice relations were strained between England and France and twice between Germany and France in this rivalry for African possession. At the close of the century Africa was practically divided among the great states of Europe.

Russia, unable to obtain Constantinople, sought expansion to the east, and having acquired Siberia and Central Asia attempted to dominate Manchuria and Korea and thus came in conflict with Japan. The vast Chinese Empire at times seemed on the point of disintegration and about to suffer the fate of Africa and be partitioned among the powers. Only mutual jealousy and rivalries and the inertia of China itself seemed to prevent. Even the United States sought expansion, and by her war with Spain put an end to Spain's once vast colonial empire and acquired Porto Rico and the Philippines, thus becoming a world power with interests no longer confined to the Western Hemisphere.

The artificial boundaries of European states, which ignored nationalities, and the rivalry in expansion, fomented natural jealousies. Prussia had reached supremacy in Germany and expected to dominate Europe through military force. The success of the military system of Prussia compelled other states to adopt similar systems. Almost everywhere throughout Europe, save in England, military service was compulsory, and vast standing armies were maintained at ruinous cost.

The inventions of the age outran the realm of industry, and nations vied with each other in the production of new and more terrible means of destruction. With the development of colonial empires overseas came the necessity of navies to protect these far-distant possessions. Thus developed a rivalry in military and naval equipment which threatened to bankrupt the less prosperous states and burden industry with a crushing load of taxes. Moreover, the possession of such military equipment affected the tone of international intercourse, and the threat of force was too often ill concealed by the words of diplomacy.

In 1899 the nations met at The **Hague** in a **conference.** This was called by the czar of Russia for the purpose of attempting to check the increase of armaments and to devise methods of maintaining peace. It was unsuccessful in its attempt to limit military preparations, but devised a scheme of arbitration with a permanent voluntary court which was of some use in settling international disputes. A second **Hague Conference** was held in 1907 which, although it still failed to limit armaments and to provide for compulsory arbitration, did accomplish much in the codification of military law and the establishment of rules for what, as was vainly hoped, would be more humane modes of warfare.

The **great world nations** were engaged not only in colonial **rivalry** and the race for military preparedness, but also in economic rivalry, and vast revenue was needed to support the burdens of the colonial empires and the military establishments. National industries were stimulated by protective tariffs, while each nation sought to market its products in the territories of others. Competition and trade rivalries characterized the last two decades of the period. In the countries less commercially developed, such as China, outside nations sought exclusive privileges; and even in highly developed states they attempted, often by discreditable methods, to gain commercial advantage.

The **economic rivalry of the nations** reacted upon the industrial conditions in each state. The factory systems based on capitalism were pushed to their extreme limit. In protest there developed a school of thought which denied the very foundation of the capitalistic system. The **socialists,** originating in the early decades of the 19th century, were successful, not in establishing their theoretical socialist state, but in forcing the governments of most states to mitigate some of the more obvious evils of the capitalistic system. Not content with such results, in many states the socialists became a political party, which in a few cases held the majority in the legislature.

Outside the theoretical socialist movement, **labor organized into unions** and, at first little touched by socialist doctrine, sought by negotiation and strikes to improve its condition. Single unions were gradually combined into national unions and these in turn into great federations. The "general strike" at the end of the century was held in reserve as an ultimate method of obtaining not simply industrial

reforms, but, as in Russia, of extorting political and constitutional changes.

The last years of the century saw a revival of the nationalistic movement of the mid-century. The Czechs and the Poles were restive under the control of Austria and Russia. In Russia, the nationalistic movement of the autocracy attempted the Russification of all the included nationalities, and was met by rival nationalistic movements in Finland, Poland, the Baltic Provinces, and the Ukraine.

In Asia, China succeeded in throwing off the centuries-long control of the Manchus, and a republic was established. Japan was becoming more conscious of her power and less ready to submit to European dictation in Asiatic questions. The Balkan states, in a temporary union, deprived Turkey of her European possessions up to Constantinople, and each state hoped for a union of the members of its nationality in a single state.

In 1914 England was distracted over the Irish question, and seemed for the moment unable to solve the labor problem. Russia was in the throes of a general strike. The Balkans were dissatisfied with the results of their war with Turkey and distrustful of Austria. **The German Empire,** alone, seemed at the height of its prosperity and strength; and in 1914 Germany **attempted to gain world control.**

Chronology.

HOLY-ALLIANCE ERA.

1814–1815. Congress of Vienna to reconstruct Europe after the Napoleonic wars; starting point of present-day international relations. A congeries rather than a congress; final act, June 9, 1815, merely codifies the treaties between the various states; result, a patchwork that violates the principle of the Congress, "legitimacy," and also the opposing principles of nationalism and liberalism. France reduced to boundaries of 1792; Russia augmented by Finland (from Sweden), part of Prussian Poland, and Turkish territory. Prussia loses part of Poland but gains part of Saxony, Pomerania (from Sweden), and Rhine territory. Austria gains compactness by giving up her Netherlands and gets part of northern Italy (Lombardy and Venetia), Illyria, and some extension into the Alps. Great Britain increases her colonial empire. These additions are at the expense of smaller states; but Sweden receives Norway from Denmark, and Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) is united to Holland. Italy is left as 10 states with Austria dominating and the republics abolished. Various German princes are "mediatized," and a loose confederation of 38 states formed, with the presidency in Austria.

1814–1850. Prohibition of the slave trade by all civilized nations. Previously (1807) by England and United States. Urged in Congress of Vienna. Abolition of slavery in British Colonies (1833); takes effect 1838. Abolition in French colonies (1848). Also by Latin American states. Controversy of Quintuple Treaty (1841); Joint Cruising Convention of U. S. and England (1842). **Era of improved transportation** in the United States. Turnpikes, especially the Cumberland Road (1820); canals, especially Erie Canal (1825); steamboats on lakes and rivers, clipper ships on the sea. Beginning of railroads and ocean steamers.

1814–1860. Development of **factory system** in Europe and U. S. and constant improvement of machinery and processes. Cheap iron makes cheap machinery possible. **Division of Labor** increases product. Cheap transportation brings raw materials together and distributes manufactured goods. Opening up of virgin lands furnishes new materials and enlarges food products.

1814–1854. Change in **colonial conditions** of the world. The Spanish and Portuguese empires break up in America. Great Britain gives responsible government to the large colonies settled by Englishmen. Colonial trade is opened up. France expands in Africa and Great Britain in the East and in North America.

1815. For Napoleon's escape from Elba, his triumphal entry into Paris, the **"Hundred Days,"** and the battle of Waterloo, see FRANCE.

Sept. 26. **Holy Alliance** formed by Austria, Prussia, and Russia, and later acceded to by most of Europe; a proclamation of government by Christian ideas, due to the pietism of the czar, but popularly connected with the repression which develops. This reaction is the work of the **Quadruple Alliance** (*four powers*), formed with England by treaty of November 20, to prevent by concert and annual congresses a renewal of the liberal ideas of the French Revolution. **Metternich,** Austrian minister, is the leader of the system of reaction and absolutism.

Nov. 20. Neutrality of Switzerland is guaranteed by a convention at Paris signed by the four powers, also by France and Portugal.

1818. Stethoscope invented.

1819. Discovery of **electro magnetism** by Oersted. Leads to many mechanical appliances.

1820–1850. Middle Nineteenth Century period of American literature: *Historians,* Bancroft, Prescott, Parkman, Motley; *Statesmen,* Webster, Clay, Calhoun, Lincoln; *Novelists,* Cooper, Irving, Hawthorne, Poe, Harriet Beecher Stowe; *Poets,* Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Emerson; *Travels,* R. H. Dana, Kane, Frémont; *Social Reformers,* Dorothea Dix, William Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips, Neal Dow, John B. Gough, Theodore Parker, William Ellery Channing; *Journalists,* James Gordon Bennett, Horace Greeley; *Divines,* Lyman Beecher, Horace Bushnell, Charles G. Finney, Henry Ward Beecher.

1820. Use of **anthracite coal** begins (Pennsylvania). Bituminous coal first used for smelting iron in 1837.

October. Liberal revolutions having taken place in Spain and Naples (the Two Sicilies) and an outbreak in Portugal, the Congress of Troppau of the **five allied powers** (France having joined in 1818) adopts principle of **intervention,** though France and Great Britain do not support the measure.

1820–1860. Era of emigration from Europe, especially to the United States. Smaller streams to Canada, Australia, and South America. Stimulated by Irish famine of 1846 and German revolution of 1848.

1821. Alliance commissions Austria to **restore absolutism in Naples,** which is done. A constitutional revolution in Piedmont (kingdom of Sardinia) is overthrown by the same means.

March. **Greek revolution** begins, countenanced by Europe, notwithstanding "legitimacy."

1823. Under the decision (November, 1822) of the Congress of Verona, a French army restores absolutism in Spain; Great Britain protests. A further congress is proposed to consider the regaining for **Spain** of her **revolted colonies in America.** Canning, British foreign secretary, negotiates with United States for mutual opposition to this; France eventually, on October 9, gives assurance of nonintervention.

Dec. 2. Enunciation of the **Monroe Doctrine** (see UNITED STATES); a warning to Europe that America is outside the European sphere and any intervention would be resisted by the United States. Holy Alliance has thus passed its zenith.

1827. *July 6.* **Treaty of London** between Great Britain, Russia, and France demanding from Turkey that she erect Greece (in revolt, see GREECE) into an autonomous state. Turkey refuses and naval battle of **Navarino** takes place, October 20. Later, Russia and France send armies, but England vacillates. Greek independence is won by these three of the members of the Alliance acting in direct contravention of its policy. Beginning of the **Near-East question** in European diplomacy.

ERA OF EUROPEAN REVOLUTIONS.

1830–1900. Period of Russian novelists: Gogol, Goncharov, Dostoevski, Turgenev, Count Tolstoy.

Later Nineteenth Century period of German literature: Heine, Scheffel, Freytag, Mommsen, Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm, Storm, Heyse, Dahn, Wildenbruch, Sudermann, Hauptmann.

Italian literature of the Nineteenth Century: Manzoni, Leopardi, Silvio Pellico.

1830–1890. Victorian Age of English literature: *Poetry* — Tennyson, Browning, Mrs. Browning, Arnold, Swinburne, Morris; *Prose* — Carlyle, Macaulay, Ruskin, Arnold, Newman, Pater, Borrow; Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Hardy, Meredith, Kingsley, the Brontës, Trollope; *Scientists* — Darwin, Spencer, Tyndall, Huxley, Wallace.

1830–1880. French poets and prose writers not affected by the Romantic movement: Béranger, Guizot, Tocqueville, Thiers, Michelet, Cousin, Taine, Sainte-Beuve.

French Romantic school: Lamartine, Victor Hugo, Gautier, Vigny, Musset, Dumas *père,* George Sand.

1830–1860. Humanitarian movement in Europe and America. Agitation against imprisonment for debt, cruel treatment of prisoners and insane, slavery and slave trade; for women's rights, education, freedom of labor, and temperance. Carried on by societies, public meetings, literature, press, and petitions to legislatures.

Introduction of **agricultural machinery,** particularly horse mower invented by McCormick (1834) and horse reaper, improved plows, great improvements in cotton gins.

Era of household inventions, mostly in United States. Matches, modern cookstoves, sewing machines (patented by Howe in 1846), gas, rubber. These conveniences spread from the United States to other countries. Development of **mechanical inventions,** especially saw-mill and wood-working machinery; turbine water wheel (1834), rotary printing presses (invented by Hoe). Large factories, banks, and transportation carried on by **incorporated companies.** Profitable **fur trade** in West.

1830–1850. Transcendental movement in New England: Emerson, Thoreau, Margaret Fuller, Dana, Higginson.

1830. Revolutions in France, Poland, Italy, and Germany, and Belgium revolts from Holland. Members of the Alliance too busy at home to intervene elsewhere.

Beginning of French conquest of Algeria; it revives imperialistic spirit in France.

1831. *May 21.* Conference of the five powers (see 1820, above) at Rome orders the pope to carry out reforms in his dominions, following restoration of order there and elsewhere in Italy by Austria.

Nov. 15. Convention of London by the five powers guarantees **neutrality of Belgium.**

1832–1836. Epidemics of **cholera.**

1832. On renewal of revolt in Papal States both France and Austria send armies, but in opposition instead of in alliance.

First street railway in the world opened between City Hall and Fourteenth St., New York City.

1833. *Kalevala,* national epic of Finland, first collected and published. Ancient legends and songs orally transmitted.

March 22. Formal organization of the **Zollverein,** which becomes the entering wedge of German unity.

Sept. 18. At the Convention of Münchengrätz, Austria, Prussia, and Russia guarantee integrity of Turkish Empire; a revival by the three absolutist powers of the principles of the Alliance.

1837. Commercial panic in United States. Interest stopped on many State bonds held in Europe. Principal repudiated by some States.

1839. Daguerreotypes invented by Daguerre in France. First automatic sun pictures.

April 19. Further treaty guaranteeing neutrality of Belgium signed by the five powers.

1840. Opium War in China; based on principle that China must be forced to trade with Western nations (see CHINA).

July 15. Convention of London signed by four powers (France excluded) to check advance of Mehemet Ali against Turkey (see TURKEY). Mehemet Ali is driven back to Egypt.

1841. *July 13.* At London the four powers sign with Turkey the **Straits Convention,** sustaining the sultan's policy of closing the Dardanelles and Bosporus to foreign warships when the Porte is at peace.

Dec. 20. **Quintuple Treaty** signed at London by the powers for mutual right of search, which was intended to break up the slave trade. Strongly criticized by Cass, minister of the United States to France.

1846. *Nov. 6.* Republic of **Cracow** incorporated by Austria with acquiescence of Russia and Prussia; a violation of the principles of the Congress of Vienna against which France and Great Britain protest.

1848. Discovery of gold in California; followed in 1850 by similar discovery in Australia. Revolutionizes the use of specie as a basis of currency and trade.

February–March. Revolutions in France, Italy, Germany, and Austria-Hungary; overthrow of Metternich, March 13. Revolts, except that in France, all put down; Third Republic established there. Evident that such a thing as the Holy Alliance is no longer possible for Europe in general; and little is left of the work of the Congress of Vienna as a European policy except the territorial settlements, which gall Poland and Italy. Immigration of educated Germans to the United States of America.

1848–1853. People of the United States show warm interest in the revolutions in Europe and the attempts to form republics (Koszta incident; visit of Kossuth; Huelsemann incident). Do not go beyond sympathy.

1849. Russia comes to the aid of Austria and reduces Hungary, where declaration of independence was being sustained.

1850–1920. Renaissance of Spanish prose literature, particularly the novel: Fernán Caballero, Alarcón, Pereda, Valera, Pérez, Galdós, Palacio Valdés, Pardo Bazán, Blasco Ibáñez, Pío Baroja.

1850–1900. French novelists of Naturalist school: Balzac, Stendhal, Flaubert, Mérimée, Zola, Daudet, Maupassant, Anatole France.

Scandinavian literary men: Ibsen (*Peer Gynt* 1867; *Doll's House* 1879); Björnson (*Sigurd the Crusader* 1873; *The King* 1879).

1850. McClintock, English explorer, demonstrates continuous **"Northwest Passage"** (obstructed by ice) around the north of North America. Returns, 1854.

1851. *May 1.* **World Exhibition** opened in Hyde Park, **London.** First of the great world exhibitions of which many have since taken place.

1852. Revival of the Napoleonic empire in France, following the *coup d'état* of 1851 (Napoleon "Third," "Emperor of the French"; nationalistic ideals), and recognition of the emperor by the powers contravene the results of the Congress of Vienna in part, but as a reaction from the socialistic elements of the Revolution of 1848 in other respects support principles of the congress.

EUROPEAN-WAR ERA.

1854. *March 12.* Alliance of France and Great Britain to aid Turkey in war with Russia; French reasons largely personal; British, imperial and commercial. (See TURKEY for Crimean War). Piedmont (Sardinia) joins the alliance later to get a " place in the sun " and good will of allies.

Oct. 18. Ostend Manifesto drawn up by representatives of United States relative to Cuba.

Dec. 8. **Dogma of Immaculate Conception** promulgated by the Pope.

1855. **Bessemer** process for **steel making** is patented Grows slowly. Introduced into the United States about 1867. Makes possible steel rails, ships, and buildings. [Panama Railroad.]

Jan. 28. First train from ocean to ocean by the

1856. *March 30.* **Treaty of Paris** ends Crimean War. First general congress since Vienna; attended by the five great powers, Piedmont, and Turkey. Turkey admitted to the European concert; her territorial integrity guaranteed; besides boundary adjustments, treaty neutralizes the Black Sea and establishes free navigation of the Danube.

April 16. The congress makes **declaration on naval warfare** that advances international law: privateering is abolished; neutral flag covers enemy's goods not contraband; neutral goods not contraband safe under enemy flag; blockade must be effective. United States declines to join because capture of private property at sea is not prohibited. [CHINA).]

1857. Anglo-French expedition against China (see Adjustment of long-pending controversy with Denmark over the Sound dues. United States active in the settlement.

Commercial panic in United States and Europe, — caused in the United States by overbuilding railroads and speculation. Slow recovery.

Aug. 5. **First Atlantic cable** laid from United States to Great Britain. Breaks immediately. Relaid in 1858; messages pass in August, but ceases to work. A successful cable laid in July, 1866.

1858. Building of steamship **Great Eastern.** First large iron steamer (20,000 tons); arrives in New York in 1860, is never profitable because not properly engined.

Sources of the Nile (Victoria Nyanza) discovered by Speke and Grant, English explorers.

July 21. Conference at Plombières-les-Bains between Napoleon III. and **Cavour,** Piedmontese minister; the emperor agrees to assist in driving Austria out of Italy upon proper pretext, in return for cession of Savoy and Nice.

1859. Publication of **Darwin's** *Origin of Species.* Classic of the theory of " natural selection."

April. **Cavour goads Austria into** beginning **the war** (see ITALY). Napoleon takes an army to assist Piedmont, but on July 11 concludes an armistice far short of his promise to Cavour (Lombardy alone ceded by Austria), because he is uncertain of fuller success, fearful of creating too strong a state in Italy, and disturbed because Prussia is mobilizing on the Rhine. He yields right to receive Savoy and Nice.

1860–1909. Later Nineteenth Century period of **American literature:** Whitman, Taylor, Aldrich, Howells, Bret Harte, Crawford, Fiske, Parkman, Burroughs, Mark Twain, Henry James.

1860. Petroleum deposits, long known in northwestern Pennsylvania, are opened up commercially. Beginning of a great industry.

March–June. **First Japanese mission** to a Western country, comes to the United States.

March 11, 12. Plebiscites in Modena, Parma, Tuscany, and Romagna (part of Papal States), favor annexation to Piedmont. Great Britain favors it and Napoleon permits it, getting, March 24, Savoy and Nice as price for so doing, though by this he alienates England, while the Italians resent the earlier armistice as well and factions at home oppose the participation in Italian affairs

Nov. 4–5. The Marches and Umbria of the Papal States vote to join Piedmont Napoleon, who has an army at Rome, agrees, provided Rome and the " patrimony " be left to the pope.

1861. *March 3* (*N S*). Imperial ukase in **Russia** assures the **freedom of** the agricultural **serfs.** Takes effect gradually.

March 17. Following the conquest of Naples (Garibaldi's " Thousand " in Two Sicilies), the new kingdom of **Italy** is proclaimed over all the peninsula except Rome and Venetia. This unification overthrows territorial settlement of Congress of Vienna, and by adding another to the five European powers (see 1820, above) requires a **readjustment of balance of power.** Italian unity greatly influences Germany, where Prussia acts as Piedmont and **Bismarck** leads like Cavour. Bismarck's problem is to achieve German unity in the face of Austria and France.

April 14. **Civil War** breaks out in the **United States.** Leads at once to difficulties with Great Britain and France as to contraband trade, blockade, Confederate cruisers, and recognition.

Oct. 31. Treaty of London by Great Britain, Spain, and France for **coercion of Mexico** in behalf of foreign bondholders, advantage being taken of Civil War in United States. Expedition sent, but England and Spain withdraw, as France clearly intends to overthrow Mexican republic (see MEXICO). In 1866 United States forces withdrawal of French troops and empire established by them falls. Loss of money, men, and prestige, and preoccupation during the time of Prussian aggrandizement eventually destroy Napoleon.

1862. Second **International Exhibition,** again held in **London.**

1863. *Jan. 1.* **Proclamation of Emancipation** of slaves in the rebellious parts of the United States, by President Lincoln.

Feb. 8. Convention for Prussian support of Russia against Polish revolt, thereby gaining Russia's neutrality in her own plans. Great Britain, France, and Austria protest but attempt no intervention.

1864. Austro-Prussian war on Denmark caused by Schleswig-Holstein (see DENMARK), into which Bismarck has led Austria as a step toward the contest for leadership in central Europe. Conference of powers at London accomplishes no adjustment. By treaty of October 30, Denmark reluctantly renounces the duchies in favor of Prussia and Austria.

Aug. 22. Geneva Convention for the amelioration of the condition of wounded in time of war (**Red Cross Convention**), framed by 12 countries and joined by most of the other nations later. Early example of international coöperation.

1865. *Aug. 14.* Treaty of Gastein: Austria and Prussia to retain joint ownership of the duchies, but Prussia to administer Schleswig and Austria Holstein.

October. Meeting of Napoleon and Bismarck at Biarritz; Bismarck satisfies himself that he can proceed against Austria without fear of French intervention.

December. **Slavery abolished** altogether **in the United States** by 13th Constitutional Amendment.

1866–1890. Commercial panics: England, 1866; United States, 1873; Australia and Argentina, 1890.

1866. *April 8.* Prusso-Italian alliance against Austria. Bismarck then picks a quarrel with Austria over administration of the duchies, and Austria causes German Diet to vote forces against Prussia.

June 16–July 26. **Seven Weeks' War** of Prussia and Italy against Austria and other German states (see AUSTRIA). Bismarck hastens peace for fear of intervention by France, the chance for which Napoleon lets slip. Italy is given Venetia; Prussia annexes Schleswig-Holstein and various German states; the German Confederation is abolished and in its place rises the **North German Confederation** of 22 states north of the Main, under Prussian leadership.

1867. Prussia becomes **dominant power** of central Europe, and a war with France is considered by Bismarck necessary to the firm unification of Germany. Napoleon demands compensation in Luxemburg and on the Rhine, Prussia to be repaid at expense of southern German states. Bismarck discloses the demand to these states, who form military alliance with the Confederation.

Completion of Suez Canal by de Lesseps for a French company; formally opened in 1869. British government buys control of canal in 1875; and occupies Egypt (1882).

April–November. **World's Fair at Paris.** Exposition of industry of all nations.

May 11. Convention of London by the six powers (see 1861, above) and Belgium and the Netherlands guarantees the neutrality of Luxemburg.

1868. First Chinese mission (Burlingame) to the United States and Europe.

1869. *May 10.* Through rail connection from the Atlantic to the Pacific (" **transcontinental** ") made at Promontory Point, Utah.

1870–1914. Polish literature: Sienkiewicz (*With Fire and Sword*, 1890; *Quo Vadis?* 1895), only author widely known outside of Poland.

1870. Completion of sub-Alpine tunnel of Mont Cenis; followed by St. Gothard (1882) and Simplon (1906).

July 18. Ecumenical Council of the Roman Catholic Church accepts dogma of **infallibility of the Pope** (" in matters of faith and morals.")

July 19. **French declaration of war on Prussia,** brought about by Hohenzollern candidacy for the Spanish throne and Bismarck's condensation of the Ems dispatch (see FRANCE).

France is isolated; Great Britain declares neutrality, Austria and Italy are blocked, France and Prussia (July 15, 16) give assurances of respecting neutrality of Belgium and Luxemburg.

Sept. 20. French troops being withdrawn from Rome, Italians capture the city, completing their **unification** except as to the Trentino and Trieste (" *Italia irredenta* ").

Oct. 31. Russia announces that she considers herself no longer bound to observe the neutralization of the Black Sea; a " scrap of paper " action which Bismarck supports, Russia in return prevents Austria and Italy from aiding France.

1871. *Jan. 18.* **German Empire** is proclaimed at Versailles.

May 10. Peace of Frankfurt; France forced to cede **Alsace-Lorraine** (French since the time of Louis XIV.) to Germany, a loss which keeps alive French resentment.

May 15. **Treaty of London** between the signatories of the treaty of 1856, accepts Russia's denunciation of neutrality of Black Sea, and covers the violation of the treaty by declaring (January 17) that treaty engagements cannot be denounced or modified by contracting powers without consent or understanding of other signatories.

RECONSTRUCTION OF EUROPE.

1872. *August. Dreikaiserbund* (Three Emperors' League) formed informally by Austria, Germany, and Russia; but soon after Russia and Prussia form a defensive alliance secretly without Austria.

1873. World Exposition at Vienna. [tablished.]

1874. *Oct. 7.* **International postal system** es-

1875. Germany, alarmed at France's rapid recovery, seems bent upon another war, but Russia disapproves and greatly weakens her alliance with Germany.

Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures published by Mary Baker Glover (Eddy).

1876. Development of **electrical industry.** Telephone invented by Graham Bell, 1876. Electric light (principle discovered by Davy in 1800), applied by Edison, 1879, electric welding, 1881. Trolley cars, 1884 (Kansas City and Cleveland). Phonograph, 1877; later perfected by Edison and others.

Centennial Exposition (hundredth anniversary of independence) held at Philadelphia. Makes Americans acquainted with many inventions and processes.

Exploration of **Central Africa** by Henry M. Stanley. Locates the source of the Congo River.

July 8. Secret convention of Reichstadt between Austria and Russia on united policy and action in the war then going on between Turkey and Serbia and Montenegro (see SERBIA, under JUGO-SLAVIA); result temporarily frustrated by Turkish success.

Dec. 23. Conference of the powers begins at Constantinople to force reforms on the Porte; fails, and Russia is left to carry out her threat of war (see TURKEY). For his own purposes Bismarck agrees to the plan, and the Austro-Russian convention is renewed, January, 1877.

1878. International Exposition at Paris; followed by another in 1889 and another in 1900.

March 3. Preliminary peace of San Stefano forced by Russia on Turkey following their war (see TURKEY); Russia disregards Austrian convention, and Vienna and London suggest a congress of the powers on the Eastern Question.

June 4. Anglo-Turkish defensive alliance; in exchange for the occupation of Cyprus and promise of reforms in Asia Minor, England agrees to prevent further expansion of Russia there. No reforms carried out.

July 13. **Treaty of Berlin** signed by the powers and Turkey, reducing Russian gains and attempting a further solution of the Near-East problem (see TURKEY).

1879. First electric train: operated in Berlin.

Foundation of French company under de Lesseps for construction of **Panama Canal.** Work begins, 1881. Company fails and work stops, 1889; work resumed 1897; canal and rights sold to United States, 1904.

Russia's resentment of Bismarck's policy at the Congress of Berlin leads to a rupture of the Three Emperors' League.

Oct. 7. Secret **Austro-German defensive alliance,** directed primarily against Russia and secondarily against France; lasts until World War.

1880–1920. Twentieth Century of English literature: Morley, Kipling, Stevenson, Barrie, Conrad, Chesterton, Benson, Wells, Masefield, Galsworthy, Bennett, Shaw.

1880–1914. Modern French and Belgian writers: Rostand, Anatole France, Coppée, Claretie, Pierre Loti, Bazin, Brunetière, Maeterlinck.

1882. First observance of Labor Day (N.Y. City).

May 22. Formation of the **Triple Alliance** by admission of Italy to the Austro-German defensive league, Italy being alienated from France by the Tunis affair and other affairs.

1883. Application of storage batteries to producing power. First practical use of this principle.

1884. Pasteur's serum for rabies. First use of this means of combating germ diseases.

Completion of **Brooklyn Bridge** from New York; first crossing of **East River.**

Greenwich accepted as the international prime meridian by a conference at Washington.

March 21. Secret formal revival of the *Dreikaiserbund* (Three Emperors' League), which, with the Triple Alliance, completely isolates France. Russia not really in sympathy.

1885. **Revised Version of the English Bible,** based on King James Version of 1611. Is never adopted by the British or American Protestant churches.

Feb. 26. General act of the Congo Conference (see BELGIUM), framed by 12 European nations and the United States; first participation of the American power in such a congress, it being understood that her interests are commercial only and in no wise concerned with African politics.

Sept. 18. Eastern Roumelia is united with Bulgaria, contrary to the Treaty of Berlin. Serbia declares war on Bulgaria and is quickly defeated, but is rescued from invasion by threats from Austria. The powers do not insist upon the observance of the treaty.

1887. On the expiration of the Three Emperors' League **Russia** refuses to renew it, resenting Balkan events; but makes a secret alliance with Germany for three years more. During this period the alienation from Germany becomes complete, the alliance is dropped in 1890, and the **entente with France** advances. This is encouraged by French loans to Russia and develops into a formal alliance, but not acknowledged for several years.

1888. *Oct. 29.* **Suez Canal Convention** at Constantinople by the six powers, Netherlands, Spain, and Turkey; neutralization, but Great Britain, controlling the canal, does not agree to it until April 8, 1904; and it does not prevent British ownership and operation or the blocking of the canal to Germany in the World War.

1889. **First Pan-American Congress** (Washington). Followed by second at Mexico City (1901), third at Rio de Janeiro (1906), and fourth at Buenos Aires (1910).

International **Exposition** at Paris.

Bridge over the **Forth** in Scotland completed; **longest spans** in the world.

1890–1929. Great **irrigation works** in U. S. (especially Roosevelt Dam, 1910). The system opens up lands for tillage and furnishes water power which is transformed into electricity and carried long distances.

1890. *July 1.* Anglo-German treaty by which England cedes **Helgoland** to Germany in exchange for concessions in Africa. Germany fortifies this island, which is of great strategic importance and becomes a menace to British naval control during the World War.

July 2. **Brussels Convention** for the repression of the African slave trade; signed by 13 European nations, United States, Congo Free State, and Zanzibar, and acceded to later by Abyssinia, Persia, and Orange Free State. United States ratifies with reservations — no political interest in Africa.

1891. *Aug. 22.* Secret **Franco-Russian alliance** signed.

1894–1896. Armenian massacres (see ARMENIA). Powers unable to agree upon any effective action. British policy is checked by German intrigue with Turkey.

1894. **Argon discovered;** an unexpected element; revolutionizes conceptions of chemistry.

Kiel Canal from North Sea to Baltic completed by Germany. Officially opened June 21, 1895.

1895. *May.* Intervention of Russia, Germany, and France in the Chino-Japanese peace treaty, on the plea of preserving the integrity of Chinese territory; Japan prevented from gathering the fruits of her victory.

1896–1897. Cretan revolt and Turko-Greek war (see GREECE). Powers, hopelessly split on the Balkan question, warn Greece not to expect any aid; but after Greek defeat Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia (Austria and Germany, Turkey's supporters, holding aloof) arrange an autonomous government for Crete (1898).

1896. Revival of ancient **Olympian games** by a score of countries at Athens.

Gold discovered on the **Klondike,** a branch of the Yukon River, in British Canadian territory.

1897–1898. European seizures of territory in China, followed (1899) by the announcement of the American policy of the " open door " (see CHINA).

1898. **Radium** and **polonium** discovered by the Curies, husband and wife, in Paris. Beginning of great chemical advance.

1899. Beginning of **Assuan Dam** in Egypt, to aid in irrigation of Egypt.

Modern system of **wireless telegraphy** in operation between England and France. First message across the Atlantic in 1902.

PRELIMINARIES OF WAR.

1899. *May 18–July 29.* **First Peace Conference at The Hague,** suggested by the czar on August 24, 1898. Delegates from 26 states attend, including nearly all European states, China, Japan, Persia, Siam, Mexico, and the United States, which is very active. Four conventions are adopted on July 29: (1) for the pacific settlements of international disputes by voluntary means; (2) prohibition of launching of projectiles from aircraft; (3) adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention; (4) amelioration of laws and conditions of war on land. Germany is chiefly instrumental in blocking any form of compulsory arbitration.

1900. Boxer rising (see CHINA). United States participates in rescuing the diplomats.

International **Exposition at Paris.**

Count **Zeppelin** successful in flight in a dirigible balloon, or airship.

1901. **Pan-American Exposition** at Buffalo.

Second Pan-American Congress at Mexico City.

South Carolina and West Indian **Exposition at Charleston.**

1902. *Jan. 30.* Anglo-Japanese defensive alliance (see JAPAN) brings **Japan** definitely into European connection, her participation in the Boxer suppression having been an earlier step in this direction.

April. **Rhodes** legacy for **scholarships** in English universities for Americans and others — to cultivate good feeling.

December. Coercion of Venezuela (see VENEZUELA) primarily an excuse by Germany for interference in South American politics; checked by attitude of United States.

1903. *March 5.* Turkish convention for construction of the **Bagdad Railway** under German auspices (" Berlin to Bagdad "); a phase of German policy to control the Near East and Middle Europe as an offset to the colonial empires of the other powers. Turkey falls completely under German influence.

1904. Subway in **New York** City opened.

March. First **tunnel under the Hudson River** completed from New York to Jersey City.

April 8 **Anglo-French** agreements on Morocco and Egypt and all other outstanding questions mark the beginning of the **entente cordiale** (see *Great Britain*, under BRITISH EMPIRE). Russia's reverses in the Japanese War have left France again unprotected. Egyptian-Morocco agreement has a secret clause for mutual aid in case a third nation (Germany) attempts to disturb the arrangement.

Oct. 3. France-Spanish agreement on Morocco, with a secret clause similar to the above.

1905. *March 31.* Emperor William's speech at Tangier, declaring the sultan of Morocco an absolutely independent sovereign, is a direct challenge of the Anglo-French and Franco-Spanish agreements, which Germany had hitherto accepted in principle. France not in a position to challenge Germany's demand for a voice in all such arrangements.

June 8. Roosevelt's offer of his good offices to end the Russo-Japanese War (see JAPAN) is a further step in American participation in general diplomacy, begun at the Congo Conference and advanced by the participation in Chinese affairs.

1906. **Red Cross Convention** ratified by the U. S.

Third Pan-American Congress at Rio de Janeiro

April 7. **Algeciras Convention** by the six powers, Belgium, Spain, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal, and United States, a result of Germany's demands. It provides for the " open door " and leaves the control over Morocco nominally international but actually with France and Spain under conditions practically unworkable, especially against German intrigue with the sultan. The United States, specially invited by the emperor, is responsible for the decision, which is unfavorable to Germany.

July 6. Further Red Cross Convention.

1907. *June 15–Oct. 18.* Second Hague Peace Conference, attended by delegates of 21 European, 19 American, and 4 Asiatic nations. United States again prominent. Fourteen conventions are adopted on: (1) pacific settlement of disputes and permanent court of arbitration; (2) nonemployment of force to recover contract debts (Drago doctrine); (3) opening of hostilities; (4) amelioration of war on land; (5) right and duties of neutrals in war on land; (6) limitation on use of marine mines and torpedoes; (7) naval bombardment; (8) adaptation of Geneva Convention to naval warfare; (9) right of captures in naval warfare; (10) international prize court; (11) rights and duties of neutrals in naval war; (12) prohibition of discharge of projectiles from aircraft; (13) status of enemy merchant ships at outbreak of hostilities; (14) conversion of merchant ships into war ships. A final act registers the Conference as uniting unanimously on the desirability of the principle of compulsory arbitration. The conventions for lessening the horrors of war are repeatedly violated during the World War (1914–1918).

Aug. 18. **Anglo-Russian treaty** over spheres in Asia, the only matter in which the interests of the two powers directly clash. This announces a *rapprochement* similar to the Anglo-French one and of a tripartite **entente cordiale.** No formal treaty of alliance is made.

1908. *October.* Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Bulgaria declares her complete independence; both violations of the Treaty of Berlin and the declaration of 1871. Serbia protests, but signatories of that treaty are now divided; England and France unwilling to go to extremes, Germany supporting Austria, and Russia forced to yield because not equal to a great war. The violations are formally condoned in 1909.

1909. **Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition** at Seattle, Washington.

Feb. 9. Franco-German agreement on Morocco; recognition of French permanent interest at the price of joint economic control; a violation of the " open door " and fruitful of further controversy.

Feb. 26. **Convention of London** on regulation of **naval warfare;** suggested and called by Great Britain; framed by delegates of Germany, Austria, Spain, France, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, Russia, United States, and Japan; signed by the British authorities; their assent then withdrawn by a technicality in the British Parliament, and never put in operation; its principles nullified during the World War.

April 6. **Peary** discovers the **North Pole.**

1910. *July.* **Fourth Pan-American Congress** at Buenos Aires.

1911. *April.* France sends a force to Fez to restore order, and Spain occupies a part of Morocco. On July 1 Germany announces intention to send a warship to Morocco (**Agadir affair**), and international complications are renewed, involving England and also other African possessions. Matters are quieted on November 4 by a Franco-German treaty, admitting French protectorate in Morocco but ceding to Germany a portion of French Equatorial Africa. People of neither nation satisfied; Caillaux, French premier, later accused of playing into German hands.

Sept. 29. Italy suddenly declares war on Turkey for the possession of Tripoli (see ITALY), and is permitted by the powers to work her will, probably because of the danger of a general war if any nation intervenes.

Dec. 16. **South Pole discovered** by the Norwegian explorer **Roald Amundsen.**

1912. *Aug. 26.* Alliance of four Balkan states (not including Roumania) against Turkey, probably with Russian secret consent; aided by the indifference of the powers to the Turko-Italian War. Also, the evident designs of Austria (Germany) on their territory have caused them to abandon their internecine controversies. Teutonic powers expect a Turkish victory over the allies. Turkey loses every battle in the open and every fortified place in Macedonia and Thrace.

1913. *May 30.* **Treaty of London** at end of Balkan War deprives Turkey of all her European territory except neighborhood of Constantinople, but the Triple Alliance forbids Serbia to control Albania with its Adriatic frontage. Teutonic intrigue is busy against the continuation of the Balkan League, working on Bulgaria, which country on June 29, precipitates a second Balkan War on its erstwhile allies (see BULGARIA), and is defeated, Roumania joining the other states against her.

Aug. 10. **Treaty of Bucharest** between the Balkan states readjusts the boundaries at the expense of Bulgaria, even Turkey regaining some territory. Powers look on; Teutonic nations for the moment not able to help either Turkey or Bulgaria, but ready to take advantage of the unsatisfactory domestic conditions of the members of the Triple Entente.

Aug. 28. **Palace of Peace** at The **Hague,** gift of Andrew Carnegie.

V. WORLD-WAR PERIOD: 1914 TO 1920.

Historical Outline.

OUTBREAK OF THE WAR.

THE occasion for the World War was found in the Balkans. Although Austria had succeeded in enforcing her will in the settlement of the second Balkan War in 1913, and through the erection of an Albanian kingdom had successfully prevented Serbia from gaining access to the sea, the Serbs were filled with resentment. The idea of nationality was strong in them and they hoped to unite their race in one autonomous state. Since Austria-Hungary ruled millions of Serb subjects, she could but regard this ambition as dangerous to her supremacy. Both in Serbia and in the Serbian regions governed by Austria, secret societies were formed and an active Pan-Serbian propaganda was initiated. Still, Serbia was obliged to submit in 1913, as she had done in 1908 and 1909. Alone, she was in no condition to measure strength with Austria.

On June 28, 1914, the **Archduke Francis Ferdinand** of Austria, heir to the throne, was **assassinated** in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. Although the assassins were Austrian subjects and natives of Bosnia, they were Serbians by race. Austria had been watching for an opportunity to teach Serbia a lesson and forthwith assumed that this act was the result of Serbian propaganda, denounced the Serbs as a nation of murderers, and held the Serbian government responsible.

On July 23 Austria carried out a long-planned design and sent the fated **ultimatum** to Serbia containing demands of such a character as, Sir Edward Grey said, had never been laid upon an independent nation. The Pan-Serbian propaganda must be suppressed, all anti-Austrian propaganda, whether in newspapers, textbooks, or schools, must cease; officers in the government and army whose names the Austrian government should submit must be removed; Serbia must accept Austrian aid in the investigation of this conspiracy. Finally, Serbia was given 48 hours in which to submit to this humiliating ultimatum. The nature of the demands was such as to make it evident that Austria had resolved on war.

On July 25 Serbia submitted to all demands save the last, which she offered to arbitrate; but this did not satisfy **Austria,** and on July 28 she **declared war upon Serbia.** Although the war began with the attempt of Austria to suppress a petty Balkan state, the real causes were far wider than the Balkan question. They were world-reaching.

From the point of view of Germany, she and her ally, Austria, were in constant danger of a movement — commonly called Pan-Slavism — to unite the Slavs of the Balkans and the Slavs of Russia. To German eyes Pan-Slavism meant the extinction of Pan-Germanism and of the peculiar *Kultur* for which Germany stood. Germany alleged that she and Austria would be surrounded by "an iron ring," — on the one side Russia and her allies, on the other France with her ally, Great Britain. Germany was conscious of great material success; she was prosperous, efficient, and scientific and demanded a position equal to what she considered her due — "a place in the sun." Germany's colonial empire was small compared with that of Great Britain and France, and the colonies she held were less lucrative and desirable than those in the hands of her rivals. The teachings of her philosophers emphasized that the state was might, and that war was the proper means to expand her culture. Finally, the growth of the Socialist party in Germany was a menace to the military régime and if Germany was ever to strike it must do so before this rising power prevented such action and destroyed the military machine which had been so carefully prepared. For these reasons, among others, **Germany supported** her ally, **Austria,** in her demands on Serbia, and believed that the day had come when she might aspire to world domination.

Russia could not allow her Slav protégée, Serbia, to be overridden by Austria. Twice before, Russia had been forced to assent to Austria's slights and must now take some decisive steps in order to retain her influence in the Balkans. Therefore, on July 29, the day after Austria declared war upon Serbia, Russia mobilized the forces in the southern military districts; and the day after Belgrade was bombarded by the Austrians, **Russia ordered a general mobilization** (July 31).

Germany seized upon that action as a pretext for a war long agreed upon. While her regular armies were massing on the Russian border, she demanded that Russia cease mobilizing, and on August 1 **declared war.** An ultimatum was presented to France demanding whether France would support Russia. On August 2 Germany struck at France through the neutral state of Luxemburg and entered French territory. On the same day **Germany demanded a passage** for her armies through the neutralized state **of Belgium,** which refused and bravely accepted the war thus thrust upon her.

Throughout these events **Great Britain** did all in her power to mitigate the severity of the Austrian demands on Serbia and to mediate in the dispute between Russia and Austria. She received no sympathy in these steps from Germany, which insisted that mediation was impracticable. The evidence shows that Austria took no step without the consent if not the positive advice of her ally, Germany. The suppression of Serbia was part of the general policy of Germany, which desired not a peaceful settlement of the Serbian dispute, but an appeal to arms, in which she felt herself destined to be triumphant.

Still, Germany was not ready to measure strength with France and Russia if Great Britain were to be their ally. She therefore offered to respect the territorial integrity of France should England remain neutral (July 28), but refused to give a similar assurance with regard to the French colonial possessions. England was already bound by a secret agreement to protect the Channel coast of France. Her refusal of this offer led Germany to **strike at France through Belgium;** and the appeal of Belgium at once brought Great Britain into the war as the ally of France and Russia, contrary to Germany's expectations.

In another respect the plans of the Teutonic allies miscarried. **Italy,** the third member of the Triple Alliance, issued **a declaration of neutrality,** August 3, correctly asserting that the Triple Alliance was a defensive, not an offensive, alliance, and that she had not been consulted by her allies in the steps which brought on the war.

Whether the war was necessary for **Germany's** defense or not, her **actions soon alienated the sympathies of the world.** The confession of the German chancellor that Germany was violating Belgian rights and his assertion that "Just for a word — neutrality — just for a scrap of paper Great Britain was going to make war on a kindred nation" showed a cynical disregard for international law and the rights of small nations. Furthermore, Germany's method of making war was more brutal and terrible than the world had seen in modern times. The **invasion of Belgium** was resisted by the Belgian army and the heroic opposition of this little force at Liége checked the German advance and gave the Allies time to concentrate their forces. Thus thwarted, the Germans took savage revenge upon the Belgians. **Louvain was destroyed,** towns and villages along the route of the German advance were sacked, and hundreds of innocent civilians were ruthlessly executed. A policy of terrorization was adopted which, although preventing insurrection, failed to break the Belgian spirit, but won the sympathy of the world and gained universal opprobrium for Germany.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1914.

Liége fell on August 7; on August 20 **Brussels** was occupied. Three days later **Namur** was occupied and **Mons** attacked, and the **great retreat of the French and English** forces began. **France** was **invaded;** for ten days and ten nights the retreat continued. The great fortresses proved useless against the most powerful guns ever moved by an advancing army. Town after town in northern France was occupied as the British and French forces were obliged to retire to avoid being surrounded. The invaders came within striking distance of Paris, and **German victory seemed certain.**

On September 6 the advance was halted and to his generals Marshal Joffre sent word that "the hour has come to hold fast and let yourselves be killed rather than to yield." The decisive world **battle of the Marne** began with the desperate assault by the French, as is shown in the message which General Foch sent to Joffre, "My right is in retreat, my center is yielding. Situation excellent. I shall attack." The attack was successful, and not only was the German advance checked, but the German army was driven back with enormous losses from the Marne to the Aisne, where it took refuge in a line of trenches and resisted the French advance.

The battle of the Marne saved Paris and France from German dominion. But Germany still occupied large portions of the French territory, and after their defeat on the Marne the Germans besieged and captured **Antwerp** and swept westward to occupy the Channel ports. **Ostend** was captured October 15, but the Germans were checked before Dunkirk was reached and the **first battle of Ypres** began October 19. Here the British army, though outnumbered four to one and suffering a loss of one half, beat off the German attack. Both sides intrenched themselves and the opposing lines extended continuously from the Channel to Switzerland, in positions which varied little until March 1918.

Although Germany failed to capture Paris and to destroy France, she occupied most valuable territory, by possession of which her power to continue the war was augmented. The territory she held contained nine tenths of the iron ore and half of the coal of France; and the Belgian harbors of Ostend and Zeebrugge furnished convenient bases for the submarine warfare she later adopted.

On the **Russian front** Germany was disagreeably surprised. She had counted on the slowness of the unwieldy empire to mobilize, and hoped by a sudden blow to paralyze Russia's western ally, and then to deal with the East at her leisure. Russia, however, advanced more rapidly than was expected and invaded East Prussia on the north and Galicia on the south, where the Austrians were defeated at **Lemberg** (September 1) and **Przemyśl** was invested, while a central army struck in the direction of Posen. On August 29 the Germans, with reënforced lines, defeated the Russians at Tannenberg and drove them out of East Prussia; and by a combined attack of the German and Austrian forces the Russians were pushed back in Poland until General von Hindenburg was on the outskirts of Warsaw.

On October 13 Grand Duke Nicholas, the Russian generalissimo, took the offensive, and the battle of the Marne was repeated on the **Vistula.** Hindenburg struck again at Warsaw, but was checked, and after the Russian victory in the north at **Avgustovo** (October 4) the Russians again invaded East Prussia. On December 6, the Germans, though suffering terrific losses, cut their way eastward to Lódź and by the end of the year established a line twenty-five miles west of Warsaw.

While Germany and Austria were occupied with Russia and France, **Serbia,** aided by little Montenegro, the only Balkan state to stand by her, gained some initial victories, although the Austrians succeeded in occupying the Serbian capital, Belgrade. Because of the relief from pressure resulting from the Russian advance in Galicia, the Serbians were able to retake it, drove the Austrian troops out of Serbia, and invaded Bosnia.

Meanwhile the Central Powers enlisted an ally. On November 5, 1914, **Turkey** entered the war. Ever since the revolution which established the Young Turks in control (1908), German influence had been dominant. The success of Russia might mean the loss of Constantinople to Turkey, while a German victory might insure the continuance of the Ottoman Empire. To Germany and her allies the adherence of Turkey was of great value. The sultan, as the head of the Mohammedan religion, was expected to proclaim a "jihad," or holy war, which would cause unrest among the millions of Mohammedan subjects of Great Britain and Russia. Moreover, the Turkish army, officered by Germans, would be a convenient instrument with which to detach a significant part of the military strength of Russia and Great Britain. During 1914, although the Turks attempted to cross the Sinai peninsula and threaten Egypt, and to invade the Caucasus, they were defeated; the immediate reply was the British occupation of Busrah at the head of the Persian Gulf, the final annexation of Cyprus, and the announcement that **Egypt** had become **a British colony.**

In the Far East, **Japan** as Great Britain's ally **declared war** upon Germany and demanded the surrender of **Kiaochow.** When this was refused, Japan captured the fortress by siege. **Germany's** widely scattered **colonial empire was attacked** elsewhere. In the Pacific, Apia was occupied by New Zealand troops (August 29), and the surrender of the German possessions in the Samoan group and of Kaiser-Wilhelmsland, Bismarck Archipelago, and the Solomon Islands rapidly followed. October 7, Japan seized the Marshall Islands. In Africa a Franco-British force captured Togo, and the forces of the South African Union began the conquest of other German possessions.

British troops came to the rescue of France on the western front, while the British navy upheld the cause of the Allies all over the world. The fleet, on the declaration of war, at once began a blockade of the German northern coast, which continued throughout the war. At the same time, **Germany's vast merchant marine was swept from the sea** by British and French cruisers or interned in neutral harbors. During the early days of the war considerable damage was done to Allied commerce by the swift German cruisers *Emden* and *Karlsruhe;* but with the destruction of these vessels the danger was diminished and only the German main fleets were to be feared.

The home fleet was mostly bottled up in the Kiel Canal; the small Pacific fleet (November 1) won a naval victory over an English squadron off the coast of Chile. December 8, however, it was totally destroyed in the **battle of the Falkland Islands.** In

European waters the British won a naval victory near **Helgoland** (August 28, 1914); but soon after lost three 12,000-ton cruisers, the *Aboukir*, *Cressy*, and *Hogue*, by the attack of a German submarine. The main German fleet, however, did not take the sea and though a small port on the coast of England was bombarded (Dec. 16), little damage resulted.

Great Britain also commanded the English Channel and was able to transport an ever increasing number of troops to France with the loss of only a few hundred men. Equally vital was the blockade which Great Britain established against the German ports. Not only were ships prevented from entering the ports, but the trade of neutrals was restricted through the doctrine of "continuous voyage," so that Germany was cut off from commercial intercourse with all but the neighboring states. Thus began an economic pressure which ultimately had the effect of breaking the morale of the German people and paving the way for the victory of the Allies.

Although the battle of the Marne saved France, yet the Germans held practically all of Belgium and northwestern France and a line of intrenchments from the North Sea to Switzerland During the year 1915 the Allies attempted to dislodge them from these positions. The war was a war of "attrition," or as Joffre said, "of nibbling." For some months no engagements of importance were fought, but on March 10, at **Neuve Chapelle** the British began a tentative offensive. This battle was remarkable because intensive artillery preparation was first used. On a narrow front of less than four miles, more than 300 British cannon were concentrated, and by means of high explosives the German defenses were literally blasted away. In this single battle the British used more shell than they had used in the whole of the Boer War. Following the artillery preparation, the infantry advanced and gained about a mile. The German line was bent but not broken. The Germans counterattacked but the British in spite of enormous losses held their new front.

On the part of the Germans an attempt to break the lines of the Allies was made at **Ypres** (April 22–25). This battle was noteworthy for the **first use of poisonous gas.** The Canadians, on whom the attack was made, were unprepared for such tactics. The use of poisonous gas had been expressly prohibited by the Hague Convention of 1907, to which Germany had given her assent. Her illegal methods were momentarily successful and the French and Canadians were forced back. But on May 24 the fighting died down, and the Germans had succeeded only in bending the Allies' line.

Again, on September 25, the Allies took the offensive at the **battle of Loos.** Although the immediate objective was obtained, yet the cost in lives was enormous, and the British commanders failed to follow up their initial success. Thus the **deadlock on the western front** continued.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1915.

On the **Russian front** the Allies had better success. On the north the Russians attempted a new **invasion of East Prussia,** but von Hindenburg, to whom this territory was familiar, outmaneuvered them and decisively defeated them in the battle of the **Masurian Lakes** (Feb. 10–12, 1915). In this battle, the **Russians lost** in killed and wounded **150,000,** and over 100,000 were taken prisoners.

Against Austria Russia at first won more success. From January until May the Russian army pushed into Galicia. **Przemyśl** fell March 22, and the whole battle front moved forward until May 1. At this date the tables were turned. The Austrians, reënforced under **von Hindenburg** and **von Mackensen,** attacked the Russians on a wide front. The Germans and Austrians were everywhere successful, and the whole **Russian line was forced to retreat. Przemyśl** was recaptured June 3; **Lemberg,** June 22; **Russian Poland** was invaded and **Warsaw** was occupied, August 5; Russian Poland was conquered and the provinces of Lithuania and Kurland were overrun. The Russian army was extricated by the skillful generalship of the **Grand Duke Nicholas.** Yet for his ill success he was removed from his command and sent to the Caucasus.

The Allies suffered another severe blow in the **Turkish campaign.** An ambitious plan to capture Constantinople was prepared. The importance of the place was obvious. Constantinople, in the hand of the Turks, barred the Allies from reaching Russia by water. Through the Dardanelles and the Black Sea ports munitions might be dispatched to Russia and from Russia provisions might be drawn to relieve the necessities of the Allies. Moreover, the possession of Constantinople would cut Germany off from her Turkish ally and put an end to the Teutonic dream of uninterrupted German control from Berlin to Bagdad. Furthermore, an Allied success in this quarter would have a wonderful effect upon the wavering courage of the Balkan states.

The first **attempt to capture Constantinople** was made at the Dardanelles (February 19, 1915) but was checked a month later by the loss of three battleships, two British and one French. Although repulsed, the Allies, reënforced by an army of the Anglo-French troops aided by the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps, known as the "Anzacs," landed on the peninsula of **Gallipoli.** An attack was made at Achi Baba, the key to the Turkish positions, but the Turks, under the command of the German General von Sanders, repulsed them. Desperate attempts were also made to cut the communications with Constantinople, but the operations failed. Although the troops remained throughout the year, nothing was accomplished. The evacuation of the Allied positions was accomplished by January 8, 1916.

The British had some initial success in their **campaign** against the Turks **in Mesopotamia.** They succeeded in driving the Turks back beyond the Tigris and Euphrates by July, and pushed forward in the direction of Bagdad. On November 22–24 General Townshend's column defeated more than 13,000 Turks at Ctesiphon. The Turks, however, received reënforcements, and the British were compelled to retreat to **Kut-el-Amara,** where they were besieged.

One permanent gain was made by the Allies. On May 23, 1915, **Italy declared war** on Austria-Hungary. Italy had been a member of the Triple Alliance for over 30 years, and in 1912 this alliance had been renewed to last until 1920. But Italy was not consulted in the Serbian ultimatum, and the war was obviously offensive and not defensive. Under these circumstances Italy was perfectly justified in refusing to enter the war on the side of her allies and in taking up a neutral position.

The kingdom of Italy, however, was not complete, as Austria still controlled hundreds of thousands of Italians in the Trentino and Trieste. This was "*Italia irredenta*" — unredeemed Italy. The Italian government attempted to acquire this territory from Austria by negotiations; but when this attempt failed, Italy, in response to an overwhelming popular demand, felt that her legitimate aspirations could best be satisfied by joining the Allies and therefore declared war upon Austria.

A double offensive was launched against Austria, one column moving into the Trentino, and another against the positions beyond the Isonzo, flanking Trieste. After some initial successes, both sides intrenched themselves, and the Italian offensive came to a halt, largely because of the difficult nature of the country.

The effect of the Allied failure at the Dardanelles was disastrous. **Greece** had been about to join the Allies, but now adopted a tortuous policy of benevolent neutrality towards Germany. On **Bulgaria** the result was even more decisive. Bulgaria hated Roumania, Serbia, and Greece and felt that these powers had deprived her of her legitimate territory by the Treaty of Bucharest in 1913. (See BULGARIA.) Now that the Russians were driven from Galicia and the Allies unsuccessful at the Dardanelles, Bulgaria saw her opportunity to tear up the treaty and with German aid to acquire the territory and seaports she coveted. After a period of devious diplomacy the Bulgarian czar, Ferdinand, joined the Central Powers (Oct. 5, 1915), although war was not formally declared until Oct. 14. The effect was far-reaching. It gave to Germany the long-wished-for "corridor" to Turkey and enabled her to hurry munitions and men to her Turkish allies. The accession of Bulgaria to the Central Powers sealed the doom of Serbia.

1915 saw the virtual extinction of the unwilling pretext of the war, **Serbia.** In October a new campaign was organized against her; and the Austrians, freed from the danger of Russian invasion and reënforced by the Germans and the Bulgarians, who had now joined the Tentonic powers, swept through the country. The remnant of the Serbian army was transported by Allied vessels to the island of Corfu.

In German Southwest **Africa,** a division of the troops of the Union of South Africa, commanded by General Louis Botha, began operations in February. Windhuk, the capital, was captured on May 12, and on July 9 the German commander surrendered unconditionally. In the Kamerun the Allies occupied the seacoast and the railroads and drove the Germans into the interior. In German East Africa the resistance was more obstinate and the British suffered minor repulses.

No important fleet engagements took place during the year 1915 The Germans confined their naval activity to the use of **the submarine.** In February, the British Isles were declared in a state of blockade, and Germany claimed the right to sink merchant vessels bearing the British flag and bound for British ports. Although international law allowed the destruction of the merchantmen of one belligerent by another, the dictates of humanity, which had hitherto been observed by contending powers, required that the crew and passengers should be removed before the destruction of the vessel. The submarine was a craft unable either to capture a merchant vessel or adequately to provide for the safety of the crew and passengers. Thus the use of the submarine as a weapon against merchantmen was considered illegal. Unmoved by such considerations, the Germans with their submarines destroyed many merchant ships, both neutral and English, and on May 7, 1915, one of the largest liners in passenger service — the **Lusitania** — was **sunk** without warning. Nearly 1,200 men, women, and children perished, among whom were more than a hundred Americans.

In spite of the submarine menace, Great Britain continued to transport into France troops and munitions and, although suffering great losses in her merchant marine, was able to keep in touch with her colonial empire and to import food and munitions.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1916.

In 1916 **Germany's supreme effort** on the western front was made at **Verdun,** a place so strongly fortified as to be considered almost impregnable; and for that very reason there were few defenses of major importance between Verdun and Paris. The capture of such an important position would paralyze the Allied resistance and with the fall of Paris France might succumb. Moreover, the very difficulty of the military operations offered a chance for military glory to the German Crown Prince, who commanded that section of the line.

The Germans made careful preparations and accumulated enormous armies and vast supplies, and on February 21 the attack began. It seemed impossible that human force could defy such destructive artillery fire, or that troops could maintain their positions and check the advance of their opponents, sheltered behind the rain of high explosives. Although the French were driven from position to position and in four days retired four miles, they contested every inch of the ground. Reënforcements were hurried to them, and the advance was temporarily checked; but the Germans had resolved to capture Verdun whatever the cost. The French, under Pétain, and, later, Nivelle, were equally resolved to check them and, with the cry "*Ils ne passeront pas!*" ["They shall not pass!"], they thwarted the efforts of the Germans and actually drove them out of most of the positions they had won. The battle lasted from February until July. It was renewed in October, and on December 15, by a surprise attack, General Nivelle recovered Fort de Vaux and two miles of territory along a seven-mile front and took 11,400 prisoners and 115 guns. This ten months' battle cost the Germans about 600,000 men and the French nearly 500,000.

On July 1 began the **great Allied offensive on the Somme.** The intent was twofold. By attacking the Germans in this region it was hoped to relieve the pressure on Verdun. The immediate objective, however, was the captnre of the railway centers of Péronne and Bapaume, which supported the German front. The Allies here perfected the method of artillery preparation before attacking the German positions. After blasting away the protective barriers of barbed wire and shattering the trenches, the infantry, following the barrage, occupied the German positions. Throughout the summer the advance proceeded. Thiepval, Pozières, Longueval, and Combles were captured and Péronne was threatened. In the autumn (September 15) the "tanks" first made their appearance, and between November 12 and 18 in the Ancre region the British gained the highland commanding Bapaume. The rains of November brought the advance to an end, yet the Allies had gained 170 square miles which they retained, unlike the Germans at Verdun, who had been driven out of most of the positions taken by them.

The year 1916 marked the **height of Russia's success.** In Armenia, Grand Duke Nicholas was successful against the Turks and captured the strongly fortified city of Erzerum (February 16, 1916) and Trebizond (April 18), while another Russian column penetrated the mountains and occupied "old Armenia." The Turks thus lost over 30,000 square miles on a front of 750 miles.

In Europe General Brusilov started a great offensive in June. The immediate object was the capture of Kovel and Lemberg and the recapture of Bukowina. Along a front which extended from the **Pripyat marshes** to the Roumanian frontier, the Russian forces advanced. The Austrian lines were broken and the fortresses of **Lutsk** and **Dubno** were captured. Czernowitz was reoccupied (June 17) and Bukowina retaken. On the north, **Brody** was captured and Kovel was threatened and the Russian Cossacks poured through the Carpathian passes toward the Hungarian plain. As before, Germany came to the rescue of Austria. The **Russians** were **halted at the Styr** on the north, but on the south they almost reached **Lemberg.** At this point Brusilov's offensive came to an end. This victory was the greatest Allied success since the battle of the Marne. The Russians took more than 420,000 prisoners and over 15,000 square miles of territory.

The Russian drive was intended to prepare the way for the entrance of Roumania on the side of the Allies. In Transylvania Austria governed millions of the Roumanian race and the nationalistic aspirations of Roumania led to the hope that these people might be joined with the Roumanian state. Moreover, Bulgaria, never forgetting the Treaty of Bucharest, was ready to take any advantage the war might offer to regain the territory she had surrendered to Roumania in 1913.

On August 27, Roumania joined the Allies and made a spectacular raid into Transylvania. The results were tragic. Brusilov's offensive had come to a stop and Russia was not able to aid the Roumanians. The German general, von Mackensen, commanding an army of Bulgarians, Turks, and Germans, swept into the Dobruja and captured a division of the Roumanian army. The invading troops in Transylvania were ordered to withdraw, but a new German army commanded by von Falkenhayn fell upon its rear and drove it across the border. Mackensen crossed the Danube and the Roumanian forces were caught between two converging armies. Bucharest was abandoned December 6, and the Roumanian army sought refuge in the Russian lines. Like Serbia, Roumania was almost completely conquered, and the grain fields and oil wells were at the service of the Teutonic allies. Moreover, the Austro-German front now ran almost in a straight line from the Baltic to the Black Sea. **In Mesopotamia** the Turks pressed the siege of **Kut-el-Amara,** and General Townshend was forced to surrender April 29, 1916 In Arabia the Grand Shereef of Mecca revolted from Turkish rule and established a government which included Mecca, Medina, and Jedda.

In the southern Balkans the Austrians meted out to Montenegro the same fate that the Serbians had suffered and occupied **Cetinje** January 13 and **Scutari,** the chief trading center of Albania, January 23. To check this advance, or at least to prevent the Teutonic powers from overrunning Greece, the Allies occupied **Saloniki,** as a point from which they might attack the Bulgarians and possibly threaten the Teutonic lines of communication. Large detachments of French and English troops were sent to Saloniki, and the Serbian army, which had been refitted by the French at Corfu, was given the position on the left flank. In September an offensive was begun which resulted in the Allied occupation of Monastir, November 19.

On the Italian front the Austrians launched a powerful offensive in May. Taking from the eastern front large detachments of troops and guns, Austria struck south along the valley of the Adige and Brenta and approached the Venetian plain. Brusilov's drive in the east, however, forced Austria to hurry reënforcements to that front and saved the day for Italy. Taking advantage of this, the Italian offensive began in August along the Isonzo, and **Görz** (Gorizia) was captured August 9, thus redeeming the first important town of "*Italia irredenta.*" A foothold was also gained on the Karst (Carso) plateau, and in October the Austrian line was broken in the Julian Alps.

The year 1916 saw the extinction of German authority in **Africa.** In February the conquest of the Kamerun was completed and 900 German and 14,000 colonial troops took refuge in Spanish Guinea. German East Africa, however, was stubbornly defended, and not until September were any large detachments of German troops defeated. By December the Allies were everywhere successful and German authority was at an end.

The **naval operations during 1916** included the continuous use by Germany of the **submarine** against both naval and merchant vessels. While Germany had an undoubted right to sink without warning the naval vessels, she had no right to sink the merchant ships without giving an opportunity to save the lives of the noncombatants, nor to attack ships of a neutral state, unless bound for a blockaded port or carrying contraband. Since the British fleet prevented an effective blockade of Allied ports, the only right of capture or destruction rested upon the carriage of contraband. Both Germany and the Allies had declared practically all articles of commerce, including foodstuffs, contraband; and through the doctrine of continuous voyage, by which merchandise consigned to a neutral port for reëxportation to a belligerent was considered contraband, practically all the commerce of the world was at the mercy of one belligerent or the other. Since Great Britain and her allies commanded the sea, they were able to enforce their plans, but this they did by the legitimate means of search and seizure. Against the extreme doctrine of continuous voyage, and the British system of ordering all vessels to put in at Kirkwall in the Orkneys, the United States protested.

Germany, since the submarine was unable to search or capture merchant vessels, resorted to destruction without warning. Against this the United States protested. As far back as February, 1915, it warned Germany that "strict accountability" would be demanded of her for the destruction of American vessels. After the sinking of the *Lusitania,* President Wilson demanded that Germany disavow the act and make reparation "as far as reparation is possible," and declared that the United States would not "omit any word or any act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens and of safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment." Germany evaded the issue, and in the correspondence which followed President Wilson again repeated his demand for reparation. Ultimately Germany offered to pay indemnity and made a promise not to sink "liners." No agreement was reached between the two governments and no further action taken.

On March 24, 1916, a French packet, the *Sussex,* was torpedoed while crossing the English Channel and two Americans were killed. President Wilson protested and declared that the United States would sever diplomatic relations unless the German government should declare an effective abandonment of its submarine warfare against passenger and freight-carrying vessels. On May 4 Germany apparently agreed, and promised that merchant vessels would not be sunk without warning nor without safeguarding human life unless resistance was offered or escape attempted. Even this promise was conditioned upon the success the United States should have in compelling Great Britain to observe what Germany held was international law. President Wilson accepted the promise but repudiated the condition.

On May 31 occurred **the greatest naval battle of the war.** For the first and last time the German Grand Fleet offered battle. The German high-seas fleet, commanded by Admiral von Scheer, was sighted by the British scouts under Admiral Beatty sailing northward up the western coast of Denmark. While signaling the British main fleet Admiral Beatty attacked without delay, hoping to cut off the German fleet from its base. The battle lasted until evening, and under the cover of darkness the German fleet escaped. The result was inconclusive. The English admitted the loss of 14 vessels, including 3 of their largest battle cruisers, with which Beatty had attacked before Jellicoe came to his aid. The English asserted that the German losses were 21, but the Germans conceded the loss of only 11 ships. The real victory, however, lay with England, for her main fleet was undamaged and the German high-seas fleet never took the sea again until it left Kiel to surrender.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1917.

The **two major events in 1917** were the **Russian revolution** and the **entrance of the United States into the war.** From the outbreak of the war in 1914, although shocked at German atrocities in Belgium, the government of the United States maintained strict neutrality; and although the majority of the American citizens sympathized with the Allies the attitude of the government was genuinely impartial. As the war developed, the demand that the United States should become an active participant on the side of the Allies grew stronger, particularly in the East. The submarine campaign of Germany accentuated the feeling of hostility toward the Teutonic powers. When this campaign resulted in the destruction of American vessels and loss of American lives, the demand for action greatly increased. Moreover, the action of German underagents in fomenting strikes and even in causing the destruction of property stirred up a feeling of bitter hostility. In 1915 the Austrian ambassador, Dumba, and the German military attachés von Papen and Boy-Ed, were forced to leave the country because of the discovery of such activities.

When, however, on January 31, 1917, Germany announced that in a zone around Great Britain, France, Italy, and in the eastern Mediterranean, all ships there found would be sunk, the rights of the United States were infringed in a way no other nation had ever dared to suggest. As if to add insult, Germany conceded that one passenger vessel a week would be allowed to go to England, if it proceeded along a route laid down by Germany and if it were painted with stripes, the width of which was carefully prescribed. To this attack upon the rights of the United States there could be but one answer. On February 3 **diplomatic intercourse** was **severed.** The German ambassador received his passports and the ambassador of the United States was recalled from Germany. On April 2 President Wilson addressed Congress and recommended a declaration of war. On April 6 **war** was formally **declared** as already existing by the act of Germany.

Meanwhile, a **revolution in Russia** forced the abdication of the czar (March 15, 1917). The provisional government which was established attempted to carry on the war and disclaimed the intention of making a separate peace; but Russia had suffered more than any other country in loss of men, her people were war-weary, and food shortage was common in the large centers. The provisional government gave way first to a frankly socialistic republic under **Kerenski,** and he in turn was overthrown by the extreme socialists, or **Bolsheviki** (November 7, 1917). The new government at once announced its policy of an immediate democratic peace, the confiscation of all landed property, the recognition of the supreme authority of the Soviets, or the workingmen's and soldiers' councils, and the election of a constitutional convention. An armistice was signed (December, 1917) and peace negotiations were at once started with Germany, resulting in the Peace of **Brest-Litovsk** (March, 1918) on terms very unfavorable to Russia From this time Russia, which had served to counterbalance any success which Germany might obtain in the east, could no longer be counted upon to give military aid to the Allies.

Along the **western front** the year was marked by the great German retreat to the **Hindenburg line** (February to April). The British attacked this new position in the vicinity of Arras and succeeded in capturing more than 20,000 prisoners and 257 guns (April and May). The most notable exploit in this operation was the recapture of **Vimy Ridge** by the Canadians. On June 7, after two weeks of intensive artillery preparation, enormous mines were exploded and the British captured Messines Ridge, which dominated their salient at Ypres. On July 31 began the **battle of Flanders,** during which the British advanced along the front from the Lys to the Yser. 6,000 prisoners were taken the first day, and during the next three months 16,000 more.

The **battle of Cambrai** began November 20 and was a sequel to the battles of Arras and Flanders. Here the British by a surprise movement, employing tanks without previous artillery preparation, almost reached Cambrai and captured 10,000 prisoners and 150 guns. The Germans, however, counter-attacked with surprising force and recovered most of the ground which had been gained.

In the meantime, in April, the French had made an attack between Soissons and Reims, taking 24,000 prisoners and 150 guns, but this victory had been purchased by an immense loss of lives. It was clear that though the Allies won local victories in France and succeeded in bending the German line they failed to break it, and so far were unsuccessful in their attempt to force the Germans back.

In the Balkans Roumania was occupied by the Germans in January, 1917, and on December 19 accepted a forced armistice. Nor were the actions of the Allied forces at Saloniki successful. It was felt unwise to reënforce the army in this region further, and a decision was reached (but never carried out) to withdraw the troops.

On the Italian front the Allies were more successful. In May Italy began a formidable offensive north of Görz. In two weeks the Italians took more than 50,000 prisoners and throughout the summer continued to advance, until by October they were near Trieste and the way to Laibach was open.

At this juncture, the **collapse of Russia** liberated German troops from the eastern front. The **Austro-German offensive** began October 24 with an attack upon the Italian flank upon the upper Isonzo and gradually forced a retreat behind the Tagliamento. Therefore the defense in the mountain district to the west collapsed with **frightful losses to the Italians.** This breakdown of the Italians was due partly to lack of supplies, partly to the superiority of the Austrian artillery, and partly to subtle propaganda and pacifist doctrines, which were making considerable headway. The retreat was continued until the Piave was reached, where the **Italian line held** against further assault.

The most important military success of the Allies during the year of 1917 was in **Mesopotamia.** After General Townshend's surrender at Kut-el-Amara (April 29, 1916), a new British expedition was formed under General Maude. With 120,000 East Indians General Maude marched against Kut-el-Amara, which he recaptured February 24, 1917. He pushed forward, and on March 11 captured **Bagdad,** the ancient capital of the Mohammedan world. For a few weeks the British and Russian forces were in touch. In September the advance was renewed, the Turks were defeated at Ramadie on the Euphrates, and the British finally reached Tekrit, which they occupied Nov. 6, but did not hold.

The **Turkish power was threatened** in another region. The British resolved that the dangers which had threatened the Suez Canal during the early years of the war should not be repeated. Consequently they sent an army into **Palestine,** which on March 26–27 defeated the Turks near Gaza, but was compelled by the summer heat to remain idle till autumn. In October this force, now under General **Allenby,** inflicted great damage upon the Turkish troops, captured Jaffa, the port of Jerusalem, in November, and on December 11 occupied the Holy City itself. The **capture of Jerusalem** and its deliverance from the Turks caused great rejoicing throughout the Christian world, as the victory of the medieval Crusaders seemed to be repeated. More important, however, from a strategic point of view was the fact that the capture of Jerusalem prevented the dispatch to Bagdad of a Turkish force which was being formed under General Falkenhayn.

There were no important naval operations during 1917. The unrestricted **submarine** warfare which Germany waged upon commerce was, however, having its effect. The neutral countries, particularly Norway, suffered great losses, but the brunt of the attack fell upon Great Britain. The British admiralty admitted in December that the Germans had succeeded in destroying vessels faster than they could be built, but claimed that the British navy was destroying the German submarines faster than Germany could replace them. Nevertheless, although the shrinkage of British tonnage from the outbreak of the war to January 1918, was 7,100,000 tons, the tre-

mendous burden placed upon the British marine in transporting troops and supplies, not simply for itself but for its allies, made the question of shipping one of the most important of the war.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1918.

The year 1918 was both the most disastrous and the most glorious year for the Allies. It opened with a **tremendous German drive** in France beginning on March 21. With Russia eliminated from the war the Germans could transfer their troops from the eastern to the western front. With these at their disposal they felt secure of success. "The prize of victory," said the Kaiser, "must not and will not fail us."

The first attack was made in Picardy between the Scarpe and Oise on the British Fifth Army, which was commanded by General Gough. This held the position at the extreme right of the British army next the French and the brunt of the attack came upon the British. The Germans hoped to win a decisive success and force the British to withdraw. They chose the British rather than the French because a victory over the French would leave the British in the field, while a British defeat meant a French surrender. The Germans were successful in breaking the British line and throwing it back, and a great disaster might have resulted had not the French cavalry arrived in time to check the Germans. Nevertheless, the Germans won a great success; Péronne, Bapaume, Ham, Albert, Noyon, and Montdidier fell.

At this moment the American commander in chief, General Pershing, placed all his forces at the absolute disposal of Marshal Foch, and with French reënforcements the British retirement was checked. Nevertheless, the Germans had reached many points that they had previously reached in 1914.

German activity was now turned toward the north. At the **battle of Armentières,** at the point where the British and Portuguese lines joined, they made a vicious lunge. Their hope was to reach the Channel ports and cut off the British army from its base. During the first 10 days they won considerable ground and forced the British to retreat. At this critical moment General **Haig issued his famous order:** "Every position must be held to the last man. There must be no retirement. With our backs to the wall, and believing in the justness of our cause, each one of us must fight to the end." In the bitter fighting which continued, the British lost Messines and Wytschaete ridges and even Mount Kemmel. But French reënforcements came in time and Ypres was not captured.

On May 27 and June 9 two movements were directed against Paris, one between Reims and Noyon, which continued for several days and gained some 30 miles, the other between Noyon and Montdidier, which was less successful. A month later the Germans, in their fifth offensive, thrust between Château-Thierry and the Argonne. Here they employed more material and men than had been used since the March drive. In two days they succeeded in crossing the Marne and threatened Reims. But Foch had now American troops at his disposal, the advance was checked, and the counter-offensive at last began.

In the meantime the **Austrians attacked the Italian front** for a hundred miles, from Asiago to the Adriatic, and captured thousands of prisoners. Although the Italians, aided by the Allies, made a counterattack, the Austrians remained in possession of half of Venetia and the positions they had held at the end of 1917. The Italians in Albania, aided by a French contingent, began an offensive (July 6). But without support from the Allies in Macedonia, they were obliged to halt and the Austrian counterattacks forced a retreat.

On the sea, Germany continued her ruthless **submarine warfare** and even dispatched submarines to operate off the coast of the United States. Although she was successful in sinking many vessels, the combined navies of the Allies were able, through the system of convoys, to keep a stream of supplies and munitions pouring into Europe. A greater achievement, however, was the **transportation of the American army** of 2,000,000 men across the Atlantic with the loss of only 732. Moreover, as the year progressed the Allies were more and more successful in checking the menace of the submarine. On April 23 the British succeeded in blocking the entrance to the harbor of **Zeebrugge,** which had served as a submarine base, and on May 9 were partially successful in a similar attempt at **Ostend.** New inventions, such as the depth bombs, and the great mine barrage which the American navy laid down in the North Sea took heavy toll. Germany was not only unable to destroy Allied commerce and to prevent the transportation of the American army, but was forced to see her most successful instrument, the submarine, fail.

Meanwhile the **Americans appeared on the western front** and came into contact with the enemy, June 3, at Château-Thierry, followed by eleven days of hard fighting in Belleau Wood. On July 18 Foch assumed the counteroffensive. He attacked the enemy from Château-Thierry on the Marne to the river Aisne and advanced from four to six miles, reclaiming twenty villages and taking thousands of prisoners.

On August 8 the British army moved forward between Albert and the Luce, a branch of the Avre. After five days of continuous fighting General Rawlinson advanced 12 miles, taking 30,000 prisoners and 750 guns. In the third week of August the French attacked the line between the Aisne and the Oise, while the British struck again between Arras and Albert, and advancing from Arras General Horne broke the permanent German defenses, the Drocourt–Quéant line. In six weeks the Allies took 150,000 prisoners and 2,500 guns and 2,000 square miles of French territory. The next advance was made in the region of the Meuse where, on September 12 and 13, the **American army** eliminated the Saint-Mihiel salient. In 24 hours the Germans lost 25,000 prisoners and were forced to withdraw from 150 square miles of French territory.

On the **Balkan front** the Allied attack began on September 15. The lines were extended beyond Monastir and Lake Doiran with a front of more than a hundred miles. The French and Serbs took advantage of this gain and pushed up the valley of the Vardar, capturing important centers of communications and splitting the Bulgarian army apart. On September 23 the Italian, Greek, and French troops captured Prilep and on the 26th the British and Greek forces took Strumnitza, with a large quantity of raw material. The Bulgarians, thus cut off from retreat, made unconditional surrender on September 30.

The **Italian drive** was renewed (October 24) and the Austrian line was broken. On October 26 and 27 armies crossed the Piave and penetrated the Austrian lines in three places. The retreat became a rout and at the time of the signing of the Austrian armistice (November 3) it was estimated that the Italians had captured 300,000 prisoners, 5,000 guns, and 250,000 horses. Following this military defeat the organization of **Austria-Hungary collapsed.**

In Palestine General Allenby advanced north cautiously and captured **Jericho,** February 21. On September 19 he made a surprise attack on the Turkish lines and, after three days of maneuvering, succeeded in encircling the Seventh and Eighth Turkish Armies, forcing them to surrender 80,000 men and 5,000 guns. The Arabs on his right were equally successful in disposing of the Fourth Turkish Army. The British army in Mesopotamia, now commanded by General Marshall, made a slow but steady advance during the spring. Hit was captured March 9 and two months later the British force was within 80 miles of Mosul. On October 30 Marshall attacked the Turkish forces on the Tigris and took 7,000 prisoners. As a result of these successful blows in the east and west of her Asiatic dominions **Turkey withdrew from the war,** October 31.

While these events were happening on other fronts, **Foch** began the final stage of his campaign. On September 26 **Pershing** ordered the advance of the American troops between the Argonne and Meuse. The terrain was most difficult and the American force was obliged to contest every inch of its advance. Nevertheless, it pushed steadily on despite heavy losses and by November 7 had broken the German lines and threatened Sedan.

In the north, the British and Belgians attacked the enemy from the famous fighting ground in the region of Ypres Against this attack Ludendorff rushed his reserves, hoping by a counterattack not only to check the British advance but to relieve the pressure on other parts of the line.

Foch now struck his chief blow. On October 8 an attack was made by three British armies under Generals Byng, Rawlinson, and Horne, aided by the French under Debeney. On a front of 12 miles, between Cambrai and Saint-Quentin, the British drove 12 miles, straight through the Hindenburg line, and at a point where it was supposed to be the strongest. Both Saint-Quentin and Cambrai fell. **The consequences of this victory were enormous.** The British pushed through into the open country towards Valenciennes and renewed their activity in the north. The Germans were forced to evacuate their stronghold at Laon and, October 16 to 18, had to give up the Belgian coast, Ostend, and Zeebrugge. The advance continued, and the **Germans** were steadily **pushed out of Belgium,** evacuating Bruges and being forced back toward Brussels. On November 2 the **Canadians** entered Valenciennes and with the French, who were advancing down the Sambre valley, took Maubeuge on November 9 and entered Mons on November 11, a few hours before the signing of the armistice.

During the year 1918 various attempts were made to define the issues of the war in order that an understanding might be reached upon which peace negotiations could be conducted. In January President Wilson laid down his famous "fourteen points," which ultimately became the basis of the peace negotiations. During the year these were supplemented and amplified on several occasions, especially in his address of Sept. 27 at the Metropolitan Opera House, when he insisted that a **League of Nations** was the indispensable agent for the making of any peace.

Bulgaria surrendered September 30; and on October 4 the first German peace proposal was made. This asked for negotiations on the basis of the "fourteen points." On October 8 President Wilson, instead of making a direct response, questioned whether the chancellor was speaking "merely for the constituted authorities of the empire, who have so far conducted the war," and declined to propose an armistice as long as the Central Powers occupied Allied territory. This reply, while arousing some criticism in the United States, was regarded in London and Paris as a shrewd diplomatic move, in that it was an appeal from the German government to the people, showing the impossibility of cessation of war without surrender of the occupied territory.

Meanwhile the German submarine warfare continued and in their retreat the Germans were guilty of great devastation. This led President Wilson to assert in his communication of October 14 that no armistice could be granted while the German forces continued their illegal and inhuman practices. On Oct. 5 Austria-Hungary sent an offer to the United States (rec'd Oct. 7) to conclude an armistice on the basis of the "fourteen points." On Oct. 19, the President, in replying to the Austrian suggestion, pointed out that conditions had altered since January and that by the recognition of the Czecho-Slovak republic the integrity of Austria could no longer be preserved. On Oct. 20 Prince Maximilian, the German chancellor, stated that the **new government of Germany** was now such as was desired by the vast majority of the German people and that in the future no government could take office without having the confidence of the Reichstag. In the reply of October 23 the United States asserted that if it must deal with the military masters of Germany, it must demand, not peace negotiations, but surrender.

On October 26 General Ludendorff resigned and on October 31 an **armistice was granted to Turkey** by which the Allies gained control of the Dardanelles and the Bosporus and forced the demobilization of the Turkish army and the surrender of all war vessels in Turkish waters. On November 3 an **armistice was granted to Austria** on even more severe terms than those given to Bulgaria and Turkey. All Allied territory was to be evacuated, half the military equipment was to be handed over to the Allies, the Allies were to be given the right of free movement in Austro-Hungarian territory and to continue the existing blockade. The result was the disintegration of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the abdication of the emperor.

On November 8 a meeting between Marshal Foch and the German plenipotentiaries took place and on **November 11 an armistice was signed.** The military clauses of the armistice demanded not merely cessation of hostilities but the immediate evacuation of Belgium, France, Alsace and Lorraine, and the left bank of the Rhine. Vast military stores and 5,000 locomotives were to be turned over to the Allies to compensate for the seizure of French and Belgian material. Of the naval forces all submarines, 6 battle cruisers, 10 battleships, 8 light cruisers, and 50 destroyers were to be interned in a place designated by the Allies. German troops, moreover, were to evacuate the territories of Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Turkey, and Russia; and Germany was to renounce the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk. The terms of this armistice were such that Germany was deprived of all power of resistance and would be forced to accept the treaty which the United States and the Allies should impose upon her.

PEACE NEGOTIATIONS.

The Peace Conference assembled in Paris, January 18, 1919. At this conference were represented the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan, as the five principal powers who took part in all sessions. In addition, the following powers were members of the conference and took part in sessions especially affecting them: Belgium, Brazil, the four great British self-governing colonies, India, China, Cuba, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hejaz, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Serbia, Siam, and Czecho-Slovakia.

The representation of the several powers was fixed as follows: five members each were allowed the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan; Belgium, Brazil, and Serbia had three members each; China, Greece, Hejaz, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Siam, Czecho-Slovakia, Australia, Canada, South Africa, and India, two members each; Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Bolivia, Ecuador, Peru, Uruguay, and New Zealand, one member each. All important decisions were reached in the **Supreme Council,** composed of the ranking delegates of the five chief powers.

The problems which faced this assembly were more important and far-reaching than had faced any previous international conference. Not only was it necessary to deal with Germany and her allies but with new and weak states which had been formed out of their territory. The national aspirations of the five principal powers were not always in harmony, and these aspirations sometimes ran counter to the best interests of some of the newly created states. Moreover, the collapse of the German Em-

pire and of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the disintegration of Russia presented almost insoluble problems. The results of the conference were bound to be a series of compromises which would be completely satisfactory to no nation.

One of the most important accomplishments of the Peace Conference was the formation of a **Covenant for a League of Nations.** This League was to consist of the powers represented at the conference, together with such other powers as on invitation acceded to it. It provided for an Assembly at which each state had one vote, and a Council which should consist of the five principal powers and representatives of four other members selected by the Assembly. Measures were adopted to prevent war by the fixing of armaments and by arbitration, which should be carried out by the League. Members resorting to war in disregard of the Covenant would be debarred from intercourse with other members and the Council might take military, naval, or economic measures against them. A system, known as the mandatory, was evolved by which backward powers might be placed under the tutelage of members of the League. Provisions were inserted for a permanent international labor conference, the control of trade in arms and ammunition, for freedom of communication, and equitable treatment for commerce of all members of the League.

The second act of the conference was to prepare **a treaty to terminate the war with Germany.** By this treaty Alsace-Lorraine was restored to France, and France was given the occupation of the Saar coal fields for a limited period in recompense for the destruction of her coal mines. An independent state of Poland was erected, and the southern and eastern frontiers of East Prussia were to be determined by plebiscites. More important to Germany, Danzig was made a free city under the supervision of the League of Nations. Czecho-Slovakia was recognized as an independent state, and the boundary of the Schleswig-Holstein region was to be readjusted in accordance with the expressed wishes of the population Germany, moreover, recognized the entire independence of German Austria.

Outside of Europe, Germany surrendered all her colonies to the Allied and Associated powers, recognized the French protectorate in Morocco and the English protectorate in Egypt and accepted, in advance, all arrangements which might be made concerning Turkey and Bulgaria. To Japan Germany ceded all the rights and privileges she had acquired by lease from China in the peninsula of Shantung.

The military and naval clauses of the treaty amplified the terms of the armistice. Compulsory military service was prohibited for Germany, and the size of the army and navy was fixed. Germany was obliged to accept the responsibility for the damage which the Allied and Associated powers had suffered and to make such restitution and reparation as might be determined upon. Stringent economic clauses and financial provisions were inserted which would seriously handicap any possible German commercial rivalry. The delegates of **Germany signed this treaty June 28, 1919,** and it was subsequently ratified by the German National Assembly, July 9, and put in force January 10, 1920

The work of the Peace Conference, however, was not finished. A **treaty** was **prepared for Austria,** which she **signed September 10, 1919,** by which German Austria was separated from Czecho-Slovakia, from Hungary, and from Jugo-Slavia. Her possessions in southern Tirol and at the head of the Adriatic were lost and Austria was confined to the part of the country occupied by Germans. Similar provisions were introduced by which Austria accepted the responsibility for the loss and damage of the Allied and Associated governments and promised such reparation as the Allies might determine. Provisions were introduced for the protection of minority nationalities and for the transference of citizenship to the new states and to the territories acquired by Italy.

Another perplexing question which faced the conference was the disposition of **Fiume.** This city, with a small majority of Italians, lay within territory occupied from time immemorial by Slavs and claimed by the new Serb-Croat-Slovene state (Jugo-Slavia). **Italy demanded Fiume,** but the Peace Conference, acting upon the suggestion of President Wilson, refused to accede to this demand. It was seized by an unauthorized force of Italian troops, and held for many months.

The most difficult problem which the Peace Conference faced was **the question of Russia.** Not only had the empire disintegrated, and certain portions, such as Finland and Poland been recognized as independent states by the Allies, but the Russian government, in the hands of the Bolsheviki, was such that no power was willing to treat with it. France, England, the United States, and Japan, had troops in her territory and were at war with the Bolshevist government. Various proposals were made looking to the settlement of this question but no solution was reached by the beginning of 1920. Thus, the eastern boundaries of Poland, the northern boundary of Roumania, and the questions of the Baltic Provinces are still unsettled, nor does the solution seem imminent.

Chronology.

OUTBREAK OF THE WAR.

Other events pertaining to the war, of interest especially with reference to particular nations, will be found in the histories and chronologies of the nations involved.

1913. End of Balkan Wars (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD) leaves Balkan states as formidable barriers to Teutonic plans for Middle Europe and control of the Near East.

Aug. 9. Austria secretly informs Italy, her ally, of intention to take measures against Serbia as a necessary defensive action. Italy declines to consider the situation as defensive and so within terms of Triple Alliance.

1914. *June 28.* Archduke **Francis Ferdinand,** heir to Austrian throne, and wife **assassinated** at Sarajevo, Bosnia, by Bosnian Serbs. Austria holds Serbia responsible.

July 5. Emperor William of Germany receives a letter and memorandum from Emperor Francis Joseph and Berchtold, Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, prepared for the most part before the assassination. Outlines a plan to eliminate Serbia politically by alliance with Bulgaria and pressure on Roumania, and declares a friendly settlement with Serbia no longer to be thought of.

July 6. Bethmann-Hollweg, German chancellor, assures Austrian ambassador that whatever **Austria** decides to do **will be supported by Germany** as ally and friend. Emperor William approves and urges quick action. They thus give Austria a free hand and **commit Germany to a speedy but undetermined plan of action.**

July 7. Ministerial council at Vienna plans surprise attack on Serbia without informing Italy or Roumania, with whom Austria has alliances. Tisza, Hungarian premier, protests, and decision reached to send a preliminary demand of which the rejection may be foreseen.

July 13. Berchtold receives report of agent on assassination, entirely exonerating Serbian government. He suppresses it.

July 23. **Austrian demand and ultimatum to Serbia** presented. Germany not informed of exact contents until too late to hold it up. Serbian officials accused of complicity in assassination; Serbia ordered to publish in stated terms condemnation of propaganda against Austria, to suppress anti-Austrian plots and feeling, and hold an investigation practically under control of Austrian officers; only **48 hours** allowed for an **answer.**

July 25. **Austria mobilizes** against Serbia without waiting for reply.

Serbia, on Russian, British, and French advice, **makes** a humiliating and almost complete **submission,** and offers further reference to Hague Tribunal or conference of powers. **Austria rejects reply** as unsatisfactory and prepares for war in full knowledge that it will bring in other powers. Russia, as protector of Balkan Slavs, cannot ignore the challenge. France pledged by alliance to support Russia. **Attitude of Great Britain uncertain;** friendly to France and Russia, but without formal alliance. However, an agreement with France (1912) virtually requires her to protect French Atlantic and Channel ports from naval attack, which is equivalent to war under certain conditions.

July 26. Sir Edward Grey proposes a conference of France, Germany, Italy, and Great Britain at London. Russia approves. Germany rejects proposal, but has no alternative to suggest except leaving matters for Austria and Serbia to settle.

July 27. Berchtold, warned by Germany that British proposals cannot be ignored, decides on early war to prevent attempts at intervention.

July 28. **Austria declares war on Serbia.**

July 29. Russia orders a partial mobilization against Austria; also toward German frontier.

July 31. Germany demands that Russia demobilize and answer within 12 hours. Also demands of France within 18 hours statement of intention as to neutrality.

Great Britain inquires of France and Germany if they intend to respect **Belgian neutrality.** France says yes; Germany gives no guarantee.

Aug. 1. **France orders a general mobilization.** Germany does the same, having already placed a large regular army on Russian frontier.

Germany declares war on Russia.

Italy announces her neutrality, thus pronouncing Austrian action to be aggressive.

Aug. 2. Germans enter Luxemburg, though its neutrality has been guaranteed by the powers.

Germany demands of Belgium passage of troops across territory.

Aug. 3. **Belgium refuses** to permit violation of her neutrality. [**France.**]

State of war exists between Germany and Formal announcement of Italian neutrality. This action permits France to concentrate forces on German frontier.

Aug. 4. **Germany invades Belgium. British** ambassador at Berlin demands his passports ("scrap of paper" episode). Both nations **declare war.**

United States issues proclamation of neutrality.

British issue first of various proclamations greatly enlarging list of contraband articles.

Aug. 5. President Wilson offers his good offices to promote peace.

Aug. 6. Austria declares war on Russia.

United States endeavors to get contestants to agree to follow in naval warfare the Declaration of London, which had never been put in force.

Aug. 8. **Montenegro,** as Serbia's ally, **declares war on Austria.** Greece, equally bound, fails to do so. The queen of Greece is sister of Emperor William.

Aug. 10. German warships *Goeben* and *Breslau,* pursued by Allied ships, escape by a ruse and enter the Dardanelles, contrary to Turkish treaties. On protest of the Allies Turkey makes an ostensible purchase of them. [on Austria.]

Aug. 13. Great Britain and France declare war

Aug. 15. **Japan sends ultimatum to Germany** to withdraw fleet from the Pacific and surrender Kiaochow. Action taken under British alliance and desire to eliminate Germany from Orient, as well as to revenge the interference in 1895 and "yellow peril" propaganda (see JAPAN).

Aug. 22. Great Britain, followed by other Allies, declines to accept Declaration of London without certain modifications. These being unacceptable to United States, the suggestion of August 6 is withdrawn on October 22.

Aug. 23. **Japan declares war** on Germany.

Sept. 5. Great Britain, France, and Russia agree not to make peace separately. Later, Japan (October 19) and Italy accede to the agreement.

Sept. 10. Turkey annuls the Capitulations, which permit exterritoriality of citizens of Western powers.

Sept. 28. Dardanelles closed to all merchantmen, thus cutting off communications between Russia and her Allies by Black Sea ports.

Oct. 29. Turks bombard a Black Sea port. Russia considers this an act of war.

Nov. 2. Because of the German mines laid therein, Great Britain declares the North Sea a "military area" and warns merchant vessels of danger in traversing it.

Nov. 5. Great Britain and France declare **war on Turkey.** Entrance of Turkey on side of Central Powers isolates Russia and compels her to fight on Caucasian front. Sultan as caliph, head of Islamic world, expected to threaten safety of colonies of Allies; but his proclamation of the jihad (holy war) is ignored.

Nov. 23. Portugal, as British ally, authorizes military intervention. Aid not called for at once.

Dec. 18. Egypt declared a British protectorate, and thus entirely separated from Turkey.

Dec. 26. Protest of U. S. against violation by Allies of neutral rights (see UNITED STATES).

WESTERN FRONT, 1914.

Aug. 4. The main offensive **German army crosses Belgian border** on way to envelop Paris from northeast, by the quickest and least heavily fortified route through the valley of the Meuse. Halted by modern fortifications at **Liége,** which it besieges. Other German armies extend the advance on the left on a line through Luxemburg, Lorraine, and Alsace to the Swiss border.

Aug. 6. **Belgian** mobile **troops at Liége withdraw** to prevent envelopment. Forts continue to hold out, though unable to withstand the surprisingly powerful German ordnance. Last of forts not taken until August 17. France has time to complete mobilization, and Anglo-French troops march into Belgium.

Aug. 7. French, General **Joffre** in supreme command, endeavor to carry out prearranged war program by **invasion of Alsace and Lorraine.** Efforts continue until August 25, with little success; then events to the north compel its cessation.

Aug. 9. **British forces, under General French,** begin to land in France and advance into Belgium.

Aug. 15. French troops cross Belgian border, take up line from Dinant through Namur to Charleroy.

Aug. 19. **Germans occupy Louvain,** which, August 26, they sack and burn (see BELGIUM for German occupation during war). Treatment of Louvain arouses horror in various parts of the world.

Aug. 20. **Brussels occupied;** no defense attempted. Belgian mobile army, cut off from junction with Anglo-French forces, retires to defenses of Antwerp.

Aug. 21. British take up position at Mons, prolonging French Namur – Charleroy line. **Namur,** second of barriers to German advance, invested. Engagement joined on **Dinant – Mons line;** some 400,000 Germans attack 270,000 British and French.

Aug. 22. Attack on French at **Nancy** begins.

Aug. 23. Namur captured. **French retire** all along the line, **British follow** next day. Stra-

1914 (*continued*).
tegical retirement along whole line with **Verdun** as pivot continues until **line of the Marne** is reached, with left resting on Paris defenses. Retreat prevents encirclement of left, but leaves the industrial section of France (Flanders, Picardy) in hands of enemy. Garrison left at Maubeuge, which holds out until September 7.

Aug. 27. Germans occupy **Lille.**

Aug. 31. Germans take **Amiens.** Change made in their strategy; plan to envelop Allied left gives place to an attack on left center. German right, under **von Kluck,** turning southeast accordingly, exposes its flank. [Bordeaux

Sept. 3. **French government transferred** to

Sept. 5. Germans take **Reims. Allied retreat stops.** French Sixth Army moves out from Paris against von Kluck's flank.

Sept. 6–10. **First battle of the Marne.** While von Kluck turns to meet army from Paris, British and French south of the Marne attack him. Further east Germans attempt to break through French army under Foch. September 9, **von Kluck begins to retreat;** Foch also compels German center to retire. Retirement conducted in good order to line of the Aisne and extending north of Reims to near Verdun.

Sept. 11. Germans fail in attempt before Nancy and this part of their line also retires.

Sept. 13–28. **First battle of the Aisne.** Joffre moves to encircle German right. Amiens and Reims reoccupied, but Allies unable to compel Germans to retreat beyond the Aisne. Both armies extend northward in attempt to gain Channel ports. **Race for the sea.** [by Germans.

Sept. 20. First **shelling of Reims Cathedral**

Sept. 23. Germans capture **Saint-Mihiel,** forming a salient in line south of Verdun. Line south of the salient, extending to Swiss border, remains practically unchanged during rest of the war, within or close to border of Alsace. Hard fighting, but little advance.

Sept. 28. Attack on **Antwerp** opens. Belgian army there a menace to German communications. Reduction accomplished by artillery. Belgian government and army retire October 9 and make their escape to join Allied left in Flanders. City surrenders October 10.

Oct. 1. Transfer of British army from Champagne to left of Allied line in Flanders begins. Completed by October 19. [Lille.

Oct. 13. Germans occupy **Ghent** and reoccupy

Oct. 15. **Zeebrugge and Ostend** taken by Germans; they **become submarine bases.** Allies hold Channel ports from Nienport westward.

Oct. 19–Nov. 21. **First battle of Ypres.** Bloody attempt of Germans to break through British lines to Dunkirk and Calais. They take Messines (November 1), Neuve-Chapelle (November 2), Dixmude (November 10); but British line, though drawn back, holds. Ypres region flooded. Farther south, German attack also fails. Lines become stabilized and elaborately intrenched. **War of positions** follows. **Line,** which continues with **few changes to 1917,** begins at North Sea at Nieuport, runs south to the Oise, leaving Ypres, Arras, and Amiens within Allied lines; but with German control over Lille, Douai, Péronne, and Noyon, together with most of the French industrial region, and coal and iron fields. At the Oise line turns east to Verdun, leaving Soissons, Reims, and Verdun in French occupation; thence south by the Saint-Mihiel salient and the border of Alsace.

EASTERN FRONT, 1914.

Aug. 7. Russians invade East Prussia.

Aug. 10. Austrians invade Poland.

Aug. 14. Russians begin a joint **invasion of Galicia,** moving on Lemberg.

Aug. 18. Russian mobilization completed with such speed as to derange the German plan to destroy French army before Russia can take the field.

Aug. 20. **Battle of Gumbinnen;** Russians defeat the Germans, who retire on Königsberg, the siege of which begins August 29; soon raised.

Aug. 22. **Von Hindenburg** appointed to command German forces in East Prussia and reënforcements sent.

Aug. 25. Austrians defeat Russians at Krasnik, Poland, but make little advance toward their objective, Lyublin.

Aug. 26–29. **Battle of Tannenberg.** Hindenburg routs the Russian Second Army in East Prussia. Other Russian forces in that province retire and are further defeated at battle of **Masurian Lakes** (September 6–12). Hindenburg occupies Suvalki (September 15).

Aug. 31–Sept. 2. First battle of **Lemberg.** Austrians defeated and evacuate the city, which Russians occupy September 3.

Sept. 10. Second battle of Krasnik. Austrians defeated and retreat from Poland, as flank is exposed by Russian advance in Galicia.

Sept. 22. Russians besiege **Przemyśl.** Next day they occupy Jaroslau, the Austrians continuing their retreat. Russians advance to the line of the Vistula and the passes in the Carpathians, and toward Cracow, gateway to Vienna and Berlin.

Sept. 26–28. Battle of the Niemen. Hindenburg retires.

Sept. 29–Oct. 4. Battle of **Avgustovo.** Russians advancing from the Niemen defeat Germans, reënter East Prussia and pursue to the Masurian Lakes.

Oct. 1. Hindenburg begins an invasion of Poland from Silesia as a counter to Russian advance in Galicia. October 14, he gets within range of Warsaw but retreats (October 27) to prevent encirclement by **Grand Duke Nicholas,** Russian commander in chief, who has temporarily withdrawn troops from Galicia and raised the siege of Przemyśl. On German retreat siege is resumed; also advance on Cracow.

Nov. 14. Hindenburg and **von Mackensen** attempt another invasion of Poland. Lódź captured December 6, but Germans unable to break the line along the Bzura and Rawka rivers.

BALKAN FRONT, 1914.

July 29. Austria opens the war by a bombardment of Belgrade.

Aug. 12. Main Austrian attack on Serbia develops across the Drina from Bosnia, with Valjevo as objective.

Aug. 16–25. **Battle of the Jadar.** Serbians defeat and drive the Austrians back into Bosnia and Slavonia.

Sept. 7. Austrians again invade Serbia across the Drina; defeated, and again retire.

Sept. 10. Serbians cross the Save and occupy Semlin, Hungary, but retire on September 17.

Sept. 22. Serbians invade Bosnia, but are driven out by October 27.

Nov. 1. Third Austrian invasion of Serbia. Serbs abandon Valjevo. **Belgrade falls,** December 2. Russian advance in Galicia (after Polish campaign) causes withdrawal of troops from Serbian front.

Dec. 3–6. **Battle of the Ridges.** Putnik, Serbian commander, routs the Austrians, who again evacuate Serbia. Belgrade reoccupied by Serbians, December 15.

OUTLYING OPERATIONS, 1914.

Aug. 8. French and British troops enter **Togo** in Africa. It surrenders, August 26.

Aug. 25. Anglo-French attack on Kamerun begins. [Zealand troops.

Aug. 29. German **Samoa** occupied by New

Sept. 1. British expeditionary forces begin to arrive at Mombasa for an attack on **German East Africa.**

Sept. 2. Japan begins operations against **Kiaochow.** [Australians.

Sept. 11. **Bismarck Archipelago** occupied by

Sept. 13. Australians take Solomon Islands.

Sept. 19. Lüderitzbucht in German Southwest Africa occupied by troops from Union of South Africa; but Boer revolt checks operations (see *South Africa,* under British Empire). [**Guinea.**

Sept. 24. Australians take **German New**

Oct. 7. Japanese occupy **Marshall Islands.**

November. Turks begin campaign against Suez Canal and Egypt, across the Sinai Peninsula.

Nov. 3–5. British attack on Tanga, German East Africa, repulsed.

Nov. 6. British-Indian troops begin **invasion of Mesopotamia;** Fao, at mouth of Shat el Arab, captured.

Nov. 7. **Tsingtau** captured by Japanese. This ends Japanese active operations in the war, except naval patrol in the Mediterranean and later forces in Siberia.

Nov. 21. British-Indian troops occupy Busrah, in Mesopotamia.

Nov. 30. Russians invade Turkish Armenia. Turks under Enver Pasha are also conducting offensive against Russians in Transcaucasia.

Dec. 29. **Battle of Sarykamish,** Armenia, begins. Ends January 2, 1915. **Turks routed;** compelling also retreat of Turkish force which has occupied Ardahan, January 1.

NAVAL AND AIR OPERATIONS, 1914.

August. German merchantmen take refuge in many neutral ports, where interned. Later most of them are seized as neutrals which have become combatants. Almost all of German warships are at Kiel Canal, naval base; Austrian ones at Pola in the Adriatic. British fleet blockades German coast; French concentrate in Mediterranean. **Allied sea power is almost complete** from beginning of the war. The German Baltic fleet, a small Asiatic fleet, and a few commerce raiders remain at sea. **Mines are sown broadcast** without reference to international obligations.

Aug. 5. British destroyer flotilla sinks a German mine-layer.

Aug. 6. British cruiser *Amphion* sunk by a mine in the North Sea.

Aug. 10. *Goeben* and *Breslau* episode (see Outbreak of the War, above).

Aug. 13. British cruisers shell and raid Daressalam, German East Africa. [Adriatic.

Aug. 16. Austrian cruiser *Zenta* sunk in the

Aug. 26. British cruiser *Highflyer* sinks auxiliary cruiser *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* off West African coast.

Aug. 27. German cruiser *Magdeburg* goes ashore in Gulf of Finland. Blown up.

Aug. 28. Battle of **Bight of Helgoland.** Three German cruisers and two destroyers sunk by British. [submarine.

Sept. 5. British cruiser *Pathfinder* sunk by a

Sept. 10. **Emden,** German raider, appears in Bay of Bengal. [marine.

Sept. 13. German cruiser *Hela* sunk by a sub-

Sept. 14. German cruiser *Cap Trafalgar* sunk off Trinidad by British cruiser *Carmania.*

Sept. 20. German raiding cruiser *Königsberg* sinks British cruiser *Pegasus* off Zanzibar.

Sept. 22. **Three British cruisers sunk** within an hour by a submarine off Hook of Holland. *Emden* shells Madras. Trifling damage.

First British air raid; — on Düsseldorf.

Oct. 11. Russian cruiser *Pallada* sunk by a submarine in the Baltic.

Oct. 15. British cruiser *Hawke* sunk by submarine in North Sea.

Germans occupy **Zeebrugge and Ostend,** which **become great submarine bases.**

Oct. 17. British cruiser *Undaunted* and four destroyers sink four German destroyers off Dutch coast.

Oct. 18. British monitors bombard German coast lines in Flanders.

Oct. 27. British dreadnought *Audacious* sunk by a mine off coast of Ireland.

Oct. 28. *Emden* sinks a Russian cruiser and French destroyer, in harbor of Penang, and escapes.

Oct. 30. *Königsberg* discovered in Rufiji River, German East Africa. Blockaded but not destroyed until July 11, 1915.

Nov. 1. German Asiatic fleet of five cruisers under von Spee destroys two of the three British cruisers under Cradock off **Cape Coronel,** Chile.

Nov. 2. **North Sea** made a military area (see Outbreak of the War, above). [Yarmouth.

Nov. 3. German cruiser squadron bombards

Nov. 4. German cruiser *Karlsruhe,* operating since beginning of the war in the Pernambuco area, destroyed by a mysterious explosion. Had captured 17 vessels.

Nov. 9. **Emden,** after sinking 17 vessels, **destroyed** off Cocos Islands, by Australian cruiser *Sydney.*

Dec. 8. **Battle of Falkland Islands.** Heavy British fleet under Sturdee annihilates all von Spee's squadron except the *Dresden.*

Dec. 13. British submarine enters Dardanelles and sinks Turkish battleship *Messudiyeh.*

Dec. 16. **German cruisers bombard** Scarborough, Hartlepool, and Whitby, unfortified **points on British coast.**

Dec. 25. German warships bombed by British seaplanes off Cuxhaven.

German airplane attack on Dover.

Dec. 30. German airplane raid on Dunkirk.

DIPLOMACY AND DECLARATIONS, 1915.

For events that affect especially the United States, see also *Chronology* under United States.

Jan. 10. British preliminary reply to American protest.

Jan. 28. Sinking of the *William P. Frye.*

Feb. 2. Great Britain declares food "conditional contraband."

Feb. 4. **Germany declares** waters around Great Britain and Ireland a **war zone,** within which all enemy merchantmen will be destroyed without regard to safety of crew or passengers; and within which neutral vessels will not be safe.

Feb. 10. American note to Germany protesting against war zone.

Feb. 11. British seizure of cargo of *Wilhelmina,* food-laden, bound from United States to Germany. Becomes test case.

Feb. 16. German reply to war-zone note.

Feb. 20. Further American note on war zone.

Feb. 25. British foreign minister states that Allies approve of Russian desire for open-sea port; this interpreted to mean Constantinople. Unfavorable influence on Allied diplomacy in Balkans.

Feb. 28. French seizure of the *Dacia.*

March 2. Further German reply on war zone.

March 28. Sinking of the *Falaba* by submarine.

April 11–21. Von Bernstorff and American government discuss slipping of munitions.

April 26. Secret **treaty of London** between **Italy** and Allies (see Italy). In previous negotiations, at German promptings, Austria offers Trentino and other concessions, which Italy rejects as inadequate.

April 28. Attack on the *Cushing.*

May 1. Sinking of the *Gulflight.*

May 7. **Sinking of the Lusitania** by a submarine. 114 American lives lost. [speech.

May 10. Wilson's "too proud to fight"

1915 (*continued*).

May 13. First **American note on Lusitania.**

May 23. **Italy declares war on Austria.**

May 25. Submarine attack on *Nebraskan.*

May 28. First German reply defending sinking of the *Lusitania.*

June 4. German note on the *Gulflight,* promising indemnity. [*tania.*

June 9. Second American note on the *Lusi-*

June 28. Sinking of the *Armenian.*

June 29. Austro-Hungarian protest on sale of munitions from the United States

July 8. Second German reply on the *Lusitania.*

July 14. American protest on British admiralty decisions unfavorable to American neutral trade.

July 17. **Bulgarian secret treaty** with Central Powers, who have outbid Allies for her support.

July 21. Third American note on *Lusitania.*

July 28. Sinking of the *Leelanaw.*

Aug. 19. Sinking of the *Arabic.* Disavowed by German government, October 5.

Aug. 24. Serbia consents to relinquish territory to Bulgaria to gain her support of Allied side.

Sept. 1. German promise not to sink liners.

Sept. 4. Sinking of the *Hesperian.*

Sept. 9. Recall of Austrian ambassador at Washington requested because of violation of U. S neutrality. [GARIA).

Sept. 10. Turko-Bulgarian treaty (see BUL-

Sept. 14. Final Allied offer to Bulgaria (see BULGARIA). [traband.

Sept. 19. German promise on conditional con-

Sept. 21. **Venizelos,** Greek premier, realizing that Bulgaria intends to attack Serbia, with whom Greece has a defensive alliance, **asks troops of Allies.** Promised, and **Greece begins to mobilize** on September 23.

Oct. 2. **Allies** notify Greece of intention to **occupy Saloniki** in order to aid Serbia.

Oct. 5. **Bulgaria enters the war** on side of Central Powers, though war is not formally declared by her until October 14.
Venizelos is forced out of office by King Constantine, brother-in-law of German emperor. Venizelos secures a majority in new parliament. Again the king ignores the government. Mobilized Greek troops become a menace to Allies at Saloniki camp.

Oct. 21. Protest of United States to Allies on neutral rights.

November. Intrigue in Persia (see PERSIA).

Nov. 9. Sinking of the *Ancona.*

Dec. 1. Recall of German attachés at Washington, von Papen and Boy-Ed, demanded, because of violation of American neutrality.

Dec. 4. Henry Ford's peace expedition to Europe. No result. [on *Ancona.*

Dec. 6. American note to Austria-Hungary

Dec. 30. Sinking of the *Persia.*

WESTERN FRONT, 1915.

Jan. 8–14. Protracted **battle of Solssons.** First of various attempts on part of Allies to break through; all of them unsuccessful. Allies still short of artillery. German policy during the year is to keep western line stationary while driving back the Russians.

Feb. 17–April 12. Desperate French attempt to reduce the Saint-Mihiel salient. Fails.

March 10–12. British attack at **Neuve Chapelle.** Minor gains at large expense after a great artillery preparation and under a lifting barrage.

April 22–25. **Second battle of Ypres** begins. German attack follows (for first time except experimentally) a noxious gas preparation. French position penetrated, but Canadians hold the salient thus formed and prevent breaking or outflanking. Attack does not subside until May 24.

May 9–June 19. **Battle of Artois.** French (Foch, Pétain) attack on ridges south and west of Lens (Vimy and Nôtre Dame de Lorette). First day Nôtre Dame taken, but Vimy holds out. Assault continues, especially May 30–June 17 at the Labyrinth, which is finally taken. British assault on French left at Aubers (May 9) and Festubert (May 16–25) without essential success.

Sept. 25. Joffre begins attack in **Champagne** on front of 16 miles, after 3 days bombardment; overruns enemy's first line. At same time French capture Souchez, near Lens, but fail again at Vimy Ridge. British begin **battle of Loos,** north of Lens, and penetrate to enemy's third line; but lacking proper support fail to take Lens. Germans counterattack British September 26 and retake most of the ground. French in Champagne later take German second line, but enemy counterattacks on October 8 and saves his third line.

Dec. 15. General French resigns command of British force; **Haig** succeeds.

EASTERN FRONT, 1915.

Jan. 19. Austrian army enters Galicia in effort to relieve Przemyśl. Other armies advance on Lemberg and into Bukowina. Only success for Austria is in Bukowina, where Czernowitz is taken February 17.

Feb. 7. Hindenburg advances on Russians in East Prussia around Masurian Lakes and pushes them back; occupies Suvalki and advances to the Niemen, and also at the same time captures Przasnysz in northern Poland (February 24). He fails, however, to reach the Warsaw – Petrograd railroad, and retires into East Prussia again. Germans also attack on the Rawka – Bzura line before Warsaw.

March 22. Russians capture **Przemyśl** after a second siege of four months.

May 1. **Great Austro-German offensive** under Hindenburg and Mackensen begins. Russian lack of guns and munitions deciding factor in the campaign. Mackensen attacks on the Biala River south of Tarnów in Galicia. Russians, unable to reply to the unexampled bombardment, retreat, causing retirement of whole line. Tarnów captured May 6, and Jaroslau May 14; Austrians advance from the south against Przemyśl.

June 3. **Russians evacuate Przemyśl** and fall back on Lemberg.

June 8. Stanislau recaptured by Austrians.

June 19. Mackensen pierces the Lemberg line; the city falls June 22 and **all of Galicia is lost** to the Russians. Retreat here exposes the Polish salient to attack from the south as well as from the west and north.

July 14. Germans reoccupy Przasnysz.

July 15. Germans advance against Riga.

July 16–18. **Battle of Krasnostaw,** in southeastern Poland. Russians defeated and Austro-Germans occupy Lyublin, July 30.

July 19. **Hindenburg advances** from Przasnysz, forces the Narew River around Ostrolenka. Enemy thus in rear of **Warsaw** to both north and south. City **evacuated;** occupied by Austrians August 5. Russians retreat fast enough to prevent encirclement by Mackensen's northward movement on Brest-Litovsk.

July 30. Germans occupy Mitau, Kurland.

Aug. 17. Hindenburg occupies Kovno on the Niemen. Ossovetz, farther south, falls August 22. Mackensen is in Brest-Litovsk August 25. Vilno falls September 18, and Grodno, the last fortress of Russian second defense, September 20.

Sept. 6. Grand Duke Nicholas relieved, and czar takes nominal personal command. Retreat continues until end of September, when **Russians** stop the Germans and **occupy a line** from Riga along the Dvina to Dvinsk, then south by Pinsk (Pripyat Marshes) and Rovno to before Czernowitz. **Retreat costs Russians** about 350,000 killed, 1,250,000 prisoners, and 100,000 square miles of territory — primarily because of lack of munitions. German attacks on Dvinsk (October 3–10) and on Riga (November 10) fail.

ITALIAN FRONT, 1915.

May 25. **Italian campaign** under **Cadorna** up the Adige Valley against **Trent** and on the **Isonzo River** begins. Little progress is made on Trentino front; Roverето on the Adige (November 23) and, further east, Borgo occupied; but **difficulties of mountain campaign almost insuperable.** On the Isonzo, the bridgehead at Görz (Gorizia) withstands Italian attacks, though on the north Monte Nero (June 2) and to the south Monfalcone (June 9) east of the river are captured. Combat becomes one of positions on this front also.

July 18. Cadorna begins a determined **attack on Karst (Carso) plateau,** possession of which will open the way to Trieste and flank Görz. Active operations continue into August and a foothold is gained on the edge of the plateau.

Oct. 21. Italians, after three days of bombardment along whole of Isonzo front, begin several attacks. Main effort at Görz bridgehead results by beginning of December in some gains. On the Karst during the same period more minor gains are made; but **Austrian line not pierced.**

BALKAN FRONT, 1915.

Feb. 19. Allied **Gallipoli campaign** begins with a naval attack on the forts at entrance of Dardanelles. Campaign has Constantinople and possession of straits as objective, to relieve Russian and Near East communications and for **moral effect on Moslem World,** and, if possible, to unite western and Russian fronts. Forts at entrance silenced by February 25. Forts at **Narrows bombarded** March 6, 7, and again on March 18; operation suspended (as develops later, just when Turkish forts have about exhausted their ammunition) in order to await arrival of army. One French and two British battleships sunk by mines; a British battle cruiser beached.

April 24–28. **Troops under Hamilton land;** about 120,000 men on the peninsula, some French, but mostly British — Australians and New Zealanders (**Anzacs**), East Indians, regulars, and marines. Objective — high ground commanding forts at Narrows. Delay of troops gives Turks, under von Sanders, time to prepare defenses.

May 1–8. Fighting at Krithia, at tip of peninsula, fails to advance invaders and war of positions results. Another attack June 4 also fails. Meanwhile, three more battleships sunk and most of navy withdraws.

May 29. Italians occupy Avlona in Albania.

Aug. 6–10. **Assault by Anzacs** at Sari-Bahr commanding the Narrows of the Dardanelles. Fails through lack of proper coöperation. This practically **ends active operations of Gallipoli** campaign.

Oct. 5. Allied troops land at **Saloniki** (see DIPLOMACY, above), but force too small to furnish effective aid to Serbia in ensuing campaign.

Oct. 6. Joint German-Austrian-Bulgarian **campaign against Serbia** opens. Mackensen commands. October 8, **Belgrade captured.** Serbians steadily pushed southward, while Austrians attack from Bosnia and Bulgarians attack on the east.

Oct. 19. **Bulgarians,** after heavy fighting, **occupy Vranja,** cutting the communication of Allies at Saloniki with Serbians centered at Nish. Advancing Allies occupy Strumnitza.

Nov. 4. Main **Serbian force evacuates Nish** and retreats to southwest toward Prishtina. Bulgarians and Germans from the north effect a junction. Meanwhile another Serbian army farther west has been driven southward by Austrians advancing from southern Bosnia. Pursuing enemy occupies Prishtina November 26; and remnant of Serbian army with government and many refugees continue **disordered retreat** over the mountains **into Albania.**

Nov. 18. Bulgarians capture Prilep; also Monastir, December 1, the remaining Serbian army retiring into Greek territory. Allies, having moved up the Vardar and Cerna in aid of this army, retire to Saloniki camp.

Dec. 8. Monro, who has succeeded Hamilton, begins the **withdrawal from Gallipoli,** which is accomplished successfully. Last troops leave January 8, 1916.

OUTLYING OPERATIONS, 1915.

Jan. 9. Turks, who have invaded Persia in fall of 1914, take Tabriz, but are driven out by Russians January 30. In May Turks withdraw temporarily from Persia.

Feb. 3. **Turks reach Suez Canal** at three points. Main attack at Tussum. Defeated, and retreat across Sinai again.

Feb. 8. Boer rebels having been put down, **Botha** as commander of South African troops sails for Walfish Bay to reopen campaign against **German Southwest Africa.**

April 11. British occupy Kurna, at confluence of Euphrates and Tigris rivers; April 14, defeat the Turks at Shaiba, near Busrah. Goal of expedition, **Bagdad,** valuable for political rather than military reasons, best reached up the Tigris. To protect flanks of this advance, movements made toward Persian frontier and up Euphrates, with success in both cases.

May 12. Three converging columns occupy Windhuk, capital of German Southwest Africa.

May 20. Russians capture **Van** in Armenia.

June 3. **Townshend** in advance up Tigris **captures Amara.**

July 9. German army in **German Southwest Africa surrenders.** [Mesopotamia.

Sept. 29. British capture **Kut-el-Amara,** in

October. Allies attack Kamerun from all sides.

November. Invasion of western Egypt by the Senussi, under German direction. Beaten back after five months of fighting.

Nov. 22–24. **Battle of Ctesiphon,** below Bagdad. Turks force Townshend to retreat, until **Kut** is reached December 7, where the **British are besieged.**

NAVAL AND AIR OPERATIONS, 1915.

For orders and sinkings involving neutrals, see DIPLOMACY, above.

Jan. 1. British battleship *Formidable* torpedoed in English Channel.

Jan. 19. **First Zeppelin raid** over England; — at Norfolk.

Jan. 24. **Naval battle of the Dogger Bank,** 5 British battle cruisers under **Beatty** defeat 3 German battle cruisers and 1 armored cruiser (*Blücher*), which last is sacrificed as others escape.

Feb. 18. German war-zone policy, announced on February 4 (see DIPLOMACY, above), goes into operation, with large increase in **sinkings by submarines,** including liners.

Feb. 19. Beginning of naval operations in Dardanelles (see BALKAN FRONT, above).

March 10. German raider *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* puts in at Newport News, Va., where interned.

March 14. *Dresden,* last of the German Asiatic fleet, sunk off Juan Fernandez Island.

March 20. **Zeppelin raid over Paris.**

April 11. Converted cruiser *Kronprinz Wilhelm* puts in at Newport News, Va., and is interned. *Königsberg,* last surface war vessel of Central Powers outside home ports, is blockaded in Rufiji River, East Africa, and destroyed July 11.

1915 (*continued*).

April 27. French armored cruiser *Léon Gambetta* torpedoed in Strait of Otranto.

May 31. **Zeppelin raid over London.** During remainder of year 16 other raids over England take place; but defense against them successfully develops and Germans substitute airplanes for airships in subsequent raids.

June 13. Austrian squadron raids Fano, Italy, and on July 23, Ortona.

July 2. German cruiser *Pommern* torpedoed by British submarines in the Baltic.

July 8. Italian cruiser sunk by Austrian submarine in Adriatic. On July 18, another.

Aug. 19–20. German fleet defeated in Gulf of Riga by Russian fleet, losing 3 cruisers and 8 destroyers.

Aug. 14. British transport sunk by submarine in Ægean Sea: four other transports sunk in the Mediterranean during the year.

Up to the end of 1915, 883 Allied and neutral **merchant vessels** (1,645,000 tons) have been **destroyed**, and 71 (175,000 tons) of Central Powers' ships. Very large German tonnage seized in enemies' ports or detained in neutral ports. During the year 20 Zeppelin and 4 **airplane raids** over Great Britain; 209 killed, 538 injured; 2 Zeppelins destroyed.

DIPLOMACY AND DECLARATIONS, 1916.

For events that affect especially the United States, see also *Chronology* under UNITED STATES.

Jan. 4. American protest on mail seizures by the Allies.

Jan. 7. German note that submarines in the Mediterranean are forbidden to sink merchantmen without warning or regard for security of crew and passengers.

Jan. 18. American suggestion of modification of submarine warfare and armed merchantmen. British reply, March 23, declining to accede.

Feb. 8. Germany and Austria announce that all armed merchantmen will be considered belligerent vessels to be destroyed without warning (after February 29).

March 9. **Germany declares war on Portugal** because of seizure by Portugal (February 23 and later) of interned German vessels, at British behest. Previous to this, Great Britain has made no demand on her ally, though in Africa the Portuguese neutrality has been very benevolent toward the Allies. [packet **Sussex.**

March 24. **Sinking of the** French Channel

March 30. Great Britain applies doctrine of continuous voyage to conditional as well as absolute contraband. [test on mail seizures.

April 3. Anglo-French reply to American pro-

April 18. **American ultimatum to Germany** on submarine warfare.

April 24. Anglo-French reply to American protest of October 21, 1915.

May 4. German reply, yielding conditionally to American ultimatum. [reply.

May 8. American acknowledgment of German

May 9, 16. Anglo-French secret agreement on Asia Minor (see SYRIA). [seizures.

May 24. Second American protest on mail

June 5. Husein, Grand Shereef of Mecca, declares his independence of Turkey.

June 6. Pacific **blockade of Greece** by Allies for allowing Bulgarians to cross frontier.

June 21. Allies demand of king of Greece that he demobilize army and dismiss anti-Ally ministry. Ministry ousted, but demobilization delayed.

July 18. British order blacklisting certain firms in the United States and elsewhere which are supposed to be controlled by Germans.

July 26. American protest on blacklisting.

Aug. 17. **Secret treaty of Roumania** with Allies, in which she is promised practically all of Hungary east of the Tisza River. Russian advance favorable to participation of movement into Transylvania. Allies promise aid from Saloniki.

Aug. 27. **Roumania declares war on Austria.** [mania.

Aug. 29. Austria's allies declare war on Rou-

Sept. 29. Venizelos establishes provisional government in Crete. Allies recognize it.

Oct. 10. Reply to American protest on blacklisting.

Oct. 11. Greek navy placed under control of Allies on their ultimatum. [seizures.

Oct. 12. Second Anglo-French reply on mail

Oct. 13. Norway prohibits belligerent submarines from using her territorial waters. Germany protests, October 20, but Norway reiterates her position, November 4.

Oct. 17. Allies send troops to Athens.

Oct. 28. Venizelos's provisional government installed at Saloniki.

Oct. 29. Husein proclaimed king of the Arabs.

Nov. 7. Sinking of the *Columbian.*

Nov. 23. Greece, provisional government, declares war on Germany and Bulgaria. Cf. JUNE 30, 1917.

Nov. 28. Sinking of the *Chemung.*

Nov. 29. American protest to Germany on **deportation of Belgians.**

Dec. 1, 2. Attacks in Athens on detachments of Allied troops. Allied ships drop a few shells in the city and demonstration ceases. Later, Greece salutes Allied flags in reparation. [GERMANY).

Dec. 12. Peace note of Central Powers (see

Husein recognized by Allies as king of the Hejaz.

Dec. 18. American peace note. [note.

Dec. 26. Reply of Germany to American peace

Dec. 29. Reply of Allies to peace note of Central Powers (see GERMANY).

WESTERN FRONT, 1916.

Feb. 21. **Verdun campaign** begins with a stupendous German bombardment on a 6-mile sector north and east of the Meuse. Reduction of Verdun salient by Germans would end its menace against the iron fields of Briey basin and extend the German front. Infantry attack begins the next day. February 25, **Fort de Douaumont,** one of main outer defenses, falls. Pétain succeeds as French commander. His policy of counterattacks checks German advance.

March 6. Germans transfer field of attack to west of the river, carrying Hill 265 (Le **Mort Homme**) next day. Attack and counterattack continue through April and May. Germans making some advance at crippling cost, but without definite results. French retain city and preserve an unbroken front.

April 24. Revolt in Ireland (see GREAT BRITAIN).

June 7. Germans finally capture **Fort de Vaux,** another main defense east of the river before Verdun. Fort de Souville, the third of the main points east of the river, resists attack throughout July and August. With opening of the **battle of the Somme,** Verdun operations become secondary. Defense notable for the utilization of **motor transport** over the only road of supply.

June 24. Allied artillery preparation begins **battle of the Somme.** Bombardment lasts a week over the German Noyon salient between Arras and La Fère.

July 1. Allied attack begins on both sides of the Somme, with **Bapaume and Péronne as objectives.** By July 5 British have taken German first line on a front of 6 miles north from Fricourt on the river. French advance a depth of six miles on a front of 10 miles and by July 9 are across the river from Péronne. German counterattacks after July 14 stay French advance.

July 14. **Haig begins his attack** on the German second line and takes Pozières on July 25, but losses are great and German counterattacks check the British advance and also prevent conquest of the ridge from Thiepval southeast, which commands the Bapaume–Péronne road.

Aug. 4. Haig attacks the Thiepval salient, but Germans retain possession throughout the month.

Aug. 29. **Von Falkenhayn,** German **chief of staff,** primarily responsible for Verdun attack, **succeeded by Hindenburg.**

Sept. 3. Allies resume the drive north of the Somme with Combles as immediate objective. **Tanks used for the first time** in this drive. September 4, attack begins also south of the river with Chaulnes as objective. September 26, Germany evacuates **Combles.** September 26, British finally capture **Thiepval.** October 7, British capture Le Sars, which puts them within 4 miles of Bapaume, but the advance is stayed here. November 18, the battle ends with the reduction by the British of the salient formed on the Ancre by the advance south of it. French fail to capture Chaulnes. **Results** of prolonged battle leave German line intact but badly dented and lead to the completion in the rear by the Germans of a continuous fortified system of defenses called the **Hindenburg line.**

Oct. 24. Nivelle at Verdun **recovers Fort de Douaumont.** November 2, Fort de Vaux reoccupied. December 15–16, French attack north of Douaumont recovers much ground, and later the original French lines are almost completely restored.

EASTERN FRONT, 1916.

March 18. General Kuropatkin, commanding Russian northern armies, begins an offensive south of Dvinsk (Lake Naroch). Artillery preparation insufficient and operation fails, dying down by April 14.

June 3. Brusilov, commanding **Russian** southern armies, now newly equipped, begins an **attack** to relieve the Italians. **Advance** is rapid **in Ukraine.** June 6, Lutsk recaptured; June 10, Dubno. June 16, the Russians, having advanced 50 miles, pass the Galician frontier. June 17, farther south, **Czernowitz taken.** Bukowina being cleared of Austrians, Russian troops there turn north into Galicia also. Kolomea occupied June 28 and southern passes of Carpathians secured. This and advance on north compels retirement of intervening Austrian army and **Stanislau occupied** August 10. Connection made with Roumanians, but Russian **ammunition again spent,** and expected efficient aid to Roumanians does not materialize.

ITALIAN AND BALKAN FRONTS, 1916.

Jan. 22. Austrians take Antivari, and complete **occupation of Montenegro,** January 23, by capture of Scutari. Montenegrin government joins that of Serbia in exile. Defeated **Serbian troops** in Albania taken by Allies in January and February from Durazzo to Corfu for **reconstruction,** thence to Saloniki.

May 14. Austrians under von Hötzendorf launch **Trentino offensive** against Italy, to cut line of communication between Milan and Isonzo front. Asiago and Arsiero plateau cleared by end of month; but Austrian right from Rovereto is held up in passes. Russian advances in June compel Austrians to cease offensive; final attack below Asiago, June 18, fails. Italian counterattacks, June 25, 27, recover Arsiero and Asiago, but Austrians continue to hold position in advance of that of 1915.

Aug. 6. Final Italian attack on Görz bridgehead. **Görz captured** August 9. Attack continues on Karst plateau behind Görz, which covers the way both to Trieste and Laibach on road to Vienna. Austrians retain control through attacks in September and November.

Aug. 28. Roumanians begin invasion of Transylvania from east and south. Advance 50 miles. Plan calls for coöperative movements by Russians and also by Allies from Saloniki, but both fail. Bulgarians push Allies back from Lerin (Florina) on Greek border, August 18–25, while their rear is threatened by Constantine's Greek army.

Sept. 2. Mackensen with German, Bulgarian, and Turkish troops, invades Dobruja south of the Danube at three points. September 8, frontier fortress of Bazarjik taken; also Tutrakan (Turtukai) on the Danube, which, with occupation of Silistra, September 9, exposes Bucharest.

Sept. 15. On left of the Allied Saloniki force, the reconstructed Serbian forces advance. Lerin (Florina) recovered from Bulgarians, September 18, and movement against Monastir begun.

Sept. 19. Falkenhayn attacks the Roumanians in Transylvania, driving them over the border (October 8) on the south and compelling retirement of advance from the east by October 16.

Oct. 19–22. Mackensen drives the Roumanians and Russians from the defense of the Bucharest–Constanţa railroad east of the Danube and commands the great bridge at Cerna-Vodă.

Oct. 25. **Falkenhayn** captures Vulcan Pass, on northwestern frontier of Wallachia, **defeats Roumanians** at Turgu-Jiu (November 15–17) and enters Craiova November 21, cutting off the army to the west, which later surrenders. Italians, having occupied southern Albania, extend their line across northern Greece to union with forces from Saloniki.

Nov. 19. **Serbians** with Allied help **occupy Monastir.**

Dec. 6. To prevent encirclement, **Avarescu,** Roumanian commander in chief, **abandons Bucharest.** Rest of Wallachia and all of Dobruja also evacuated, and Roumanians with Russians retire to a line across southern end of Moldavia, which they hold generally until the treaty of peace. Occupation of Wallachia gives Central Powers control of grain and oil fields and shortens their eastern line.

OUTLYING OPERATIONS, 1916.

Jan. 1. **Allies capture** Yaunde, capital of German **Kamerun.** Last post of colony **surrenders** February 18.

Jan. 4. Lake's Anglo-Indian column starts to **relieve Kut;** but fails by end of month to break the Turkish line on left bank of the Tigris.

Jan. 11. Russians begin a winter campaign in Armenia.

Jan. 16–18. Battle of Kuprikeni, east of Erzerum. Turks, defeated, retreat on the city.

Feb. 16. **Erzerum occupied;** Turks retreat without defending it. Mush (February 19) and Bitlis (March 2) also occupied. Retreat compels retirement farther north and uncovers Trebizond, main port of Turkish Armenia.

Feb. 27. Kermanshah, Persia, taken from Turks by Russians.

March 7–9. Lake fails in attempt to break Turkish lines before Kut on right bank of the Tigris (Dujailah redoubt).

April 4. Lake takes the Umm-el-Hanna position on left bank of the Tigris, but further attacks on April 8, 20–21, fail.

April 18. **Russians occupy Trebizond.**

April 22. British forces, mainly from South Africa, in control of northern half of German East Africa. [starved out.

April 29. **Townshend surrenders** at Kut;

June 20. Husein occupies Mecca. By end of year he has complete control over the Hejaz, ex-

1916 *(continued)*.

cept Medina and territory along the railroad to Damascus.

July 2. Turks recapture Kermanshah, Persia.

July 25. **Russians** occupy Erzingan as extreme point of advance in the center in Armenia; Mush being on the left and Platana on the Black Sea on the right. This gives **control of most of Armenia,** but Russians unable to use position for further advance into Asia Minor against Constantinople or to join British in Mesopotamia.

Aug. 4–5. **Turks** attack British at Romani, head of the railway being constructed across Sinai Peninsula; **defeated and retreat.**

Sept. 4. **Daressalam,** port and capital of German East Africa, **surrenders.** Allied forces, chiefly Belgians from Congo and troops from South Africa, continue operations in the interior, gradually pushing the Germans southward.

Dec. 13. New offensive against Kut begun by Anglo-Indian troops under Maude.

NAVAL AND AIR OPERATIONS, 1916.

For naval events involving neutrals, see under DIPLOMACY, above.

Jan. 6. British battleship *King Edward VII.* sunk by a mine off north coast of Scotland.

Jan. 11. German auxiliary cruiser *Möwe,* having slipped through the blockade, is found operating in the Atlantic. She returns to port safely March 4, after sinking 54,000 tons of shipping and sending the *Appam,* a captured British liner, to the United States where, however, that vessel is ultimately returned to owners.

Feb. 26. French transport sunk in Mediterranean; heavy loss of life. [its opponent.

Feb. 29. Another raider, the *Greif,* sunk; also

March 30. Russian hospital ship sunk in Black Sea by a submarine. [England.

March 31–April 5. Five **Zeppelin raids** in

May 31. **Battle of Jutland,** only big squadron naval battle of the war. German high-seas fleet puts out behind a screen of battle cruisers. Beatty's British battle-cruiser fleet, soon assisted by 4 battleships, begins the fight. **Jellicoe's** Grand Fleet arrives about two hours after battle begins. Battle upon, under, and over the sea. German fleet, being headed, draws off and escapes back to port through the unfavorable weather conditions. British lose 3 battle cruisers, 3 cruisers, 7 destroyers, and 1 other vessel. Germans acknowledge loss of 1 battle cruiser, 1 battleship, 4 cruisers, and 5 destroyers.

June 5. Lord Kitchener lost when cruiser *Hampshire,* on which he is *en route* to Russia, is sunk by a mine west of the Orkney Islands.

June 9. Italian transport sunk by a submarine in Adriatic, with great loss of life.

July 9. German merchant-submarine *Deutschland* arrives at Baltimore, Md., with cargo. Returns safely to Germany, August 23.

Aug. 19. German battleship *Westfalen* sunk by a British submarine.

Oct. 7. German war submarine in American waters (see UNITED STATES).

Nov. 1. Italian torpedo boats raid Pola.

Deutschland arrives at New London, Conn., on second and last trip, reaching Germany on return, December 10. [Mediterranean.

Nov. 24. British hospital ship torpedoed in

Nov. 25 French battleship *Suffren* sunk by a submarine in the Adriatic.

Dec. 3. German submarine (cruiser type) bombards Funchal, Madeira.

Dec. 11. Italian battleship *Regina Margherita* sunk by a mine in the Adriatic.

Dec. 27. French battleship *Gaulois* sunk by a submarine in the Mediterranean.

During 1916, 1065 Allied and neutral **merchant vessels,** of 2,000,000 tons, **lost.** Central Powers lose 17 ships of 37,000 tons. 22 **Zeppelin** and 16 **airplane raids** over Great Britain result in death of 311 and injury of 752. 9 Zeppelins destroyed.

DIPLOMACY AND DECLARATIONS, 1917.

For events that affect especially the United States, see also *Chronology* under UNITED STATES.

Jan. 10. Reply of the Allies to **Wilson's peace note,** embodying purposes of war: (1) Restoration of Belgium, Serbia, and Montenegro, with indemnities; (2) Evacuation of France, Russia, and Roumania, with reparation; (3) Reorganization of Europe, with full security and liberty of economic development for all nations great or small; (4) Liberation of Italian, Slav, Roumanian, and Czecho-Slovak subject people; (5) Enfranchisement of populations subject to the Turks; (6) Expulsion of Ottoman Empire from Europe; (7) Poland an autonomous government. In general, no intention to encompass extermination of German people or their political disappearance; but overthrow of Prussian militarism.

Jan. 22. President Wilson's "peace without victory" address.

Jan. 31. German note on renewal of **unlimited submarine warfare.**

Feb. 3. **Diplomatic relations** between United States and Germany **severed.**

Sinking of the *Housatonic.*

Feb. 4. American note to other neutrals.

Feb. 26. Requisition of Dutch ships in British ports.

Feb. 28. Zimmermann note to German minister in Mexico urging war on the United States.

March 12. Sinking of the *Algonquin.*

Russian revolution (see RUSSIA).

March 14. China severs diplomatic relations with Germany. [ships.

March 16–18. Sinking of 3 other American

March 22. Sinking of the *Healdton.*

April 6. **United States declares war on Germany.** [on Germany.

April 7. **Cuba and Panama declare war**

April 8. Austria severs diplomatic relations with United States. [with Germany.

April 11. Brazil severs diplomatic relations

April 14. Bolivia severs diplomatic relations with Germany. [with United States.

April 20. Turkey severs diplomatic relations

April 28. Guatemala severs diplomatic relations with Germany. [with Germany.

May 8. Liberia severs diplomatic relations

May 17. Honduras severs diplomatic relations with Germany. [tions with Germany.

May 19. Nicaragua severs diplomatic rela-

June 2. Brazil seizes interned German ships.

June 12. At demand of Allies **Constantine** of Greece **abdicates** in favor of second son, Alexander. Venizelos becomes regular premier, June 25.

June 13. **Gen. Pershing** and staff arrive **in Paris.**

June 18. Haiti severs diplomatic relations with Germany. [**France.**

June 26. **First American troops** arrive **in**

June 30. Greece, regular government, breaks off relations with Germany and Austria; tantamount to declaration of war. [SLAVIA).

July 20. Declaration of Corfu (see JUGO-

July 22. **Siam declares war on Germany.**

Aug. 1. Pope's peace note (see ITALY, also, for replies).

Aug. 4. **Liberia declares war on Germany.**

Aug. 14. **China declares war on Germany and Austria.**

Aug. 27. American reply to pope's note. Allies approve of reply.

Sept. 3. Luxburg disclosures on "*spurlos versenkt*" ("sunk without trace").

Sept. 21. Costa Rica severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

Oct. 5. Peru severs diplomatic relations with Germany. [with Germany.

Oct. 7. Uruguay severs diplomatic relations

Oct. 19. American embargo on trade with neutral Holland and Scandinavian countries.

Oct. 26. **Brazil declares war on Germany.**

Dec. 1. First meeting at Versailles of **Inter-allied Council.** [Austria-Hungary.

Dec. 7. **United States declares war on** Independence of Finland (see FINLAND).

Ecuador severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

Dec. 10. Panama declares war on Austria-Hungary. [gary.

Dec. 12. Cuba declares war on Austria-Hun-

Armistice between **Roumania** and **Central Powers.**

Dec. 17. **Russian Soviet government** and Central Powers agree to **armistice.**

Dec. 23. Peace conference between Central Powers and Russian Soviet government meets at **Brest-Litovsk.**

WESTERN FRONT, 1917.

Jan. 11. Haig renews the offensive north of the Somme against the Ancre salient left by the battles of 1916 and against Bapaume. Progress made. Grandcourt occupied, February 7. February 24, Germans begin a general retirement along the Ancre, and by March 13 the British are before Bapaume.

March 15. **Germans** begin a **retirement** all along the 100-mile line of the Noyon salient from north of Arras to near Reims, to the prepared **Hindenburg line,** fighting only rear-guard actions. New line, attained without appreciable hindrance, leaves Cambrai, Saint-Quentin, and La Fère within German lines. **Germans** systematically **lay waste region** over which they retreat.

April 9. **First battle of Arras** begins. British attack from south of Arras to south of Lens. Canadians take **Vimy Ridge** April 9. Fighting continues to May 16. Lens reached, but city not taken. Canadians take Fresnoy-le-Grand southeast of Lens, May 3, and **Hindenburg line pierced.** Battle extends southward toward Cambrai. May 12–17 **Bullecourt,** on the Hindenburg line, midway between Arras and Cambrai, **taken.** German counterattacks recover some ground including Fresnoy-le-Grand, May 8, but fail before Vimy Ridge.

April 16. French under Nivelle open the **second battle of the Aisne,** between Soissons and Reims; storm Craonne May 4, and get up to the **Chemin des Dames** May 5; but advance there halts because of too heavy losses, and battle ends May 20. Pétain succeeds Nivelle, May 15, and **Foch** takes Pétain's place as **chief of staff.**

April 17. At same time French attack **Moronvilliers Heights,** east of Reims, with partial success by April 22. Renewed on April 30 and on May 20, with further advantage, though without complete possession of the heights.

June 7. British begin the first stage of **third battle of Ypres** by a vast mine explosion under **Messines Ridge** south of Ypres. Fighting lasts until June 14. Ridge taken. Attack is first movement toward capture of Menin and Roulers in order to force Germans to evacuate submarine bases of Zeebrugge and Ostend.

July 31. Second stage of attack, on **Passchendaele Ridge,** east of Ypres, opens. Continues with intervals until November 6, when Passchendaele is taken. Advances made, at great cost, insufficient for ultimate purpose. All the gains are lost in German offensive of next spring.

Aug. 20–23. Pétain completes restoration of original lines before Verdun.

Oct. 23. Renewal of French attack on the Aisne results by November 2 in complete possession of **Chemin des Dames;** Germans retire to north side of Ailette.

Nov. 20–23. **Battle of Cambrai** opens. British surprise attack southwest of the city, with great dependence on tanks. Byng's troops get within two miles of Cambrai, when counterattacks stay the advance. Proper support not given to hold ground gained. **Von Ludendorff,** who has virtually succeeded Hindenburg as **head of the German armies,** by a counteroffensive, November 30, compels British right to retreat in disorder; but British able to hold part of gains and remain within striking distance of the city.

EASTERN FRONT, 1917.

July 1. General Kornilov, **Russian** commander in chief under the revolutionary government, launches **offensive** in Galicia against Lemberg. Halicz (July 10) and Kalusz (July 11) north of Stanislau taken; but by July 21 **Bolshevist propaganda** has undermined morale of the troops and **retreat** begins which **clears both Galicia and Bukowina,** and continues till line of 1915 retirement is reached.

Aug. 22. Germans advance against **Riga,** cross the Dvina September 2, and occupy city September 3. Advance continues along the Dvina to Yakobshtat, September 22. After defeating Russians in Gulf of Riga (October 14–17) Germans land forces at Verder, Esthonia, October 21, threatening **Revel,** the gateway to Petrograd; but when Bolsheviki get control of Russian government Germans retire to east of Riga.

Dec. 17. **Armistice begins.**

ITALIAN AND BALKAN FRONTS, 1917.

There were no important operations on the Balkan front in 1917. Russo-Roumanian line across southern Moldavia forced back slightly, Brăila being captured January 5.

May 14–June 1. Main army under Cadorna renews the assault on **Bainsizza and Karst plateaus,** east of the Isonzo. Austrian counteroffensive brings attack to an unsuccessful close.

Aug. 19. Another effort made against the plateaus. By September 14 most of the Bainsizza taken and way to Laibach almost opened. Farther south, battle on the Karst is less successful.

Oct. 24. Troops from east concentrate against Italy. Germans under von Below break through at **Caporetto,** a quiet section on the Isonzo north of Bainsizza plateau, getting on flank and rear of Italians on Görz front. October 30, Udine, grand headquarters of Italian army, occupied. Center and right of **Italian army** through to the coast **retreats in disorder** and with heavy loss, but is not cut off. Italians in Carnic Alps also forced to retreat by exposure of right flank. Italians attempt stands at the **Tagliamento** (October 31) and the **Livenza** (November 8), but retreat does not end until **line of Piave** is reached about November 15. **Diaz** displaces Cadorna as commander in chief, November 9. Some British and French troops are sent to assist Italians.

Nov. 9. **Attack** shifts to the northern (Alpine) front **to turn the Piave position.** Asiago captured, but Italian lines successfully resist here as well as on the Piave. By end of year winter stops the mountain operations. Offensive yields about 300,000 prisoners and 4,000 square miles of Italian territory.

Dec. 12. **Armistice** between Roumanians and Central Powers. Retirement of Russian line and of Russian troops in Moldavia leaves Roumania helpless.

OUTLYING OPERATIONS, 1917.

January. Maude's Anglo-British forces begin attack on Turkish lines south of Kut.

1917 (*continued*).

Jan. 9. Turks driven from Rafa, and **British control** whole of **Sinai Peninsula,** preparatory to an invasion of Syria. [toward Bagdad.]

Feb. 24. **Kut captured.** Turks retreat[

March 7. Turks make a stand below **Bagdad;** but, being defeated, abandon the city, which is **occupied** March 11.

March 20. **Turkish forces retreating** from Hamadan, Persia, since fall of Kut, and pursued by Russians, make a stand at Pai-Tak Pass. British advancing from Bagdad in rear of this position, Turks again retreat March 30, and evade the encircling British force, ultimately joining Turks from Bagdad. Russian-British forces meet April 2, but no continuous line maintained.

March 27, April 7. British forces under Murray **defeat the Turks** near Gaza on border of Syria; but no further action until autumn. Turks heavily fortify Gaza-Beersheba line.

April 23. British capture Samarra, northern terminus of Tigris River railroad from Bagdad.

Sept. 28–29. Maude defeats Turks at Ramadie on the Euphrates, west of Bagdad.

Oct. 31. **Allenby,** Murray's successor, breaks Turkish line and **captures Beersheba** in Palestine. Gaza, at other end of line, falls, November 6. British advance cuts Jerusalem–Jaffa (Joppa) railway. **Jaffa occupied** November 7, giving invaders a new base.

Dec. 1. Last German force in **German East Africa** driven into Portuguese territory, where it maintains itself until its surrender Nov. 14, 1918.

Dec. 9. **Turks evacuate Jerusalem. Allenby** formally **enters** on foot December 11. **Arabs** under Prince Feisal **assist in campaign** by operating along Damascus railroad to the east.

NAVAL AND AIR OPERATIONS, 1917.

Jan. 11. British battleship *Cornwallis* sunk by a submarine in Mediterranean. During the year transports are frequently sunk in this sea.

Jan. 31. Central Powers announce resumption of **unrestricted submarine warfare,** although the sinkings increased rapidly before the announcement. Total **sinkings reach peak** April, 1917, with 875,000 tons. Naval forces of United States aid effectively after this in combating the submarines, and **failure** of German plans evident by July. Total of sinkings decreases rapidly; also size of boats sunk. Convoys almost immune from attack, and flow of American troops and supplies to Europe not affected. [in Mediterranean.]

March 19. French battleship *Danton* torpedoed[

March 21. British **hospital ship sunk** without warning by a submarine. Another, March 30. Two more, April 17.

March 23. *Möwe* returns to port after a second raid on Allied shipping, sinking 27 vessels.

April 20. Five German destroyers raid Dover Two are sunk. [waters.]

May 17. American destroyers reach British[

June 13. Daylight attack on London by 15 German airplanes. [mine off Bombay.]

June 23. British liner *Mongolia* sunk by a[

Aug. 11. British liner *City of Athens* sunk by a mine near Capetown.

Sept. 16. **Allied air raid on German cities;** repeated September 22. September 24–October 1, Germans make five night air raids on London.

Oct. 14. Action between German and Russian fleets in Gulf of Riga. October 17, Russians abandon battleship *Slava.*

Oct. 17. Scandinavian merchantmen convoyed in North Sea by 2 British destroyers attacked by Germans. Destroyers and most of convoy sunk.

Oct. 19. **Zeppelin raid over London.** At least 11 airships participate; 5 of them brought down in France on return journey.

Dec. 6. American destroyer *Jacob Jones* torpedoed by a submarine.

Dec. 9. Italians torpedo two Austrian battleships in port of Trieste, sinking one.

During the year the **shipping sunk** by the Central Powers amounted to about 6,600,000 tons. 27 **airplane** and 6 Zeppelin **raids** over Great Britain recorded; killed 697, injured 1,644.

DIPLOMACY, DECLARATIONS, AND NEGOTIATIONS, 1918.

For events that affect especially the United States, see also *Chronology* under UNITED STATES.

Jan. 5. Statement of peace policy by Lloyd George. [CZECHO-SLOVAKIA).]

Jan. 6. Independence of Czecho-Slovakia (see[

Jan. 8. Wilson's **"fourteen points"** peace speech (see UNITED STATES).

Jan. 24. German and Austrian pronouncements on Wilson's speech (see AUSTRIA and GERMANY, *Chronology*).

Feb. 9. **Treaty** between **Ukraine** and **Central Powers** at **Brest-Litovsk.** Independence recognized. Efforts of Central Powers to exploit region fails.

Feb. 10. Russian **Soviet delegates withdraw from Brest-Litovsk** in protest at German demands contrary to the "no annexations, no indemnities" slogan, as well as to Soviet expectation of favors returned. German army begins to move on Petrograd, February 18, and Bolsheviki return to the peace conference.

Feb. 11. Wilson's second formulation of peace policy (see UNITED STATES).

Feb. 24. Esthonian republic (see ESTHONIA).

March 3. **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** between Bolsheviki and Central Powers. Russia surrenders Ukraine, Poland, Kurland, Lithuania, Finland, and western half of Livonia and Esthonia. Eastern half of these left to self-determination under German protection. Also cedes Erivan, Batum, and Kars in Transcaucasia to Turkey. Germany seizes Black Sea fleet and her troops overrun the littoral. Bessarabia turned over by Russia to Roumania in compensation for Dobruja.

April 10. Congress of the Oppressed Austrian Nationalities (see JUGO-SLAVIA).

April 21. **Guatemala declares war on Germany.** [many.]

May 6. **Nicaragua declares war on Germany. Treaty of Bucharest** between **Roumania** and **Central Powers.** Dobruja ceded, also strategic territory on border of Hungary. Central Powers given important economic rights.

May 23. **Costa Rica declares war on Germany.** [terms of peace.]

July 4. Wilson's Mount Vernon speech on[

July 15. **Haiti declares war on Germany.**

July 19. **Honduras declares war on Germany.**

August. **Supplementary agreements** between Russian **Soviet government** and **Germany:** indemnity of a billion and a half dollars; free trade with Germany; renunciation of all rights to eastern half of Esthonia and Livonia; independence of Georgia.

Aug. 5. Announcement of agreement by **United States and Japan** for **intervention in Siberia** where the Czecho-Slovaks (see CZECHO-SLOVAKIA) are operating.

Sept. 27. Wilson's speech laying down the five principles for foundation of League of Nations.

Sept. 30. **Bulgarian armistice** signed.

Oct. 5, 8, 12, 14, 20, 23. German peace notes to United States and replies.

Oct. 7, 19. Austrian peace note to United States and reply. [armistice.]

Oct. 27. Germany requests proposals for an[

Oct. 30. **Turkish armistice** signed.

Nov. 3. **Austrian armistice** signed.

Nov. 4. Wilson sends Allied reply to German proposal for armistice. German representatives can get the terms by applying to Foch. He also states final views of Allies on terms of peace.

Nov. 11. **German armistice.**

Nov. 30. Lithuanian republic (see LITHUANIA).

WESTERN FRONT, 1918.

March 21. Von Ludendorff begins **first great German offensive** of the year. Ultimate purpose to crush French and British before American force turns scale. Peace on eastern front has enabled Germany to concentrate forces on western front. Attack made along the Somme (Picardy) to drive wedge between British and French armies and roll former back on Channel. Breaks through British Fifth Army (March 22) west of Saint-Quentin. March 26, Allies finally unify their forces; **Foch** made **generalissimo.** Germans continue advance threatening Amiens; but gap in Allied forces closed. March 27, Germans take Montdidier and Albert, south and north of Amiens. Attack shifts to Arras, but fails entirely to take Vimy Ridge. Minor German advances continue until April 5. When line is stabilized Germans are farther west than in 1916, and within easy range of Amiens, most important of Allied positions. [long-distance cannon.]

March 23. First **bombardment of Paris** by[

April 9. **Second great attack** begins; this time in Flanders up Lys Valley south of Ypres, to envelop that city and advance to the coast west of it. Attack penetrates near La Bassée, takes Armentières, April 10, and reaches Merville. April 15, attack made north of Ypres, recovering ground gained by British in 1917. French reënforcements (Foch's Army of Maneuver) arrive, April 16, and advance checked. April 18, German efforts southeast toward Béthune fail, but April 25, Kemmel captured and Ypres gravely threatened from south. However, assault on southwest line fails, April 29, and offensive ends without opening way to the coast.

May 27. **Ludendorff,** abandoning Channel ports for Paris as objective, launches **third attack in Champagne** on lightly-held line north of the Aisne (**Chemin des Dames**). May 28, Soissons taken and **Marne reached** May 31. June 1, **Château-Thierry** reached and becomes apex of salient. June 1–3, German attack on western line of salient between Château-Thierry and Soissons. June 6, French and Americans combine attack on southern end of west line around Bouresches (Marines in **Belleau Wood**), throw Germans on defensive and end the advance, which has given Germans 650 square miles of territory, but left them in a dangerous pocket.

May 28. **First** important **engagement of American troops,** at **Cantigny,** near Montdidier. Strong German position seized and held against counterattacks.

June 9–11. German **fourth offensive,** intended to flatten out French salient around Compiègne between Picardy and the Marne, advances by attack between Noyon and Montdidier. Stopped by counterattacks with only slight gains, as are also attacks farther south between Soissons and Château-Thierry (June 11–13).

July 15. Ludendorff's **fifth and final offensive** on east side of Marne salient and east of Reims to pinch out the French salient between this and Saint-Mihiel lines, causing evacuation of Verdun, and getting elbow room for advance on Paris. Attack east of Reims breaks down at once. July 15–18, Germans cross the Marne toward Condé-en-Brie but fail to drive Americans from river near Château-Thierry.

July 18. **Allied grand counteroffensive** inaugurated and does not stop until armistice. **First phase** to wipe out Aisne–Marne salient begins by Franco-American surprise attack on west side of salient. **Château-Thierry** retaken July 21, Fère-en-Tardenois taken, and the Ourcq reached July 29. Meanwhile Germans retire from east side of salient, and whole force pushed back to the Vesle. August 2, Soissons retaken, and Germans retire on the Aisne lines. Ends first phase, with practical **elimination of the salient.**

Aug. 8. **Second phase, battle of Amiens,** begins; attack on the Picardy salient on both sides of the Somme. August 10, Montdidier evacuated by Germans. August 13, Allies before Chaulnes and Roye, where German defense stiffens. Foch accordingly shifts point of attack, August 18–21, and flanks the Chaulnes–Roye line by an advance which wipes out gain of German fourth offensive and envelops Noyon.

Aug. 21. Haig attacks opposite Bapaume and farther south. Albert captured August 22. August 23, drive along the whole line from Noyon to Arras begins, resulting in the capture of Roye August 26, Chaulnes August 28, Noyon, Combles, and Bapaume August 29, Péronne September 1.

Aug. 26. British attack east of Arras below the Scarpe, and by September 3 have erased the Quéant–Drocourt line of the Hindenburg system and forced a general retreat down to the Somme. Lens evacuated September 3.

Sept. 12–17. Battle shifts to a line southwest of Cambrai, and, September 18–19, still farther south to before Saint-Quentin, which French develop from the south. Except around Chemin des Dames, German **salient in Picardy** has now been **wiped out.** By September 6, Germans have also voluntarily **retired from** the Lys River **salient south of Ypres.**

Sept. 12–13. **Third phase. American army,** under **Pershing,** now acting for the first time as a unit, with French troops, **drives the Germans out of the Saint-Mihiel salient,** bringing Metz within range of the long-distance guns.

Sept. 26. **Fourth phase** of simultaneous attacks begins. (1) Americans and French launch the **Meuse–Argonne offensive** from Verdun to east of Reims. Attack aims at the vital supply and evacuation line through Sedan and Mézières, 30 miles north, and flanks the enemy's Aisne lines (Chemin des Dames). **Americans** advance rapidly **in Argonne Forest** for three days. Attack resumed October 4, but then as Germans resist obstinately in order to hold this pivotal position, it advances slowly until the end of October, when the forest has been cleared and the German main line from Grandpré eastward penetrated. French on west meanwhile pushing down the Aisne to union with Americans at Grandpré, key of the **Kriemhilde** (east) and **Hunding** sections of German second withdrawal **line.** October 8, attack begins on the east of the Meuse against the point on which the German general retreat must pivot. The third phase of the **American attack** begins on November 1, and advance is again rapid and troops are across the river from Sedan November 7. After that date the operation is mainly pursuit of the retiring enemy east of the river.

Sept. 27. (2) Haig and the French make the **final assault on the Hindenburg line** at Saint-Quentin and the Canal du Nord. Line pierced September 29, Saint-Quentin taken October 1, and October 5 British again before Cambrai. City taken October 9, and Le Cateau, October 10.

Sept. 28. (3) Allied troops under King Albert advance in **Flanders** between Ypres and Dixmude. Dixmude occupied September 29. Farther south Messines Ridge taken same day. Advance forces evacuation of Armentières October 3.

Sept. 30. (4) **West of the Argonne** operations. The French advance north and east of Reims and force the enemy to retire to the Aisne.

1918 (*continued*).

October 9, Germans compelled to evacuate Moronvilliers Heights, from which they have shelled Reims and the cathedral; also, Bazancourt on October 7. Farther west Germans evacuate Chemin des Dames October 12, the position here not only attacked in front, but flanked by the French advance beyond Saint-Quentin, up the Oise. **La Fère** and **Laon** taken October 13, and Germans fall back on the **Hunding line,** already menaced on both flanks by American and French advance.

Oct. 14. (3a) **Flanders** offensive renewed. Menin and Roulers taken that day, Ostend October 17, and **Dutch boundary reached** October 20, Germans having evacuated Zeebrugge and Bruges, and retired to Ghent.

Oct. 17. (5) Douai occupied by forces operating between the Flanders and Picardy offensives, and Germans abandon Lille next day.

Oct. 17. (2a) Haig attacks the German **line of the Selle** south of Valenciennes. This crossed (October 20), attack renewed (October 23) towards Forest of Mormal and against **Valenciennes,** which city falls November 2.

The French east of Saint-Quentin drive the Germans between the Oise and Serre, while farther east the Hunding line north of the Aisne is assaulted.

Nov. 4. A general assault precipitates the German retreat along the whole line from the Meuse to the Scheldt. (4b) Guise, on the Oise, and Vervins farther east taken, November 5, from the west, and Bethel on the Aisne from the south by the French, who reach outskirts of Mézières on November 8, while (1a) Americans have approached Sedan. November 8, (2b) British take Tournai on the Scheldt and, November 9, Maubeuge on the Sambre; while **Mons,** the place from which the British retreat began in 1914, is **occupied** November 11, and farther north Grammont, within 20 miles of Brussels.

Nov. 11. **Armistice signed** and in operation. At this time **German line** runs through Ghent southeast to east of Sedan and by the border of Alsace-Lorraine to the Swiss boundary. By **terms** of armistice Germans to evacuate France, Belgium, Luxemburg, and Alsace-Lorraine within two weeks, surrender a vast amount of ordnance and equipment, repatriate (without reciprocity) prisoners, and make reparations. **Allies to occupy territory** west of the Rhine with extensive bridgeheads east of the river at Mainz (French), Koblenz (American), and Cologne (British); Germany to pay for upkeep of army of occupation. All submarines and 6 battle cruisers and 10 battleships, 8 light cruisers, and 50 destroyers to be surrendered, and all other warships disarmed and placed under Allied supervision. **Blockade to continue.** Germans to withdraw from Russia, Roumania, and Turkey. Treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk to be abandoned and payments under them restored. These terms make impossible any renewal of the war by Germany.

Nov. 17. Allied unopposed advance toward Germany begins; boundary crossed December 1. Troops reach Cologne Dec. 6, Koblenz Dec. 9, and Mainz Dec. 9, though formal entries come later.

EASTERN, ITALIAN, AND BALKAN FRONTS, 1918.

See also Esthonia, Livonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Finland, Poland, Russia.

June 15. Austrians attempt a desperate offensive over nearly the whole front; too extensive to succeed. Minor gains especially at vital elbow of line, Montello plateau, annulled by Italian counteroffensive June 18–July 6.

July 7. Italians controlling Adriatic with French assistance attempt advance in Albania, but do not reach objective, Elbasan. Austrians counterattack in August and drive Allies back to old lines.

Sept. 15. French, Serbians, and Jugo-Slavs (deserters from Austrian army) attack in triangle between Cerna and Vardar rivers, severing connection between two Bulgarian armies. September 21, railroad cut and, September 25, Köprili (Veles) captured. **Bulgarian line collapses.** Italians from Monastir occupy Prilep, September 23, and drive one Bulgarian army toward Albanian border. Üsküp occupied September 30.

Sept. 18. Farther east, Greeks, French, and British attack on both sides of Lake Doiran. Bulgarians break September 21, after communication severed by other advance, and are pursued over border. Strumnitza occupied September 26.

Sept. 30. **Armistice, asked by Bulgarians** September 26, goes into effect (see Bulgaria). Austrian troops remaining in Albania, Montenegro, and Serbia soon driven out.

Oct. 14. Italians capture Durazzo.

Oct. 24. **Italian final offensive** opens, feinting in mountain section. October 27, real **drive begins across the Piave.** Austrian lines broken October 29 and Vittoria entered. Next day **Austrians** begin to **retreat** all along the line from Rovereto to the sea, closely pursued. November 3 Udine, Trieste, and Trent occupied.

Nov. 1. **Belgrade occupied.**

Nov. 4. **Austrian armistice** in effect (signed Nov. 3); **terms** include: Evacuation of all invaded territory by Austrians, and withdrawal behind specified line in Austria-Hungary, leaving Trentino, Görz, Trieste, Istria, and Dalmatia to occupation by Allied forces; demobilization of army; evacuation of all German troops in Austria-Hungary; repatriation of prisoners without reciprocity; surrender or disarmament of navy; Allied right to movement across Austrian territory; blockade to continue.
Italians occupy **Scutari.**

OUTLYING OPERATIONS, 1918.

Feb. 21. **Jericho taken** by Allenby. Further operations toward Damascus difficult until Turks driven from upper Jordan.

Feb. 24. Turks reoccupy Trebizond. Russians, before and after treaty of Brest-Litovsk, retire from Armenia; also from Persia. Turks reoccupy positions and advance into Transcaucasia (see Armenia and Russia).

March 9. Marshall (Maude's successor) takes Hit and (March 26) Khan Bagdadi on Euphrates.

August. Allied troops in Siberia (see Czecho-Slovakia and Russia).

Sept. 19. **Surprise attack** on Turkish coast line north of Jaffa. Through the break cavalry rushes, turning line farther east, and closing line of retreat west of the Jordan, as well as blocking northern crossings. Allenby then advances from Jerusalem, closes southern crossings and pushes Turks west of river into hostile arms of cavalry. By September 23 this **Turkish army loses all organization.**

Sept. 23. **Turks east of Jordan retreat.** Pursuit by Allies and Arabs continues into Syria. Cavalry and Arabs make junction and together enter **Damascus** October 1.

Oct. 8. Beirut occupied, giving, with railroad to Damascus, a new base of operations. Cavalry and Arabs occupy **Aleppo** October 25.

Oct. 23. Marshall begins advance east of the Tigris; defeats Turks October 29 before Mosul and receives their surrender next day. **Mosul** occupied November 3.

Oct. 30. **Turks** having been driven 300 miles from Jerusalem **granted an armistice,** which begins next day. **Terms** include: Allied occupation of Dardanelles and Bosporus; demobilization; surrender of all war vessels in Turkish waters; evacuation of Persia and Transcaucasia; all Germans and Austrians to be evacuated; garrisons in Asia Minor surrendered; but Allies to occupy Armenia only in case of disorder.

Nov. 14. German troops belonging to **East Africa** surrender. Last vestige of German colonies.

NAVAL AND AIR OPERATIONS, 1918.

Jan. 4. British **hospital ship torpedoed** in Channel; first of six such attacks during the year.

Jan. 20. Goeben and *Breslau* engage British fleet at mouth of Dardanelles. *Breslau* sunk; *Goeben* mined, but escapes.

Feb. 5. Transport *Tuscania,* with American troops, sunk by a submarine. Only eastbound transport sunk.

Feb. 11. French air raid on Metz. **Allies** late in adopting retaliation for enemy **air raids,** but from 1917 on such raids are made from time to time; 9 recorded for 1918.

Feb 24. German auxiliary cruiser *Wolf* returns to port after raiding commerce for 15 months.

Feb. 25. Austrian airmen **bombard Venice.**

March 21. Eighteen German destroyers raid Dunkirk. No landing.

April 9. German submarine sinks the Liberian patrol boat and bombards Monrovia.

April 23. **British raid on Zeebrugge and Ostend** to block entrance of harbors. Ostend attack fails. At Zeebrugge mole is stormed, while three old cruisers are sunk at entrance of canal.

May 10. Ostend partly blocked by sinking another old cruiser. [battleship in Pola harbor.]

May 14. Italian motor boat sinks an Austrian

June 10. Austrian battleship *Szent István* destroyed by Italian torpedo boats.

June–October. Americans and British establish a **mine barrage** across northern end of **North Sea,** laying 70,000 mines. Up to the armistice Central Powers in 1918 **sink** 3,200,000 tonnage of **merchant shipping.** Replacements during the war are so great, however, that, in spite of the sinking of some 15,000,000 tons of Allied and neutral shipping during the war by enemy and marine risk, the **net loss** is only about three million tons. Germans lose some 200 submarines during the war. Germans made 6 **airplane** and 4 Zeppelin **raids** on Great Britain during the year. Various raids on Paris also. [Island.]

July 19. U.S.S. *Diego* sunk by a mine off Long

July 21. German submarine attacks a tug and barges off coast of Massachusetts.

Oct. 3. British and Italians destroy Austrian naval base at Durazzo.

Nov. 1. Austrian dreadnought *Viribus Unitis* sunk at Pola by an Italian motor boat.

Nov. 9. British battleship *Britannic* sunk by a submarine off Cape Trafalgar.

Nov. 21. Main installment of **German high-seas fleet surrendered,** according to armistice. Later interned at Scapa Flow.

NEGOTIATIONS AND TREATIES, 1919.

For international events involving new or other minor states, see also these states by name: especially, Latvia; Esthonia; Lithuania; Czecho-Slovakia; Finland; Hungary; Jugo-Slavia; Mesopotamia; Poland; Syria.

Jan. 18. **Peace Conference** (of those on Allied side of the war only) opens at Paris. Twenty-seven states represented, including Poland, Jugo-Slavia (instead of Serbia and Montenegro) and Czecho-Slovakia. China, Japan, and Siam represent the Far East; Hejaz, the Near East; Liberia, Africa. 11 Latin-American states send delegates. United States, British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan assigned especial position as "principal powers." Four British dominions and India represented in British delegation.

Feb. 16. Revised armistice with Germany signed; chiefly concerns Poland (see Poland).

Feb. 26. **Reparation** question develops in three plans: (1) British theory; Central Powers to pay whole cost of war, including expenses of Allies. (2) French theory; same, except that bills for destruction are to be settled first. (3) American theory; only reparation for wanton damage contrary to rules of war.

March 3. Committee on Reparation estimates reparation to amount to 120 billion dollars, but question not one of what should be paid, but what Germany and her allies are able to pay.

March 7. United States decides to ask for no reparation beyond that realized from German property and ships sequestered in U. S. territory.

March 20. Unofficial meeting of various neutral delegates with committee on League of Nations to consider its provisions.

March 25. Council of Ten, or Supreme Council, gives way to **Council of Four,** composed of Wilson, Lloyd George, Clemenceau, and Orlando, as having active control of negotiations.

March 26. **Austrian fleet** finally **surrendered** at Venice according to armistice, being meanwhile in Jugo-Slav possession.

April 10. German National Assembly demands peace based on Wilson's "fourteen points."

April 11. **International Labor Committee** makes final **report** to conference; later embodied in treaty; provisions for an international labor conference to meet annually; international labor officer at seat of League; labor principles enunciated, including denial of labor as property, collective bargaining, eight-hour day, one day's rest in seven, wages adequate to reasonable standard of life, no child labor, equal labor rights of women.

April 28. Adoption of revised and clarified **League of Nations** at a plenary session of conference. Provision for withdrawal after two years' notice; unanimity of Council; disarmament to be approved by governments before put in force; removal of domestic questions (immigration, etc.,) from jurisdiction of League; safeguard for national policies such as Monroe Doctrine; no nation made a mandatory without its consent; any country dissenting from an amendment to League ceases thereby to be a member. All nations not represented at conference asked to join League, except Central Powers, Russia, Mexico, Costa Rica, and Santo Domingo.

May 5. Provisional organization of League.

May 6. Mandates for German colonies given (see Germany, former African colonies). Great Britain to have mandate over Nauru Island, New Zealand over Samoa, Australia over Pacific Islands south of equator, Japan north of equator.

May 7. **Peace treaty delivered to German delegates,** with warning of complete economic isolation if not signed. Germans protest terms and statement of responsibility for the war. Proposals of modification made and considered.

June 2. **Austrian treaty** handed to delegates.

June 21. German naval officers **sink their fleet** interned **at Scapa Flow.** Germans at Berlin burn French battle flags captured in war of 1870, return of which treaty demands.
New German cabinet formed, which agrees to sign treaty, without recognizing responsibility for war and without agreeing to deliver up persons accused of violating laws of war. Supreme Council (Council of Four) peremptorily refuses to accept any qualification, and warns of complete blockade and invasion.

June 28. **Treaty of Versailles,** German peace treaty, signed. **Cessions:** Alsace-Lorraine to France, certain small sections to Belgium (see Belgium) and to Czecho-Slovakia, Posen and West Prussia to Poland, and Memel detached. **Plebiscites** to determine future of Upper Silesia (see Poland), Schleswig-Holstein (see Denmark),

1919 (*continued*.)
and southern half of East Prussia (see POLAND) **Danzig** with small territory south and east becomes a free city and port for Poland (see POLAND). **Saar Basin** coal mines handed over to France; League to govern, and after 15 years plebiscite to decide. **Luxemburg** detached from Zollverein and to choose commercial union between Belgium and France. **Fortification** forbidden on Helgoland, entrance to the Baltic, west of Rhine, or within thirty miles of river on eastern side German **colonies** renounced. **Rights and privileges** held against any of Allied nations (including China, Siam, Liberia, Morocco, Egypt) **renounced;** rights in **Shantung** turned over to Japan. **Army** reduced to 100,000; compulsory military service forbidden; limitation on ordnance and military equipment specified. **Navy** not to have more than 36 surface vessels of limited displacement; no submarines; further surrenders prescribed. **No air force;** all existing material to be surrendered. **Ex-emperor arraigned** for crimes against civilization; Netherlands to be asked to surrender him for trial by Allies. Germany agrees to **deliver** for military trial **persons accused of violating laws of war** and furnish information respecting their acts. **Aggression** of Germany and her Allies acknowledged; such **reparation** to be made for loss and damages as Reparation Commission shall determine. **Restitution** in kind, including certain historical and artistic articles. Cost of **armies of occupation** to be charged to Germany. Occupation to continue with gradual withdrawal for 15 years, or longer if treaty is not carried out. Various rivers internationalized; Kiel Canal open to merchant and war vessels of all nations at peace with Germany. Various other economic provisions. Treaty also embodies the League and labor provisions (see above).

Franco-British-American alliance treaty signed. Subject to ratification by the U. S. Senate. United States and Great Britain agree, subject to approval of League, to go immediately to aid of France in case of unprovoked aggression by Germany. Not ratified by United States up to 1920. Poland signs treaty with principal powers guaranteeing **rights of racial minorities.** Similar treaties required of other new Eastern nations.

July 9. **Germany ratifies treaty.**

July 10. Wilson presents treaty to U. S Senate (see UNITED STATES for further history).

July 11. **Blockade** except as to Hungary and Soviet Russia formally **raised.**

August. Roumanians in Hungary (see HUNGARY).

Aug. 8. Belgium ratifies treaty. [SIA).

Aug. 9. Anglo-Persian agreement (see PER-

Sept. 10. **Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye,** Austrian peace treaty, signed (see AUSTRIA, CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, JUGO-SLAVIA).

Sept. 16. Anglo-French agreement on Syria (see SYRIA). [delegates.

Sept. 19. Bulgarian peace treaty handed to her

Sept. 24. China, whose delegates have refused to sign German treaty, adheres to the treaty with the exception of Shantung provision.

Oct. 10. British ratification sent to Paris. Was passed July 31 but held up to await approval of dominions.

Oct. 13. French ratification completed.

Oct. 25. Austria ratifies treaty of Saint-Germain.

Oct. 30. Japan ratifies.

Nov. 6. Supreme Council calls Germany's attention to various matters in which armistice has not been carried out: failure to deliver equipment or to withdraw troops; destruction of vessels at Scapa Flow. Protocol for compensation framed: 400,000 tons of tugs, floating docks, and other maritime equipment to offset sinkings at Scapa Flow. Germany does not sign until January 10, 1920, when amount reduced to 275,000 tons.

Nov. 27. **Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine,** Bulgarian peace treaty, **signed** (see BULGARIA).

Dec. 9. American delegates leave Peace Conference.

1920. *Jan. 10.* **German peace treaty** becomes **operative** by signing of *procès-verbal* by Germany, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan.

Jan. 13. Supreme Council recognizes Georgia and Azerbaijan in Transcaucasia as *de facto* governments (see GEORGIA and AZERBAIJAN).

Jan. 15. Peace treaty handed to Hungarian delegates.

Jan. 16. **First meeting of League of Nations.** Allies **demand ex-kaiser** from Holland. Are refused January 22, and again, March 5, after a second demand.

Jan. 21. **Peace Conference dissolves.** Place taken by Council of Ambassadors and Council of Premiers.

Feb. 3. **Demand** made on Germany for **extradition of 890 war criminals,** including Crown Prince, one of his brothers, Hindenburg, Ludendorff, Tirpitz, Capelle, and Mackensen. German delegates refuse to forward list and resign. Courier takes list to Germany; intimation by premiers that acceptance of it will be considered concrete evidence of offense.

Feb. 10. Plebiscite in first (northern) zone in Schleswig results in favor of Denmark.

Feb. 16. Premiers of Allies accept **trial at Leipzig** of accused German officers as alternative for extradition, reserving right to decide as to Germany's good faith in matter.

March 13. Venezuela joins the League, completing adhesion of all invited neutral nations.

STATISTICS.

ESTIMATED MONEY COST OF THE WAR.

THESE figures are necessarily subject to various modifications: in the main the cost is that of the increase during the period of the war over the normal peace expenditures; but the cost of the war does not end with the cessation of hostilities, while it includes advances to Allies in the case of United States ($9,598,857,645), Great Britain ($8,695,000,000), France ($1,547,200,000), and Germany ($2,375,000,000). A portion of these will be recovered, and reparations by Central Powers will increase their ultimate cost and diminish that of the Allies.

ALLIES.

Great Britain	$44,029,011,868
Canada	1,665,576,032
Australia	1,423,208,040
India	601,279,000
New Zealand	378,750,000
South Africa	300,000,000
United States	32,080,266,968
France	25,812,782,800
Russia	22,593,950,000
Italy	12,413,998,000
Roumania	1,600,000,000
Belgium	1,154,467,914 [1]
Serbia	399,400,000
Greece	270,000,000
Japan	40,000,000
Other Allies	500,000,000
Provisional Total	$145,262,690,622 [2]

CENTRAL POWERS.

Germany	$40,150,000,000
Anstria-Hungary	20,622,960,600
Turkey	1,430,000,000
Bulgaria	815,200,000
Provisional Total	$63,018,160,600 [2]

PRIVATE LOANS TO BELLIGERENT COUNTRIES

raised in the United States since the outbreak of the war and down to July 1, 1920. Short-time notes which were taken up during the war, mainly by substitution of longer term notes, not included.

	Amount
Great Britain:	
Anglo-French (½)	$250,000,000
United Kingdom	150,000,000
United Kingdom	143,587,000
United Kingdom	250,000,000
France:	
Anglo-French (½)	250,000,000
City of Paris	50,000,000
City of Bordeaux	15,000,000
City of Lyon	15,000,000
City of Marseilles	15,000,000
Belgium	75,000,000
Germany	10,000,000
Russia	75,000,000
Italy	25,000,000
Canada	150,000,000
Provincial and municipal	119,424,366
Newfoundland	2,500,000
	$1,595,511,366

On July 1, 1920, $1,564,254,930 of this total was still outstanding in United States.

AMERICAN LOANS TO THE ALLIES UP TO MAY 11, 1920.

Great Britain	$4,277,000,000
France	2,977,477,800
Italy	1,631,338,000
Belgium	338,745,000
Russia	187,729,750
Czecho-Slovakia	56,524,000
Greece	48,236,629
Serbia	26,780,466
Roumania	25,000,000
Cuba	10,000,000
Liberia	26,000
	$9,578,857,645

In addition the United States government holds French bonds for $400,000,000 for purchase of American surplus war supplies in France.

[1] Does not include fines and levies by Germany; with these, about $3,000,000,000.

[2] These totals are all subject to correction for the figures of individual countries. They do not include seizure and destruction of private and public property, which has been estimated at 30 billion dollars on land and 7 billions at sea.

AMERICAN WAR DEBT AS OF JUNE 30, 1919.

First Liberty Loan	$1,984,796,500
Second Liberty Loan	3,566,456,600
Third Liberty Loan	3,958,552,700
Fourth Liberty Loan	6,794,504,587
Fifth Liberty Loan	3,467,844,972
War Savings and Thrift Stamps	953,997,435
Certificates of Indebtedness	3,624,983,490
	$24,351,136,284

NAMES OF BELLIGERENTS AND DATES OF ENTRY INTO THE WAR.

CENTRAL POWERS.

1. Austria-Hungary, July 28, 1914
2. Germany, August 1, 1914
3. Turkey, November 5, 1914
4. Bulgaria, October 14, 1915

ALLIES.

1. Serbia, July 28, 1914
2. Russia, August 1, 1914
3. France, August 3, 1914
4. Belgium, August 4, 1914
5. Great Britain, August 4, 1914
6. Montenegro, August 8, 1914
7. Japan, August 23, 1914
8. Italy, May 23, 1915
9. Portugal, March 9, 1916
10. Roumania, August 27, 1916
11. Greece (provisional government), November 23, 1916
12. United States, April 6, 1917
13. Cuba, April 7, 1917
14. Panama, April 7, 1917
15. Siam, July 22, 1917
16. Liberia, August 4, 1917
17. China, August 14, 1917
18. Brazil, October 26, 1917
19. Guatemala, April 21, 1918
20. Nicaragua, May 6, 1918
21. Costa Rica, May 23, 1918
22. Haiti, July 15, 1918
23. Honduras, July 19, 1918

COUNTRIES THAT SEVERED DIPLOMATIC INTERCOURSE WITH GERMANY WITHOUT DECLARING WAR.

1. Bolivia, April 14, 1917
2. Peru, October 5, 1917
3. Uruguay, October 7, 1917
4. Ecuador, December 7, 1917

TOTAL COUNTRIES INVOLVED.

Central Group	4
Allied Group	23
Partially engaged	4
	31

COST OF WAR IN MEN.[1]

Allies.	*Dead.*	*Wounded.*	*Prisoners and Missing.*
Russia	2,762,064	4,950,000	2,500,000
French Empire	1,427,800	3,044,000	453,500
British Empire	807,451	2,059,134	64,907
Serbia	707,343	350,000	100,000
Italy	507,160	962,196	1,359,000
Roumania	339,117	200,000	116,000
Belgium	267,000	140,000	10,000
United States	107,284 [2]	191,000 [2]	4,912 [2]
Greece	15,000	40,000	45,000
Portugal	4,000	17,000	200
Japan	300	907	3
Central Powers.			
Germany	1,611,104	3,783,143	772,522
Austria-Hungary	911,000	3,000,000	443,000
Turkey	436,924	407,772	103,731
Bulgaria	101,224	152,399	10,825

[1] These estimates founded on *Direct and Indirect Costs of the Great World War* by E. L. Bogart. It is estimated that probably 50% of those listed as "prisoners and missing" are dead.

[2] Later official statement for the American Expeditionary Force givesonly 77,118 deaths, 221,050 wounded, 4,432 prisoners.

EUROPE
Showing
Peace Conference Boundaries
Scale of Statute Miles.
0 100 200 300 400 500
Kilometers.
0 100 270 300 400 500 600 700 800
Comparative Area.
PENN.
45,215 Square Miles.
Plebisites
International Territory
Capitals of Countries :
Railroads :
Canals :
ATLANTIC OCEAN
North Sea
Baltic Sea
Bay of Biscay
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Sea of Azof
MEDITERRANEAN
Tyrrhenian Sea
Ionian Sea
BRITISH ISLES
GREAT BRITAIN
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
WALES
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
DENMARK
ESTHONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
POLAND
GERMANY
NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND)
BELGIUM
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA
HUNGARY
RUMANIA
JUGO-SLAVIA
BULGARIA
ALBANIA
GREECE
ITALY
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
RUSSIA
UKRAINE
GEORGIA
AZERBAIJAN
ARMENIA
CENTRAL ASIA
TURKESTAN
PERSIA
ASIA MINOR
SYRIA
FRENCH MANDATE
MESOPOTAMIA
BRITISH MANDATE
AFRICA
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TUNIS
ZONE OF THE STRAITS
Caucasus Mountains
Ural Mountains
Longitude 10° East from Greenwich
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PART TWO: NATIONAL HISTORIES.

ABYSSINIA.

Historical Outline.

ABYSSINIA corresponds in part with ancient Ethiopia. Its boundaries, formerly vague, were defined by treaties in 1906–07 so that it is shut off from the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden by the Italian dependency of Eritrea and by French Somali Coast and British Somaliland. By these treaties Great Britain, France, and Italy undertake to preserve the integrity of Abyssinia, to maintain the "open door" as far as concessions are concerned, and to abstain from intervening in internal affairs.

The Abyssinians were converted to Christianity in the fourth century and have remained members of the Alexandrian Church. The government is monarchical, and from 1889 to 1913 the emperor was Menelik, who in his attempt to check Italian aggression, became involved in war. The Italian forces were decisively defeated at the battle of Adowa (March 1, 1896), and as a result Menelik was recognized as an independent monarch.

The chief industries are pastoral and agricultural. Cattle, sheep, and goats are numerous, and mules are bred everywhere. Cotton, sugar cane, the date palm, coffee, and the vine might thrive, but are not extensively cultivated. The roads are mere tracks, and transport is effected by means of pack horses, mules, and donkeys. The chief exports are hides, coffee, and beeswax.

The **area** is estimated at 350,000 square miles. The **population,** of Semitic origin, is estimated to be over 8,000,000, of which the Shoans, numbering 1,500,000, form the ruling class. Every one of them is a soldier, and the present ruler depends upon them to maintain her supremacy.

Chronology.

330. Frumentius, instrumental in converting the region, is made first bishop of Ethiopia.
675. Moslem advance cuts Christian Ethiopia off from contact with outside world.
1490. Arrival of Corilham, in search of Prester John. Portuguese missions into the country begin about this time, and Jesuits remain for a century and a half.
1633. Jesuits expelled; country relapses into **isolation.**
1769. Bruce, in his exploration of the Blue Nile, visits Abyssinia.
1805. First mission (British). Missionaries and explorers follow.
1855. Theodore, by conquest of other chiefs, becomes negus, or emperor.
1868. War with Great Britain results in Theodore's death (April 13); succeeded by a rival, John.
1869. *Nov. 15.* Beginning of the Italian colony of Eritrea; this and French, British, and Italian Somaliland lie between Abyssinia and the coast.
1889. *March 9.* Death of John; a rival, **Menelik,** gains the chief power.
May 2. **Uccialli treaty,** under which Italy claims a protectorate.
1893. Menelik denounces the treaty with Italy.
1895. War with Italy; crushing defeat of Italians at **Adowa,** March 1, 1896.
1896. *Oct. 26.* Treaty of peace of Adis Abeba; Italy acknowledges **absolute independence of Abyssinia.**
1902. *Dec. 31.* **Completion of railway** from Jibuti, French Somaliland port, to Dire Dawa, about 30 miles northwest of Harar.
1906. *Dec. 13.* **Anglo-Franco-Italian agreement** provides for territorial integrity and domestic independence of Abyssinia, and equal concessionary advantages.
1913. *December.* **Menelik dies;** succeeded by his grandson **Lij Yasu.**
1916. *Sept. 27.* Lij Yasu is deposed; his aunt, **Walzeru Zauditu,** succeeds.
1919. *July 14.* President Wilson receives Abyssinian delegates sent to extend congratulations on success of the World War.

ADEN.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 62.

AFGHANISTAN.

Historical Outline.

AFGHANISTAN is geographically a lofty quadrilateral plateau lying between northwestern India, eastern Persia, and Russia. The Afghans, who are the predominant population of the country, are of unknown origin, though doubtless a residue of the old Indo-European stock. Afghanistan was conquered by the emperor Tamerlane, who died in 1405. Sultan Baber added a part of Afghanistan including Kabul to his domains and for two centuries it belonged to India and was ruled by the Mogul emperors.

The Persian Nadir Shah seized it in 1738. In 1749 a separate empire was formed by Ahmad Shah, who defeated the Marathas in 1761 and gave the country a national character. After Ahmad came Timur Khan, who transferred his capital from Kandahar to Kabul. Among his twenty-three sons a strife arose for the succession. Finally, in 1818, Kamran Khan obtained the throne, which he held for thirty years. In 1842 Dost Mohammed captured Kabul and made himself supreme.

The attention of Great Britain, now firmly established in India, was turned to Afghanistan; and aggressions on English officials aroused the spirit of the British. In 1841 two British officials were injured in a revolt in Kabul. Soon afterwards Sir William Macnaghten was murdered by Akbar Khan, son of Dost Mohammed. An agreement was made for the withdrawal of the British garrison from the country; but the march of the 690 Europeans from Kabul to Jalalabad was a massacre. Only 23 of the number reached Jalalabad, though 95 prisoners were ultimately liberated.

To avenge this outrage an expedition in 1842 under General Pollock forced the Khyber Pass and relieved Jalalabad. Dost Mohammed was restored to the throne as a friend of the British government. After his death Shere Ali Khan came to the throne with the aid of Great Britain and succeeded in extending his authority over Afghan-Turkistan on the borders of the Russian conquests. The boundary of the Amu Darya (ancient Oxus) River was obtained by the influence of Great Britain, which had now adopted the policy of maintaining Afghanistan as the frontier barricade of her Indian possessions.

Shere Ali Khan was at length obliged to fly from Kabul by his son, Yakub Khan, who proved hostile to England. A British army was sent into the country and Kabul was captured (1878). Again the British envoy and his followers were massacred, and a second invasion was necessary in order to avenge the crime and restore order.

Yakub Khan was succeeded in 1880 by Abd-er-Rahman Khan, grandson of Dost Mohammed, supported by British influence. A more regular and orderly government was established. In 1896 the army was reorganized, regular conscription established, and the troops armed with European weapons. Abd-er-Rahman was succeeded by his son, Habib Ullah Khan, who (1905) promised to observe the agreement of his father and to be guided by the advice of the British government in external affairs. Russia declared Afghanistan outside her sphere of influence, and Great Britain agreed not to interfere in internal affairs, provided the ameer fulfilled his obligations to the British government. Habib Ullah Khan was assassinated February 20, 1919, and was succeeded by his third son, Amanullah Khan, and attacks upon the British have followed on the northwestern frontier of India.

Organization.

Government and Finance. The government of Afghanistan is monarchical and nearly absolute. The ameer receives a subsidy of 1,850,000 rupees from the Indian government, and his total revenue amounts to about 13,000,000 rupees.

Industry and Production. The principal industry of Afghanistan is agriculture. The chief products are fruits, including the apple, pear, almond, peach, quince, and apricot. Vegetables and cereals are also raised in paying quantities in the fertile plains and valleys, often with the aid of irrigation from small rivers or wells. There are two harvests in the year in most parts of the country, one reaped in the summer, the other in autumn. The principal minerals are copper and lead, although iron is produced and gold is found in small quantities. The leading manufactures are silk and carpets, felts and articles made of camel's and goat's hair. In 1916–17 the imports from India amounted to $6,750,000 and the exports to India amounted to $5,700,000.

Defense. The Afghan army is said to number 98,000 men. The real military strength lies in the mountainous character of the country, the lack of roads, and the capacity of the inhabitants for guerrilla warfare.

The greater part of the territory of Afghanistan is taken up with lofty mountains and high-lying valleys. In the north, on the banks of the Amu Darya, and in the southwest are wide-extending plains. Temperature varies from 12 below zero to as high as 120 above in the shade along the Amu Darya.

The **area** is about 245,000 square miles, and the **population** about 6,380,000.

Chronology.

1747. Following various Indian, Turkish, and Mongol dynasties, the rule of the present **Durani dynasty** is established by Ahmad Shah.
1793. Death of Timur, Ahmad's son, leaves the **country a prey to anarchy** for many years.
1838–1842. First Afghan War marks the beginning of strife and intrigue over Afghanistan as a buffer state between British and Russian interests in Asia. British attempt to impose an unpopular ruler, Shah Shuja, fails.
1878–1881. Second Afghan War with Great Britain follows an unsuccessful attempt to check diplomatically Russian ascendancy over the ameer. **Abd-er-Rahman** becomes ameer under British protection and subsidy, centralizes authority, and restores order.
1901. *Oct. 1.* Abd-er-Rahman dies and is succeeded by his son **Habib Ullah.** Policy of following British advice on external relations continues, with **independence in internal affairs.**
1907. *January.* Ameer visits India.
Aug. 31. **Anglo-Russian agreement** on Afghanistan places the country outside the Russian sphere of influence, but Great Britain agrees to refrain from interference in the internal affairs. Part of the *Entente Cordiale.*
1914–1918. During the World War the Ameer continues his British friendship, resisting Islamic and German intrigue.
1919. *Feb. 20.* **Ameer is assassinated** and is **succeeded by** a son, **Amanullah,** believed to be implicated in the assassination, under **Bolshevist influences.** Afghans attack the Indian frontier, and a **mission is sent to Moscow.**
Aug. 8. **Peace** is made **between Great Britain and Afghanistan;** Afghans put on probation. Tribes, however, continue irregular warfare, with increasing intensity early in 1920.

AFRICA.

See *British Africa,* under BRITISH EMPIRE, p. 65; *French Africa,* under FRANCE, p. 96; *Portuguese Africa,* under PORTUGAL, p. 135; *South Africa,* under BRITISH EMPIRE, p. 66.

AIDIN.

See under GREECE, page 111.

ALASKA.

See under UNITED STATES, page 209.

ALBANIA.

Historical Outline.

ALBANIA is situated on the western shore of the Balkan Peninsula, extending from the southern boundary of Montenegro (now part of Jugo-Slavia) to the northern boundary of Greece. It is perhaps the least-known country in Europe, and the wildness of the land and the fierce and lawless disposition of the people have combined to discourage travelers and explorers, so that many of the geographical problems are still unsolved.

The native Albanians are probably descendants from the oldest people in Europe — the old Mediterranean race which occupied the Balkan Peninsula before the coming of the Greeks. While elsewhere the Mediterranean race was conquered by the Greco-Roman invasions of antiquity and later the Slavonic invasion of the Balkans absorbed or displaced the classic Greeks, the people of Albania have remained to a great extent unaffected by foreign influence.

After the division of the Roman Empire the territory inhabited by the Albanians became provinces of the Byzantine Empire. In 640, northern Albania was conquered by the Serbo-Croats and remained under Serbian rule until 1360, although in the ninth and tenth centuries the Bulgarians under the Czar Simeon controlled the country (see BULGARIA). In the eleventh century the Normans made themselves masters of Durazzo, while in the fourteenth century Stephen Dushan added Albania to his short-lived Serbian empire (see SERBIA). In the fifteenth century came the Turkish conquest, and in 1502 the Turks captured Durazzo and established a nominal

Turkish supremacy throughout Albania which continued until 1912.

The Albanians furnished leaders and troops for the Turkish Revolution of 1908, but gained little during the rule of the Young Turks. In the Balkan wars of 1912–1913 the disposition of Albania was an important question. Serbia and Montenegro hoped to partition Albania, but in this they were thwarted by the powers (see AUSTRIA, SERBIA); an "independent" kingdom of Albania was erected under the protection of the powers, and a German prince, William of Wied, placed upon the throne. At the outbreak of the World War William fled, and Albania fell into a state of anarchy. In 1916 the Austrians occupied the country, but June 3, 1917, the general in charge of the Italian forces set up a provisional government at Durazzo, and southern Albania, though nominally independent, is actually an Italian protectorate.

Industry and Labor. The chief occupation is agriculture, but this is carried on in an extremely primitive way and great tracts of the country are barren mountains incapable of cultivation. There are few carriage roads and no railways in the country. Albania is said to possess considerable mineral resources but these have not been investigated.

Religion and Education. Two thirds of the Albanians are Moslems, and the remaining one third are divided between the Roman Catholic and Greek Churches. Under Turkish rule little was done for education. There are schools maintained by the Jesuits and the Orthodox Greek Church and by American missionaries.

The estimated **area** is between 10,500 and 11,500 square miles, and the **population** is between 800,000 and 850,000.

Chronology.

1648. For Balkan Peninsula in 1648, see BULGARIA.
1760. An almost independent sovereignty is established around Scutari, which exists until 1831. Contemporaneously there is a similar state in the south, centered at Janina.
1810–1911. Albania nominally part of Turkey; actually no comprehensive government.
1878. Following the Treaty of Berlin, **Albanian League** forms, protesting against territorial adjustment; but, though there are occasional revolts, Albanian interests continue to be mostly tribal and but little nationalistic sentiment is shown.
1908. Albanian soldiers in the Turkish army support the Young Turk revolution.
1912. Albanians revolt against military and financial exactions of the Young Turks. **Independence is declared** on November 28 during the **Balkan War** (see BULGARIA, 1912). Allies occupy the country but are not permitted by the powers to retain it, their presence on the Adriatic littoral checking the plans of both Austria and Italy.
1913. *May 30.* Conference of London declares **Albania independent,** status being left to the powers.
Sept. 28. International Commission of Control representing the powers is established at Avlona.
Nov. 23. **William of Wied** is selected as **sovereign** and powers promise adequate financial support. He arrives at Durazzo March 7, 1914.
December. Southern frontier is determined; it includes Epirus, largely Greek in population.
1914. *May.* **Essad Pasha** heads an **uprising,** but is arrested by international marines and banished. **General anarchy ensues,** and Prince William seeks refuge on an Italian warship.
Sept. 3. **William abdicates** and the Commission resumes control.
1915. *March.* Disorders culminate in an attack by 50,000 on Essad at Durazzo. Italians later occupy Avlona and Durazzo; Greeks occupy Epirus, and Montenegrins Scutari.
1916. *January–March.* **Central Powers overrun** most of the **country,** though Italian control continues in the south, where Greeks are displaced.
1917. *June 3.* Italy proclaims the **independence and unity of Albania** under her protection.
1918. *Oct. 3.* Austrian troops evacuate Albania.
Dec. 25. At Durazzo Albanian delegates form a government and later appeal to the Paris Peace Conference for recognition and restoration of territory taken in 1878 and 1913.
1919. Italy is given by the Peace Conference a mandate over Albania, but final decision as to boundaries (Italy's occupation of Avlona, Greek claim in Northern Epirus) is reserved.
Dec. 9. **Epirus is given to Greece** by an Anglo-Franco-American memorandum. President Wilson objects to the cession of northern part of Albania to Montenegro.
1920. *June–July.* Fighting with Italians, who give up Avlona and withdraw most of troops from Albania.

ALGERIA.

See under FRANCE; page 96.

ANDAMAN ISLANDS.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65.

ANDORRA.

THE REPUBLIC OF ANDORRA is situated on the south side of the Pyrenees, between France and Spain, and claims an existence of more than 1100 years, going back to the time of Charlemagne. The territory consists chiefly of a valley 17 by 18 miles, and the population of about 5,000 is scattered in small villages. It is under the joint guardianship of the president of France and the Spanish Bishop of Urgel. It is governed by a council of 24 members elected for four years by the heads of families.

Chronology.

1278. Condominium between Bishop of **Urgel** and Count of **Foix** over feudal claims to Andorra.
1589. Henry of Navarre, Count of Foix, becomes king of France and his rights pass to French crown.
1793. French Republic refuses to assert authority.
1806. *March 21.* Decree by which the French will participate. The valley continues to be a **seigniory of France and the Spanish bishop** jointly. Quasi independence results from its unimportance and the diverse nationality of the seigniors.

ARABIA.

See under HEJAZ, page 112.

ARGENTINA.

Historical Outline.

THE coast of Argentina was traced by white men as early as 1512. Buenos Aires was first founded by Mendoza in 1535 — thirty years before the founding of Saint Augustine in Florida — but the settlement was not permanent. An expedition sent out by him explored the valley of the Rio de la Plata as far as Paraguay and founded Asunción (1536). At first this region was regarded as a province of the Spanish viceroyalty of Peru. This relation was held until 1620, when Buenos Aires (*Colonias de la Plata*) received a separate provincial government from Philip III.

The Spanish colonial system attempted to monopolize for Spain all the trade with the colonists and to prohibit intercolonial trade. But forbidden traffic was bound to flourish in the face of such restrictions. From 1715 to 1739 England held the contract (*asiento*) for supplying the Spanish American colonists with negro slaves, and in so doing contrived both to smuggle in and carry away a large quantity of goods. In 1776 a viceroyalty was formed of the provinces of Rio de la Plata, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Bolivia, with Buenos Aires as its capital.

In the wars of the French Revolution Spain sided with France against Great Britain; and in reprisal General William Beresford in 1806 landed a body of troops and held Buenos Aires for about two months. In 1807 another British force of 8,000 under General Whitelocke attempted to regain possession of Buenos Aires, but was compelled to capitulate. The successful defense of Buenos Aires without aid from the mother country strengthened the growing feeling of dissatisfaction and led to a revolt, which was aided by popular resentment at efforts to secure the province for France.

May 25, 1810, a provisional junta was formed and the war of independence began. The most famous leader was General José de San Martín, who defeated the adherents of Spain. March 25, 1816, a republic was proclaimed; and Buenos Aires was declared the regular seat of the government. Although the independence of Argentina was thus assured in 1816, the war with Spain dragged on until San Martín crossed the Andes, set free Chile and Peru, and finally captured Lima, in 1821.

The Spanish government, however, did not acknowledge this actual independence until 1842. In 1825 a national constitution of the federal states which formed the Argentine Republic was decreed, and the English government acknowledged its independence. Peace, however, was long delayed, for Argentina was involved both in civil wars and in war with Brazil.

In 1829 Juan Manuel de Rosas made himself master of Buenos Aires, and in 1835 established a dictatorship which lasted until 1852. His policy was to reincorporate Uruguay and Paraguay into the republic, and he was so indifferent to the rights of foreign residents that, in 1835, a French fleet was sent to blockade Buenos Aires. His rule gradually degenerated into one of tyranny and bloodshed. In his attempt to control Uruguay he laid siege to Montevideo. This brought about the joint intervention of the French and English fleets in 1845. In 1853 a new constitution, modeled upon that of the United States, was adopted; Buenos Aires, at first resisting, gave her adherence, in 1855. In 1856 war broke out with Paraguay, which might have resulted in the extinction of that country had not insurrections in Argentina itself broken out.

Argentina, in common with all Spanish American republics, suffered from revolts and political disturbances. Until 1893 scarcely a presidential election was held without an appeal to arms. Since that time affairs have been more settled and the government has been more secure.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of the Argentine Republic was adopted in May, 1853, modified in 1860–66 and 1898. The executive power is vested in the president, elected for six years by electors chosen by the fourteen provinces, equal to double the number of senators and deputies combined. The legislative authority is in a national Congress consisting of two bodies. The Senate of 30, two from the capital and two from each province, is elected every three years by a special body of electors from the capital and by the legislatures in the provinces. The House of Deputies, fixed at one for every 33,000 inhabitants in 1919, has 120 members in all. The deputies are elected for four years, but one half retire every two years. The president is commander in chief of the army and navy and appoints all civil, military, naval, and judicial officers. In local affairs the fourteen provinces control independently of the central government. For the territories, of which there are ten, the president appoints the governors.

Religion and Education. There is no state religion, although the Roman Catholic Church is supported by the state and the president must be a Roman Catholic. Primary education is free, secular, and compulsory for children from 6 to 14 years of age. In 1917 there were more than 8,000 public primary schools, with more than a million pupils. There are 37 national colleges, with over 11,000 students, and 33 private institutions of the same grade.

Industry and Production. Argentina possesses more than 250,000,000 acres which may be used for agricultural purposes or cattle industries. Of this area about 10,000,000 acres require irrigation and 58,000,000 acres were under cultivation in 1917. It is one of the great wheat-growing countries of the world and in 1917–18 produced about 6,000,000 tons of wheat, 4,000,000 tons of maize, and 1,000,000 tons of oats. Cotton, tobacco, and wine are also produced and the sugar industry is growing rapidly. Argentina is famous for its live-stock industry, and in 1915 it was estimated that there were 30,000,000 cattle, 9,000,000 horses, 81,000,000 sheep, and 4,000,000 goats. The total wool clip amounted to more than 180,000 tons. Mining is of no great importance, although gold, silver, and copper are worked on a small scale. Before the World War Argentina exported more to Great Britain than to any other country, and imported more from it. From 1915 to 1919, however, the United States ranked first, both in imports to and exports from Argentina.

Defense. Military service is compulsory on all men from the 20th to the 45th year. For the first ten years they belong to the active army and then pass into the national guard, where they serve for ten years and finish their service with five years in the territorial guard. The greater proportion of the annual contingents are trained for only three months, but a part serve for one year. There are five military districts, each of which is supposed to provide on mobilization a complete division of the first line and also a reserve division, irrespective of the national guard and territorial troops. The total peace establishment of the army is 25,000 officers and men, and the reserve numbers 250,000. The navy is in the process of transformation and consists chiefly of two modern dreadnoughts and a few destroyers. The other vessels are of little military value.

Finance. Owing to the frequent revolutions and extravagant and ill-advised financial policies of the dictators, the financial condition of Argentina is not good. There is a bonded debt of nearly $500,000,000, gold, and $223,000,000, paper, and also a floating debt of $572,000,000, paper. The annual charges on the public debt amount to $126,000,000, paper, about a third of the total revenue, which ordinarily amounts to $362,000,000, paper.

The estimated **area** is 1,153,119 square miles and the **population** in 1918, 8,279,159.

Chronology.

1516. Rio de la Plata discovered by Juan Díaz de Solís for Spain.
1527. Sebastian Cabot explores the Rio de la Plata.
1535. First settlement of Buenos Aires by Mendoza. Results in complete failure.
1536. *Aug. 15.* **Asunción settled;** first permanent settlement on the river. [Peru and Chile.
1553 1573. Various interior settlements made from
1580. Third and final settlement of **Buenos Aires.**
1620. Buenos Aires becomes capital of a subordinate government including the interior settlements; attached to viceroyalty of Peru. Legitimate trade practically prohibited; development through smuggling.
1776. Viceroyalty of Buenos Aires is established; jurisdiction includes modern Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia. Spanish trade freely permitted.
1806, 1807. Two British attempts on Buenos Aires are disastrous to the invaders.
1810. *May 25.* **Independence Day;** viceroy superseded by a junta at Buenos Aires; but interior

1810 (*continued*). provinces not accepting it, civil war results as well as conflict with Spanish troops.

1816. *July 9.* **Separation from Spain** is formally **declared,** but conflicts continue, resulting ultimately in separate republics for Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia. Various attempts to form a constitutional government are unsuccessful.

1823. *Jan. 27.* **Recognition by the United States,** through the appointment of a minister.

1825. *Feb. 2.* Treaty of recognition and commerce with Great Britain. [(see URUGUAY).]

1827. Brazilian war and independence of Uruguay.

1835. Out of the warfare between the Federalists and Unitarians rises the **dictatorship of Rosas,** a Federalist; the interminable contest continues.

1845. Great Britain and France blockade Buenos Aires and open passage to Paraguay.

1852. *Feb. 5.* Defeat of Rosas by Urquiza, in alliance with Brazil and Uruguay. Rosas flees.

1853. *May.* Federal **constitution adopted** and Urquiza elected president; but Buenos Aires province is recognized as independent.

1859. *Nov. 11.* Buenos Aires reënters the confederation after its army is defeated.

1860. *Sept. 25.* Amended constitution is adopted.

1861. *Sept. 11.* Buenos Aires regains its ascendancy over the interior provinces. It becomes the capital, with **Mitre** as president.

1865–1870. Alliance with Brazil and Uruguay in war with Paraguay.

1867. Insurrection, which Mitre puts down.

1868. Sarmiento becomes president.

1870–1873. Insurrections in Entre Ríos province.

1874. *Oct. 12.* **Avellaneda,** candidate of the interior provinces, inaugurated as president. **Mitre,** Buenos Aires candidate, alleging corrupt practices, heads a revolt that is soon crushed.

1880. *July.* Renewal of war between army of the national government, under Roca, and Buenos Aires; latter entirely defeated.

Oct. 12. **Roca** inaugurated as president. He makes city of Buenos Aires a federal district and transfers capital of province to La Plata.

1886. *Oct. 12.* **Celman** begins his term as president. Administration is corrupt; bankruptcy of national credit and honor threatens.

1889. National Civic Union with **Alem** at its head organized to combat public corruption.

Oct. 2. **First Pan-American Congress** opens at Washington (see UNITED STATES).

1890. *July 31.* Armed revolt of the National Civic Union forces Celman to resign; Vice President **Pellegrini** succeeds. Period of **financial crisis;** liquidation of Baring Bros., of London, the government's financial agents.

1892. *Oct. 12.* Luis **Sáenz-Peña** becomes president; candidacy promoted by Mitre and Roca, but opposed by Alem. **Paper money stabilized** by provisions for conversion at 44¢ gold per peso.

1893. Alem promotes an unsuccessful revolt and is **banished.**

1895. *Jan. 21.* Sáenz-Peña forced by Congress to resign; Vice President **Uriburu** succeeds. Restoration of financial credit progresses.

Feb. 5. President Cleveland of United States arbitrates the **boundary dispute with Brazil.**

1898. *Oct. 12.* **Roca** again president.

1899. Boundary controversy with Chile, which threatens war, is partly arbitrated, but delay in rest of the award keeps alive the tension.

1902. *Nov. 27.* King Edward of Great Britain finally makes his award on the **Patagonian boundary;** Chilean controversy ends.

1904. *Oct. 12.* **Quintana** becomes president.

1906. *March 11.* Quintana dies; Vice President **Alcorta** completes the term.

1908. *August.* Naval appropriation of $75,000,000 authorized; portion of it spent on two great dreadnoughts built in the United States — the *Rivadavia* and the *Moreno.*

1909. Because of Bolivia's nonacceptance and threats following Argentina's arbitration of the **Peru-Bolivia boundary,** diplomatic intercourse is severed. Restored in 1911.

1910. Completion of the **all-rail connection between Buenos Aires and Valparaiso.**

May 25. **Centenary of Independence** celebrated.

July–August. **Fourth Pan-American Congress held at Buenos Aires.**

Oct. 12. Roque **Sáenz-Peña** is inaugurated as president.

1911. Resenting Argentina's quarantine laws, **Italy forbids emigration.** Affair is settled the next year.

1912. *January.* **Difficulty with Paraguay;** intercourse severed but restored in February.

1914. *February.* Sáenz-Peña turns over his functions to Vice President **de la Plaza,** and dies on August 8. [STATES).]

April–June. **A B C mediation** (see UNITED

1915. *May 25.* **Tripartite treaty** with **Brazil** and **Chile;** no war before investigation and report by an impartial commission.

1916. *Oct. 12.* **Irigoyen** inaugurated as president; **first Radical** to hold the office and first election by **secret ballot.**

1917. *April 16.* **Mobs** at Buenos Aires **attack German legation,** consulate, and newspaper offices because of sinking of Argentine ships.

Sept. 12. **Von Luxburg,** German chargé d'affaires, is **dismissed** after American revelation of his official messages recommending that Argentine vessels be "sunk without a trace" ("*spurlos versenkt*"). **Anti-German riots renewed;** public demands severance of intercourse with Germany.

Sept. 25. House of Deputies by vote of 53 to 18 advises, as Senate has also done on September 19, severance of diplomatic relations with Germany. President Irigoyen does not act on the recommendations, but **preserves neutrality.** Railway strikes, which follow, are believed due to German intrigue

1919. *January.* **General strike,** believed due to foreign radical propaganda, ties up shipping and railways and amounts almost to a revolution, especially at Buenos Aires. Troops finally restore quasi-normal conditions; increase in wages given.

July 7. **Argentina joins League of Nations.**

1920. *March 7.* Congressional election, after bitter campaign marked by strikes and anarchistic disturbances, results in a **Radical triumph.**

ARMENIA.

Historical Outline.

THE northern and central portions of Asia Minor have for ages been occupied by the Armenian race, which has maintained its language, religion, culture, and national characteristics in the face of conquests and oppression by Roman, Persian, Byzantine, and Turkish masters. Xenophon passed through the land on his famous Retreat of the Ten Thousand (401–400 B. C.). It was a Roman province. Christianity was adopted under Sapor, about 300 A. D.; and the Armenians are, therefore, the earliest people to make Christianity the national faith.

Armenia was a province in the Empire of the Ottoman Turks from 1514 A. D. The Turks followed their usual policy of permitting Christian subjects to exercise the faith, while depriving them of all national and political power. Nevertheless, the business and statesmanlike abilities of the Armenians caused their spread into other parts of the empire, including Constantinople.

When Russia began to press upon Turkey, the Armenians were again brought into the war frontier. By the Peace of Berlin (1878) Armenia was divided, and Russia took over the northern area, between the Black and Caspian Seas. Part of the Armenians were in Persia. Meanwhile the Armenians in all parts of the Turkish Empire were selected by the fanatical Turks under Sultan Abdul Hamid as enemies of the Turkish dispensation, subject to plunder and murder. Brutal massacres of Armenians in the capital and elsewhere occurred in 1896; and again under the régime of the Young Turks in 1909.

When the World War broke out the Armenian young men were called up into the army, except those who took flight. Then followed one of the most frightful massacres of history. The Armenians left at home were called upon to give up their arms. When disarmed, they were set upon by Kurds and other enemy tribes and by the regular Turkish authorities, acting under pressure from the Germans. Men, women, and children were swept up and started on horrible journeys to distant parts of the empire, most of them perishing on the way. No fewer than 1,500,000 lives were thus sacrificed.

Russian forces came to the rescue of the unhappy country, and the Armenians made such organization as was possible for self-defense. In 1918 they formed the Republic of Armenia on the Russian side, with a provisional ministry. The Turks, however, held the southern area and after hostilities in Western Europe ended went on killing Armenians. The question of national existence has been complicated by the founding of a Georgian republic in the north and the Republic of Azerbaijan in the east. The purpose of the Turks was to destroy the nation by killing so many that they might then set up the plea that an Armenian republic would contain only a minority of Armenians, and would thus violate the principle of self-determination.

The Armenians sent delegates to the Congress of Paris, but were coolly received by the Congress. They were finally declared independent by the treaty of peace of June, 1919, and the Turkish treaty of May 20, 1920; but the Turkish raids still continued They urged the United States to accept a mandate for them; and President Wilson agreed to be arbiter of their boundary difficulties, but the Senate declined that responsibility. In the spring of 1920 the Armenians were still imperfectly organized; and what was left of the Turkish nationalistic forces were trying to destroy them.

Almost all the country occupied or claimed as a part of Armenia is mountainous and rugged. Much of it is a high plateau, out of which rises Mt. Ararat. The climate of this high country is severe, but with irrigation large areas of land are cultivated and hemp, grapes, fruit, and grain are raised. In the lower districts cotton is raised. The people are industrious and thrifty. Rug making has been a traditional pursuit for ages. The people are intelligent and intensely devoted to their own national church. The people of the Armenian race are widely scattered through Asia Minor and they claim Cilicia on the Mediterranean. Many thousand Armenians have emigrated to America. The total population of Armenian race and language in Europe and Asia when the World War broke out was estimated at 2,400,000, of whom a million were in Russian Armenia and perhaps 800,000 in various parts of Turkey.

Chronology.

B. C. 69. Defeat of Tigranes, king of Armenia, by Lucullus, makes the **country a vassal state of Rome.**

A. D. 301. King baptized by Gregory the Illuminator; **Christianity** becomes the **state religion;** and the Armenian Church is the earliest national Christian Church. (See ARMENIAN CHURCH, in the *Dictionary*).

491. Church separates from the Greek rite, and becomes known as the Gregorian or Armenian Church, with a Catholicos at its head.

633. Country comes under the Caliphates, this event being followed through several centuries by strife between Arabs, Seljuks, and Byzantines, and by the invasions of Timour (Tamerlane) and other Mongols.

1514. Ottoman **Turks,** under Selim I., **begin to rule Armenia.** Country continues to be a land of strife between Turks and Persians.

1639. Part of eastern Armenia ceded to Persia.

1802. Georgia definitely declared a province of Russia, bringing that nation to the Armenian frontier. Earlier, Catherine the Great, during her wars with the Turks, has encouraged the Armenians with projects of independence under her protection, but fails to support them.

1828. *Feb. 22.* **Treaty of Turkmanchai;** two Armenian provinces, including Echmiadzin, seat of the Catholicos, are ceded by Persia to Russia.

1829. *Sept. 14.* In the **Treaty of Adrianople,** Turkey cedes to Russia a small portion of her Armenian territory. Like the Jews, the **Armenians** have become **widely scattered,** but retain their nationalism, and the Russian wars with Persia and Turkey have promoted emigration, especially to Russia. Expatriates promote plans for independence.

1831. American Protestant missionaries begin their labors among the Armenians. Opposed by Russians (Greek rite) and leaders of the Armenian Church, but the work progresses and is **particularly successful along educational lines.** Effort is also made to promote Roman Catholicism among the Armenians. Turkish rule is attended by more or less forced conversions to Mohammedanism.

1878. *March 3.* **Treaty of San Stefano** between Russia and Turkey. Russia annexes a further portion of Armenia, including Kars, Ardahan, and the port of Batum on the Black Sea. Turkey engages to carry into effect in Armenia "the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements . . . and to guarantee their security from Kurds and Circassians."

June 4. **Anglo-Turkish convention; Turkey promises** to introduce **reforms** for protection of Christian subjects in Asia, but fails to do so.

July 13. **Treaty of Berlin** signed by the powers. Cessions to Russia in Asia and the promise of reforms are confirmed. Powers to superintend the application of the reforms. Beginning of the **Armenian question.** Reforms are not made and powers do not compel them, being divided in interests. Great Britain left alone to protest on behalf of Protestants and Gregorians. **Armenian plots against Turkish rule** promote reprisals.

1893–1894. Massacres of Armenians by Turkish troops finally cause an investigation by the powers and renewed demands for reforms.

1895. *May.* Impracticable **project of reform** presented to the Porte by representatives of Great Britain, France, and Russia, and an irade is issued, October 17.

Oct. 1. Riot in Constantinople due to an Armenian demonstration is followed by **renewed massacres** in provinces covered by the reform irade.

1896. *Aug. 26.* Armenians attack the Ottoman Bank in Constantinople. In the riots that follow, the **Armenians** of the city are **systematically slaughtered** by organized bands of Mohammedans, some 7,000 being killed. Planned massacres in the provinces continue, the victims being generally either Protestants or Gregorians. Catholics and Greek Orthodox Armenians are spared by **Turkish plan to divide the powers,** and now and later support for this policy is found in the purpose of Germany to gain a controlling interest over the affairs of the Near East, her "*Drang nach Osten*" (Ger., pressure or impulse toward the

1896 (*continued*).
East). Turkish attitude an affront to Great Britain and a defiance of the sentiment of the United States. Result, nullification of reform and the prevention of interference by the powers.

1909. *April 13.* Beginning of the **massacres** in Adana province, contemporary with the Young Turk revolution at Constantinople.

1914. *Feb. 8.* **Reforms promulgated,** based upon a Russian draft and revised by the ambassadors at Constantinople; but, even if sincere, operation is **frustrated by the World War,** and the scheme is officially nullified in October.

1915–1918. When **Turkey joins Germany and Austria against the Allies** and the Holy War is proclaimed by the spiritual head of Islam, **massacres of Armenians** by Kurds and Turkish soldiers are **renewed** with greater systematic violence than ever before, and with the evident intention of extermination. These continue during the war, and the Christians are deported and placed in concentration camps. Relief is attempted through the American Red Cross and other funds. Armenia is a field of the Russian advance and retreat, and Armenians increase Turkish resentment by aiding the foe. Turkish advance in Russia and Persia is accompanied by atrocities on the Armenians and other Christians in these detached portions of the country.

1916. *Feb. 16.* **Russians capture Erzerum.** This and the later occupation of Trebizond (April 18), the main port of Turkish Armenia on the Black Sea, Bitlis (March 2), Mush (February 19), and Erzingan (July 25) give control of most of Armenia, and this territory is mostly retained, though Russians are not able to use the position for a further advance through Asia Minor against Constantinople.

1917. Revolution in Russia and the Bolshevist régime there destroy the morale of the Russian forces. **Turkey regains control** of Armenia, and also of Russian and Persian Armenia.

1918. *March 3.* In the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk between the Bolsheviki and the Central Powers, **Russia agrees to evacuate Turkish Armenia;** also the Russian districts of Erivan, Kars, and Batum. Constitutional and international conditions of these districts to be reorganized in agreement with the neighboring states, particularly Turkey.

April 22. Russian Armenia unites with Georgia and Azerbaijan to form the Federal **Republic of Transcaucasia,** which lasts only a few weeks. Russian Armenia sets up a separate government, with Erivan as capital.

September–October. From the condition in which Russian treaty left Armenia the **country is rescued by the advance of the Allies** in Mesopotamia and Syria, threatening to cut off the Turkish forces in Armenia (see MESOPOTAMIA, PERSIA).

Oct. 30. **Turkey signs an armistice;** to withdraw from Persia and Transcaucasia and to surrender all garrisons in Asia Minor; but Allied occupation of Armenia in case of disorder only.

1919. Armenian question is an important one before the Peace Conference at Paris. Famine and continued raids and outrages by Kurds make up much of the history of the country during the year. They prevent the development of a strong national government. **Relief work continues.**

1920. *January–February.* Massacres at Marash (see SYRIA).

Jan. 26. **Republic of** (Russian) **Armenia** recognized by United States. Its natural future is union with Turkish Armenia.

April 11. League of Nations decides it cannot accept mandate for Armenia.

May 11. **Treaty of peace** is handed Turkish delegates. It **makes Armenia an independent state** with such boundaries as President Wilson assigns to it, including access to the sea. **Council** of premiers has **asked United States to accept a mandate for Armenia.**

June 1. United States Senate adopts resolution **refusing consent** of Congress **to acceptance of mandate.**

AUSTRALIA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.

AUSTRIA.

Historical Outline.

THE title Emperor of Austria, is a modern term and was assumed in 1804 by Francis II, who, in 1806, divested himself of the ancient title derived from the Holy Roman Empire. The state of **Austria,** however, is of ancient origin. The territory now called Austria was inhabited by Celtic tribes who were conquered by the Romans about 14 B. C. Vindohona, modern Vienna, became an important Roman settlement. North of the Danube dwelt the Marcomanni and the Quadi, who threatened the peace of the Roman Empire during the reign of Marcus Aurelius. This region was frequently invaded by tribes from Russia, among whom were the Huns; and in 590 A. D. the district was settled by the Slovenes, who subsequently became members of the kingdom of the Avars. After Charlemagne had established his authority over the Bavarians he began a campaign against the Avars, and finally incorporated them in his empire and erected a border state called the East Mark ("*Oestreich*").

The real founder of Austria, however, was Otto the Great, who in 955 overthrew the Magyars, freed Bavaria, and refounded the East Mark for the defense of his kingdom. The control of this region was entrusted to Leopold, a member of the family of Babenberg, which administered it until the middle of the thirteenth century. In 1156 Austria was raised to the rank of a duchy and given special privileges; its territory increased until it occupied substantially the boundaries it had in 1914. The Danube trade was large and profitable, and Vienna became one of the most important German-speaking cities.

In 1282 Austria came into the possession of the family of the Hapsburgs, who continued to rule it until the forced abdication of the last Austrian emperor, Charles I. (1918). The first great period in Austrian history was that of Maximilian I. He succeeded in recovering Vienna from the Hungarians, and greatly added to the Austrian territory, until it included nearly 50,000 square miles. In 1518 representatives of the various Austrian provinces met at Innsbruck, a proceeding which marks the beginning of the unified organic government of Austria.

Maximilian was succeeded by his grandson, King Charles of Spain, who became emperor under the title of Charles V. The Austrian lands were given to Ferdinand, the brother of Charles, and thus Spain and Austria remained divided. Ever since the Turks appeared north of the Danube, Austria had been the bulwark of Europe. In 1526 Solyman the Magnificent defeated and killed the king of Bohemia and Hungary, thereby obtaining the greater part of Hungary. In 1530 the Turks besieged Vienna, and Ferdinand agreed to pay them tribute for the small portion of Hungary which he still held.

During the early years of the Thirty Years' War Austria gained ground against the northern Protestant states of Germany. With the entry of France in 1635 the war became a struggle between France and the House of Hapsburg. After the Peace of Westphalia, in 1648, Austria was forced to allow Alsace to pass to France and to permit the states of the empire to make independent alliances. The Holy Roman Empire, as a political force, practically ceased, although it was not formally abolished until 1806.

In the latter half of the seventeenth century Austria, under Leopold I., was involved in wars with Turkey and was only saved from the loss of Vienna and the destruction of the state by the intervention of the Polish king, John Sobieski. In 1699 peace was finally made at Karlowitz by which Slavonia, Transylvania, and practically all of Hungary were ceded to the Austrian crown By the acts of the Diet of Pressburg the Hungarian crown was made hereditary in the Hapsburg family, and in 1697 Transylvania was united to the Hungarian monarchy. The personal union between Austria and Hungary continued, though Hungary was not a part of the empire.

During the eighteenth century Austria, in common with the rest of Europe, was involved in the War of the Spanish Succession, as the result of which Austria received the Spanish Netherlands, Sardinia, and Naples.

In 1740 Emperor Charles VI. died and was succeeded in the Austrian and Hungarian kingdoms by his daughter, Maria Theresa. This was the signal for an attack upon the Austrian dominions, beginning the War of the Austrian Succession Frederick the Great of Prussia, with the support of France, seized Silesia; England supported Austria. The war ended in 1748 with the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Austria ceded Silesia to Prussia.

In 1756 an alliance was made between France and Austria to withstand the aggressions of Frederick the Great, and the Seven Years' War began. Great Britain now supported Prussia. By the Peace of Hubertsburg, in 1763, Germany was practically divided between Austria and Prussia. In 1772 came the first partition of Poland, by which Austria received the great province of Galicia.

The French Revolution brought Austria and France again into conflict, although Queen Marie Antoinette was an Austrian princess In 1792 France declared war, and Austria, in alliance with Prussia, began a twenty years' struggle. The first phase of the war came to an end with the Treaty of Campoformido (or Campoformio) October 17, 1797, by which Austria lost the Belgian provinces, but gained Venice. In 1793 had come the second partition of Poland, which marked the end of that buffer state, and brought Russia, Prussia, and Austria in touch with one another. The rise of Napoleon caused a renewal of the war, and after the decisive battle of Austerlitz the Treaty of Pressburg (1805) deprived Austria of Venice and Tirol, while the Confederation of the Rhine was formed to break the unity of Germany. Six months later Francis I., who since 1804 had borne the title of Emperor of Austria, abdicated the title and functions of "German Emperor in the Realm." Austria, always hostile in spirit to Napoleon, in 1813 joined the Grand Alliance and shared in the battle of Leipzig which opened the way for a victorious advance into France.

The congress which was to resettle the affairs of Europe was held at Vienna in 1814 and 1815. Under the guidance of Count Metternich, its prime minister, Austria received all the territories lost since 1792, except Belgium and Breslau, and was restored in Lombardy, Tirol, and Venetia. Until 1848 Metternich dominated the Austrian policy and established a system of repression and reaction, which extended to Prussia, France, and the German state. So successful was he that the Revolutions of 1830 hardly affected Austria.

During this period Hungary was kept in semi-dependence. In 1848 Hungary, under the lead of Kossuth, broke into open revolt and would have secured independence but for the armies of Russia which came to the rescue of Francis Joseph.

During the next fifteen years Austria dominated Hungary and was the leading power in Germany. Slowly the rival, Prussia, forged ahead and, after 1860, founded its system of universal military service. In 1864 Austria was aroused by the Prussian victory over Denmark, but could not rise to the danger of war and was overwhelmed by Prussia in the Seven Weeks' War of 1866. By the Peace of Prague Austria agreed to withdraw altogether from German affairs, and was allowed to retain all her territory.

In 1867 a working arrangement was reached with Hungary, resulting in the formation of the Dual Monarchy. The German victory of 1871 over France and the establishment of a German Empire still further diminished the power of Austria in Europe. Meanwhile the Austrian Empire was struggling with its racial problems.

The Austro-Hungarian Monarchy was composed of two equal, distinct, and independent composite states with two capitals, Vienna for Austria and Budapest for Hungary. Each had its own parliament and its own ministry and administration. The two kingdoms were united in the person of the monarch, who was emperor of Austria and king of Hungary. Certain affairs were also regarded as common for both and they were administered by a joint ministry with three departments, foreign affairs, war, and finance The only common deliberative body was a Delegation of 60 members from each part of the monarchy, which met alternately at Vienna and Budapest.

In both kingdoms there was racial heterogeneity; in each there was a dominant race. In Austria the Germans were the largest single race element (9,000,000), but were outnumbered in the total by large groups of Czecho-Slovaks (6,000,000), Poles (5,000,000), Ruthenians (3,000,000), and Slovenes (1,000,000). In Hungary the Magyars numbered 10,000,000, but they were outnumbered in the total by Roumanians (3,000,000), Germans (2,000,000), Slovaks (1,900,000), Croatians (1,800,000), Serbians (1,100,000), Ruthenians, and others. Many of these minority races were separated from their kinsmen in other states and there was constant striving for autonomy within the monarchy and aspirations for union with their kinsmen outside. In Galicia the Poles, though in a minority, gained control of the Diet and enjoyed greater autonomy than did their kinsmen who suffered under Prussian or Russian rule. In Bohemia the struggle was more severe and the Czechs were kept in cultural subjection as well as political bondage to the Germans. Bosnia and Herzegovina, with a population of 2,000,000, were practically Austrian dependencies, making 17,000,000 people ruled by 9,000,000 Germans.

In foreign policy, the Dual Monarchy has had a varied history. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 Austria-Hungary received the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, nominally under Turkish suzerainty. Although forced to consent to the continuance of the Balkan states of Bulgaria, Roumania, and Serbia, Austria looked askance at the establishment of Slav states, lest the Slavic peoples within her borders should desire to unite with them. Thus she regarded with no friendly eyes the growing sentiments of nationality in Serbia. In 1908, after the Turkish Revolution, she formally annexed the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, thereby arousing the hostile feeling of the Slavs. At the close of the first Balkan War of 1913, Austria persuaded the great powers to establish the kingdom of Albania, thereby preventing Serbia from obtaining an access to the sea. As a result, Serbia was inspired with bitter hatred and a passionate desire to unite all Serbs, whether in Austria or elsewhere, in one state. This was one of the direct causes of the World War.

The German-Hungarian ruling statesmen had long sought an occasion of war with Russia. The immediate break came from the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand at Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, by an Austrian subject of Serb race. For this act Austria held the Serbian government responsible, and in a

brutal ultimatum demanded abject reparation from Serbia. Acting upon the advice of Russia, Serbia consented to these demands, but Austria, which had already secured the backing of Germany, alleged that the submission was not sufficiently complete, and declared war upon Serbia. This caused Russia to mobilize in defense of her Slavic kinsmen. Germany was seeking a cause of open war and mobilized against both Russia and her ally, France.

During the World War, Austria fighting for herself was unsuccessful. The first invasion was repulsed by Serbia. The Russians were able to penetrate Galicia, to capture Przemyśl, and to threaten an invasion of the great Hungarian plains. The Austrian Slavs realized that they were fighting against their own cause, and in some cases went over to the enemy. During these campaigns Italy in 1916 was able to capture Görz and to win a foothold on the Carso (Karst) plateau and threaten the road to Laibach (1917).

The Germans had to come to the aid of the Austrians. With combined German and Austrian forces they completely vanquished Serbia and Montenegro in 1915–16, threw back the threatened invasion of Russia, and, in 1917, regained from Italy the lost ground and drove the Italians behind the Piave River. Until 1918 the Allies had not considered the dismemberment of Austria-Hungary; but the demands of the Czecho-Slovaks were finally answered by the recognition of their independence (France, June 30, 1918), and Italy approved of the aspirations of the Jugo-Slavs for an independent state.

The collapse came suddenly in September, 1918. The Austrian armies, no longer reënforced by the Germans, were driven from their positions in Macedonia and Bulgaria, and made unconditional surrender September 30, 1918. In the last week of October the Italians broke up the Austrian armies on their territory. November 3, Austria accepted an armistice, dictated by the Italians. Three days before, revolutions broke out in Budapest and Vienna, and on November 11 the Emperor Charles abdicated; next day the German-Austrian republic was proclaimed.

In February, 1919, a national constitutional assembly was elected on the basis of universal suffrage. In this chamber the Social Democrats obtained 70 seats; the Christian Socialists, 64; the Liberals, 23. In spite of rumors that the monarchy was to be reëstablished, no head was chosen for the state, the executive power being placed in the hands of a cabinet, headed by Dr. Karl Renner. Throughout the summer of 1919 there were serious outbreaks and communistic demonstrations, but these were finally quelled and the government accepted the treaty drawn by the Allies.

Organization.

Government. Until the overthrow of the Dual Monarchy, Austria was governed by a Reichsrath, or legislature, consisting of two houses. The upper house was composed of princes of the imperial family (14); nobles in whose family by nominations of the emperor the dignity was hereditary (81); archbishops (10); bishops (7); other life members nominated by the emperor (159); a total of 271. The lower house, of 516 members, was chosen on the basis of universal, equal, direct suffrage by Austrian male citizens over 24 years of age.

The powers of the Reichsrath were those which ordinarily belong to a parliamentary body. All laws, including the budget, must have been passed by both houses; and all treaties, which placed a fiscal burden upon the monarchy or the citizens or involved any change in the territorial status, must have been ratified by it. Either house might interpellate the ministers and investigate the administrative acts of the government. Each of the 17 provinces of the Austrian half of the monarchy had its parliament and local administration.

The sovereign power of the monarchy was vested in the emperor, and all powers, not expressly conferred elsewhere, remained in his hand. The powers of government were exercised largely through ministers who were supposedly responsible to the Reichsrath. Certain important powers were expressly conferred upon the emperor and indirectly exercised by him; these included the appointment and dismissal of ministers, the management of all public officials, the command of the armed forces, together with the power of declaring war and concluding peace, the power of granting titles and appointing life peers, the power of pardon, the right to summon, adjourn, and dissolve various legislative bodies, and to issue ordinances and to conclude treaties with consent of the Reichsrath, where such consent was necessary.

The ministers were nominally responsible and the parliamentary system was nominally in operation; actually, the ministers were more dependent upon the emperor than upon the Reichsrath. The political parties in the Reichsrath were so numerous, and, because of racial divisions, so hostile to one another, that the government found little difficulty in playing one group against another. The Czechs were always an irreconcilable body of members.

In 1920 Austria was a republic, but found difficulty in keeping up a government and plainly expects to unite with Germany.

Industry and Labor. Within the diversified territory of Austria the natural productions vary according to the latitude and still more according to the altitude. Some parts of the country reach up the Alpine slopes beyond the snow line, other parts descend to the level of the Adriatic and to semi-tropical conditions. The chief industries are agriculture and mining, and the cultivation of the soil furnishes employment to nearly half of the population. The leading agricultural crops are rye, oats, barley, wheat, potatoes, sugar beets, wine, and pulse. There were in Austria in 1910 over 1,800,000 horses, for which Austria was deservedly famous, and vast herds of cattle, sheep, and pigs. The production of silk cocoons was also important.

In the south, Austria possessed rich and varied mineral wealth, although with the loss of Bohemia and Moravia this has been diminished. Nevertheless, there are deposits of coal and iron, copper, lead, zinc, sulphur, manganese, and petroleum, and rich salt mines in Upper Austria. The value of the mining products in 1913 amounted to over $75,000,000 and the steel production in 1917 amounted to over 2,000,000 metric tons. There were numerous factories of pottery, textiles, food and table delicacies, woodwork and metal, and large and important breweries and distilleries and tobacco factories.

The old government gave much attention to roads and thoroughfares, to canals and telegraphs and all means of communication and commercial intercourse. The navigation of the rivers had been improved, especially of the Danube, which is the main artery of the country; the rapids of the Iron Gate were corrected and the Danube was made free in 1856. Trieste, the main port of the Adriatic, is an outlet and inlet for commerce. The general condition of labor, however, was poor and unprogressive, the miners were still almost serfs of the operators. Ignorance and semislavery prevailed among the industrial classes. For these reasons labor agitations were common.

Religion. While the monarchy was Christian in profession and while the emperor was always a member of the Roman Catholic Church, religious liberty was established by the law of the state, and political rights were independent of religious professions. 78% of the population, however, are adherents of the Roman Catholic Church, 12% are Greek Catholics, about five per cent Jews, and two per cent Protestants.

Education. Within recent years much attention has been given to education in Austria. New laws were passed regarding instruction, the opening of schools, and the decrease of illiteracy. The school system of Austria comprised elementary schools, Gymnasia, universities, and technical and special schools. Attendance at elementary schools is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14. In 1912 there were over 23,000 elementary schools, with more than 4,000,000 pupils; and in 1905 it was reported that 91.3% of the children of school age were actually attending school. Before the World War there were 518 Gymnasia and Realschulen, with over 160,000 pupils. Eight universities were maintained by the state, of which the Polish university at Lemberg was the largest in 1913–14 and that of Vienna was second largest.

Defense. Before the war the position of Austria-Hungary was that of a fortified city in central Europe. The perimeter of the empire was 5,396 miles in extent; of this line 1,050 miles was on the Adriatic seaboard. The natural barrier of the mountains protected a considerable part of the border and made invasion difficult. At all the strategic points on the exposed frontiers, fortifications were erected. The protection thus afforded was thought to be so effective that the capital was left undefended. On the Adriatic side the naval port of Pola could accommodate the entire naval force of the monarchy and was strongly fortified.

The peculiar constitution of the Dual Monarchy modified the whole military system. In general it was based on the German model, but the desire of Austria to increase to the utmost the fighting strength of the monarchy was not approved by Hungary. The first-line troops of the Austro-Hungarian army were under the joint government and were known as the "common" army. Both Austria and Hungary, however, possessed national armies with separate organizations, which, however, were under the command of the emperor in Austria, who was the king in Hungary. Service was compulsory throughout the monarchy, and all men were liable between the ages of 19 and 42. Actual service, however, usually commenced at the 21st year and continued for two years, followed by ten years in the reserve. About 160,000 recruits were raised annually and the total strength of the field army was about 600,000, to which should be added the divisions of the Austrian and Hungarian reserves, which would give a total of about 820,000. The casualties during the World War were estimated at 4,500,000, including 1,000,000 killed.

The Austro-Hungarian navy was maintained in a high state of efficiency and at the outbreak of the war included 4 dreadnoughts, 12 predreadnoughts, 18 destroyers, 63 torpedo boats, 11 submarines, and a flotilla of monitors for policing the Danube.

Before the World War the **area** of Austria was 115,832 square miles and the **population** (1910) 28,571,934. The new republic of Austria, however, has an area of about 32,000 square miles and a population estimated at 6,412,430 (see HUNGARY).

Chronology.

For special Hungarian affairs, see also HUNGARY.
For earlier events in history of Austria, see MEDIEVAL PERIOD and EARLY MODERN PERIOD, *Chronology*.

1648. Austria, by the Peace of Westphalia, recognizes the division of the Holy Roman Empire into Protestant and Catholic states.

1657. **Leopold I.** of Germany is crowned **king of Hungary; the Turks,** by their ascendancy in Transylvania, contend with the German emperor for the control of that country.

1664. *Aug. 1.* **Germans** under Montecuccoli **defeat** the **Turks** under Kuprili in the great **battle of St. Gothard.** The victory is followed by the **Treaty of Vasvár** and a twenty years' truce.

1665. By the extinction of the direct line, **Tirol reverts to the Austrian crown.**

1683. **Turks and Hungarians** under command of Kara Mustafa **invade Austria** and besiege Vienna, greatly endangering both Austria and all Christendom; the **Poles under John Sobieski interpose,** and by a **great victory** hurl back the Turks and preserve the political status of Europe.

1686. Buda is retaken from the Turks.

1697. Victory of the Germans and their allies under Prince Eugene at Zenta leads to the **Peace of Karlowitz** (1699), by which the control of Transylvania is wrested from the Turks.

1701. Austria becomes involved in the **War of the Spanish Succession** (see FRANCE and SPAIN).

1704. The Austrians under Prince Eugene and the English under Marlborough each win a great victory over the French at Blenheim.

1713–1714. By the **treaties of Utrecht and Rastatt,** Austria renounces her claims to Spain and receives in return the Spanish Netherlands and Spanish possessions in Italy.

1717. Belgrade retaken from the Turks. By the Treaty of Požarevac (Passarowitz) in 1718, Austria acquires part of Serbia and Wallachia.

1735. By the **Treaty of Vienna,** closing the **War of the Polish Succession,** Austria loses Lorraine, Lombardy, and the Two Sicilies, receiving in exchange Parma and Piacenza.

1739. By the **Treaty of Belgrade,** Austria loses to Turkey most of what she had gained by previous treaties with that nation.

1740. Charles VI., the last of the male line direct of Hapsburg, dies and is succeeded by his daughter, **Maria Theresa,** who becomes queen of Hungary, October 20. The succession is disputed by Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, and Augustus III. of Poland and Saxony. **Frederick II. (the Great)** demands that Silesia be ceded to him. He makes an invasion of Silesia in December, and the **War of the Austrian Succession** begins.

1741. *April 10.* Frederick the Great defeats the Austrians at **Mollwitz.** France favors Charles Albert, and makes war in his behalf. An alliance between the Elector and the French is arranged, in May. England, however, supports Maria Theresa. **Austria is invaded** and the queen makes a successful appeal to the Hungarian Diet. The Bavarian, French, and Saxon allies overrun Bohemia and capture Prague.
Persistent attempts to Germanize the Hungarian nobles by bringing them into the court at Vienna prove in the end unsuccessful.

1742. Charles Albert is chosen emperor, as **Charles VII.** Frederick the Great defeats the Austrians at Chotusitz, May 17; **Treaty of Breslau** follows, Austria ceding greater part of Silesia to Prussia.

1743. Saxony and Sardinia become the allies of Austria. In the following year the French invade the Austrian Netherlands; Charles III. of Naples makes war against Austria.

1744. Frederick II invades Bohemia. The French and the Spaniards win a victory near Cuneo (Coni), Italy (see FRANCE).

1745. Charles VII. of Germany dies, January 20, and his successor in Bavaria, Maximilian Joseph, makes a treaty with Maria Theresa. The French defeat the Austrians and their allies at **Fontenoy,** May 11. Frederick the Great, on June 4, is victorious at **Hohenfriedeberg.** Francis Stephen, Grand Duke of Tuscany, the husband of Maria Theresa, is elected emperor as **Francis I.,** September 13. Italian territories of Austria are occupied by her opponents.

1746. Austrians make a campaign in Italy. Marshal Maurice Saxe leads the French troops to a triumph over the allied forces of Charles of Lorraine, at **battle of Rocourt** (Raucoux), Oct. 11.

1747. Saxe defeats the English supporters of Austria at Lauffeld (Lawfeld), July 2 (see FRANCE). Bergen op Zoom is taken by the French. Mean-

1747 (*continued*).
time an army is sent by Russia to support Austrians, but arrives too late to participate in the war.

1748. *Oct. 18.* Treaty of peace is signed at **Aix-la-Chapelle,** and the **War of the Austrian Succession ends.** Austria yields Silesia to Frederick the Great, and cedes Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to Spain.

1753. Prince Wenzel Kaunitz is made chancellor by Maria Theresa. [America.

1754. War between France and England begins in

1756. Seven Years' War breaks out in Europe. Austria and France oppose Prussia and Great Britain. Frederick defeats the Austrians under Browne at Lobositz, October 1.

1757. Austrians under Charles of Lorraine and Browne are again defeated at **Prague,** May 6, by Frederick. Austrians administer a severe defeat to Frederick at **Kolin,** June 18; they occupy Silesia, but are defeated, December 5, at **Leuthen.**

1758. The Russians enter the war on the side of Austria. Frederick severely defeats them at Zorndorf (August). **Daun** surprises and **defeats Frederick at Hochkirch,** October 14.

1759. The Austrians and Russians under Laudon and Soltikov overwhelm the army of Frederick on August 12, at **Kunersdorf.**

1760. In October Berlin is occupied for a short time by the Russians and Austrians, but **Frederick defeats Daun at Torgau** on November 3.

1762. Empress Elizabeth of Russia dies. Russia and Sweden retire from the war, thus saving Frederick the Great.

1763. *Feb. 15.* **Peace of Hubertsburg** is concluded by Saxony, Austria, and Prussia. **Seven Years' War ends** and **Silesia** is finally **ceded to Frederick the Great.** Anglo-French peace is made at Paris, February 10.

1770. Marriage of Louis, dauphin of France, **with Marie Antoinette** of Austria.

1772. Large territory adjacent to Hungary is acquired **in the first partition of Poland** and erected into kingdom of Lodomeria and Galicia. Turkey cedes Bukowina to Austria.

1778. Contest known as the **War of the Bavarian Succession is begun.** Austria makes an effort to seize a portion of the Bavarian domain, and supports the claims to the throne made by Charles Theodore, the elector palatine. Prussia opposes Austria.

1779. War of the Bavarian Succession ended by the **Treaty of Teschen,** and Charles Theodore is recognized in the sovereignty.

1780. *Nov. 29.* **Maria Theresa dies,** and is succeeded by her son, the Emperor **Joseph II.,** who undertakes a general reform of the government; not successful.

1781. Joseph II. issues an edict of toleration.

1787. The emperor makes an unsuccessful attempt to seize Belgrade, and thus becomes engaged in a war with Turkey.

1789. Turks at Focsani are **defeated** by the Austrians and Russians under the Prince of Coburg, and Marshal Suvaroff.
French Revolution greatly affects Austrian possessions in the west.

1790. *Feb. 20.* **Joseph II. dies,** and is **succeeded by Leopold** as sovereign of Austria and Hungary. September 30, Leopold is elected emperor of Germany as Leopold II. In December an insurrection in Belgium is quelled.

1791. Constitutional liberties of Hungary are reaffirmed by Leopold II., and freedom is given to the Protestants. In August a **peace with Turkey** is concluded at Sistova.

1792. *March 12.* **Leopold dies;** succeeded by his son Francis, who, July 5, becomes emperor as **Francis II.**
April 20. **France declares** war on Austria (see France). **First coalition** of Prussia and Austria **against France** follows. Austrians are defeated at **Jemappes,** November 6, and most of the Austrian Netherlands fall to France.

1793. *March 18.* Austrians win a brilliant victory over the French at **Neerwinden.**
Sept. 23. **Second partition of Poland;** Austria receives little.

1794. *June 26.* Jourdan defeats the Austrians at **Fleurus.**

1795. By the **third partition of Poland** Austria gets West Galicia. War continues on the Rhine.

1796. Napoleon begins his conquest of northern Italy, and early in the following year wins a **great victory at Rivoli Veronese.**

1797. *Oct. 17.* By the preliminary Peace of Campoformido, Austria **cedes Lombardy and Flanders but obtains Venice** (see France).

1799. War of the **Second Coalition against France.** The Russian General **Suvaroff** wins great victories in Switzerland and Italy.

1800. Austrians lose the bloody **battle of Marengo,** June 14, and are again defeated at Hohenlinden, December 3. French advance on Vienna.

1801. *Feb. 9.* **Treaty of Lunéville** between France and Austria confirms the stipulations of Campoformido (see France).

1804. *Aug. 11.* Francis II. assumes the title of Francis I., Emperor of Austria, relinquishing the title of German Emperor in the Realm in 1806.

1805. War of the **Third Coalition against France** breaks out. Napoleon occupies Vienna, November 13, and defeats the Austrians in the great **battle of Austerlitz,** December 2. December 26, the **Peace of Pressburg** is concluded between France and Austria, by which Austria loses a part of her possessions.

1809. War breaks out for the fourth time between Austria and France. Vienna again surrenders, May 13. May 21, Napoleon loses a great battle at **Aspern,** but wins a decisive victory at **Wagram,** July 6. By the **Peace of Vienna** Austria cedes more territory. Domination of Napoleon is accepted by practically all the Continent.

1813. Austria joins Prussia, Russia, and England in a further coalition against Napoleon. After winning the **battle of Dresden,** Napoleon is forced to withdraw and is defeated in the great **battle of Leipzig,** October 16–18. The allies drive him out of Germany and on December 13 they cross the Rhine.

1814. *Feb. 5–March 19.* **Congress of Chatillon** offers terms to Napoleon. Allied troops **defeat Napoleon** and compel his **abdication** (April 6).
General congress of the European powers assembles at **Vienna** in order to decide the political status of the Continental powers. The congress opens, November 3, with Austria represented by Prince **Metternich.**

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *June 8.* Act of Confederation, creating **Germanic Confederation,** in which **Austria** is the **leading member.**
June 9. Final act of Congress of Vienna. Austria is reinstated in the possession of all the territories in her domain at the beginning of the French Revolution, save Belgium and Breslau and other portions which are added to the states of South Germany. The authority of Austria is restored in Tirol, Lombardy, Salzburg, Venetia, and the Illyrian provinces.
Sept. 26. Austria unites with Russia and Prussia in the formation of the **Holy Alliance,** to govern Europe according to the principles of the Gospel as interpreted by themselves (see Nineteenth-Century History). Prince **Metternich** for thirty years is practically ruler of Austria and head of the Mid-European combination.

1821. Austria interferes to suppress the popular uprisings in Italy (see Italy). [(see Italy).

1831. Austria again engages in the strife in Italy

1832. Bologna occupied by Austrians (see France).

1835. Francis II. dies and is succeeded by his son **Ferdinand I.** as emperor of Austria.

1846. As the result of a rising in Galicia, Austria acquires Cracow.

1848. A **revolution** breaks out **in Vienna,** on March 13. **Metternich falls** from power. Venice rebels against Austria, March 22, and establishes a republic with Manin at its head. In March, Charles Albert of Sardinia undertakes a war against Austria in order to free Italy from foreign domination (see Italy). The movement against the government is renewed in Vienna, May 15, and the Emperor Ferdinand flees from the city. A Panslavic congress opens in Prague, June 2. Papal forces surrender to Austria at Vicenza, June 11 (see Italy). Insurrection occurs in Prague, but it is put down by Windischgrätz in June. The German Confederation dissolves itself. [opens.
July 5. **Hungarian National Assembly**
July 22. **Austrian Parliament** assembles.
July 25. Austrians under Radetzky decisively defeat the Italians at Custozza.
Jellachich, ban of Croatia, begins a war with the Hungarians, in September. A committee of protection is formed in Hungary, with **Louis Kossuth** as its chief, in September. Jellachich threatens Budapest, but the Hungarians advance against him, and he is routed, December 29.
Oct. 6. Vienna breaks forth in general insurrection against the government, and the emperor flies for the second time. Windischgrätz storms Vienna on October 31, and on November 21 the **Schwarzenberg ministry** is formed in Austria. **Ferdinand abdicates** the Austrian throne on December 2. His nephew, **Francis Joseph,** succeeds. Hungarians under Görgei are forced to retreat before the advance of Windischgrätz, and lose ground elsewhere.

1849. Hungarians evacuate Budapest. Francis Joseph, on March 4, issues a proclamation in which he declares the **national autonomy of Hungary abrogated,** and a constitution for the empire as a whole is promulgated at the same time. **Russia** comes to the **aid of Austria,** but the first armies are routed by the Hungarians under Bem in March.
April 14. The **Independence of Hungary** is proclaimed at Debreczen by the Diet, and the country is declared a republic, with **Louis Kossuth** as governor-president. **Hungarians** are **beaten at Temesvár,** August 9, by the Austrians under Haynau; **Kossuth resigns** the powers intrusted to him, and surrenders August 13; Hungary is again made subject to the emperor of Austria. This restoration is followed by **great severities to the Hungarian patriots.** Hungary does not recover its national rights till 1866. Charles Albert of Sardinia is vanquished by the Austrians under Radetzky, at **Novara,** March 23, and the king abdicates in favor of his son (see Italy), who arranges an armistice with the victors. **Treaty of Milan** signed by Sardinia and Austria, August 6.

1850. Austria and the states allied with her reëstablish the federal Diet of Germany, and the assembly opens its sessions at Frankfurt, September 2 (see Germany). At a conference in Olmütz (November), Austria compels Prussia to withdraw her support from the Liberals in Hesse and dissolve the Union under Prussia. A severe blow to Prussian prestige.

1851. *May 15.* Germanic Confederation revived.

1852. The Austrian prime minister, Prince Schwarzenberg, dies and is succeeded by Count Buol-Schauenstein.

1854. Austria compels the Russians to evacuate the **Danubian Principalities,** which, by an agreement with the Porte, she herself occupied until 1857. [cordat.

1855. The Emperor and Pope Pius IX. make a con-

1859. *April.* Austria becomes involved in a **war with Sardinia and France** (see Italy). A treaty is signed at Zurich by Austria, France, and Sardinia, November 10, by which Lombardy, except Mantua and Peschiera, is conceded to Sardinia.

1860. *Oct. 20.* Emperor issues a proclamation announcing the organization of the empire on a basis of federation.

1861. *Feb. 26.* Francis Joseph issues a decree by which the **reorganization** of Austria is provided **on a constitutional basis.**

1864. Austria takes part **in the Schleswig-Holstein war** (see Germany and Denmark.) In April, the Archduke **Maximilian,** brother of the emperor, acting at the instance of Napoleon III., **accepts the crown of Mexico** as Maximilian I. (see Mexico).

1865. The emperor and the king of Prussia meet at Gastein in August and arrange a plan for adjusting temporarily the Schleswig-Holstein difficulty.

1866. Alliance is formed **against Austria by Prussia and Italy.** War breaks out in June.
June 14. Break-up of the Germanic Confederation (see 1851, above).
July 3. The Austrians are defeated decisively at **Sadowa,** but win a victory over the Italians at **Custozza** and also win in a sea fight off Lissa. **Austria is crushed** and obliged to accept exclusion from German affairs. **Venice** (assigned to Austria by the coalition of 1814) **is ceded to Italy. Peace of Prague** with Prussia is signed August 23, and a treaty is concluded with Italy at Vienna (see Germany and Italy). Count von Beust is made minister of foreign affairs in Austria, October 30.

1867. Von Beust is made prime minister, February 7. The **Austrian Empire** is **reconstructed** according to a **dualistic scheme** submitted by Francis Deák, and the Hungarian constitution is restored, with a national ministry of which Count Andrássy is the premier. Under this constitution Francis Joseph, the emperor of Austria, is crowned king of Hungary on June 8.

1868. The Czechic members of the Moravian and Bohemian Diets resign and make formal statements setting forth demands for national autonomy (see Czecho-Slovakia).

1869. Autonomy is requested by the Poles of Galicia, and insurrections break out in Dalmatia.

1870. Concordat between Austria and Rome is abrogated.

1871. Ministry of Hohenwart in Cisleithan Austria seeks to quiet the agitation of the Czechs by proposing a federalist scheme, but the attempt is unsuccessful and Hohenwart and von Beust resign. Andrássy becomes minister of foreign affairs.

1872. Austria, Germany, and Russia form the *Dreikaiserbund* (League of the Three Emperors).

1873. A new electoral law provides for **direct election** of members **to the Reichsrath.**
Franz Josef Land is discovered by an **Austrian polar expedition** under Payer and Weyprecht, sailing in 1872; the new polar coast is not reached until 1874.
International exposition is held **in Vienna;** a financial panic afflicts the country.

1878. Austria and Great Britain join in protesting the **Treaty of San Stefano,** between Russia and Turkey.
July 13. By the **Treaty of Berlin,** Austria is rewarded by the occupation and administration of **Bosnia and Herzegovina.** July 20, the Austrians enter these countries, and after a desperate contest with the Mohammedan partisans the provinces are subdued in October.

1879. *October.* Andrássy resigns from the premiership, and is succeeded by Baron **Haymerle.**

Oct. 7. **Austria and Germany** conclude a secret **alliance** of mutual defense against Russia.

1881. Austria makes a close **alliance with Serbia.**

October. Baron Haymerle dies, and in the following month Kálnoky is made minister of foreign affairs. **Insurrection** occurs **in Dalmatia,** in November, and the government issues a decree that the citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina shall be subject to military service. In the following year there is a rising in Herzegovina.

1882. *May 22.* **Triple Alliance** with Germany and Italy **formed.** It continues with renewals until the World War.

1883. Austro-German alliance is renewed. Austria makes an **alliance with Roumania.**

1884. *Sept. 15–17.* Emperor meets the rulers of Russia and Germany at Skierniewice.

Dreikaiserbund (Three Emperors' League) is reconstituted.

1885. *August.* Emperor has a conference with the czar at Kremsier.

1887. Austria, Italy, and Great Britain make two Mediterranean agreements.

1889. *Jan. 30.* Crown Prince Rudolph commits suicide. Emperor sternly refuses to entertain proposals looking to the establishment of **home rule in Bohemia.** Laboring classes in Austria, particularly in the cities, share the discontent which is prevalent throughout Europe. A period of jealousy against Russia ensues on account of Slavic influence in Serbia and on the Galician frontier.

1890. Andrássy, the leading statesman and diplomatist of the empire, dies on February 18. The empire is disturbed by agitations in the Balkan states and by **riots and labor strikes** in many cities. The Home Rule party in Bohemia is active; Tisza, the Hungarian prime minister, resigns and is succeeded by Szapáry.

1891. Bitter strife occurs in the Diet **between the Radicals and the Conservatives.** Austria and Germany conclude a **commercial treaty.**

1893. Taaffe ministry (in office since 1881) is driven from power on the question of **electoral reform;** the emperor closes the Diet; **anarchistic uprisings** and radical outbreaks in Prague and other cities follow.

1894. Anarchistic and labor **riots** occur in many parts of the empire. The Hungarian patriot **Louis Kossuth dies** in exile in Italy, March 20. **Civil Marriage Bill,** which makes the civil ceremony compulsory, but permits a subsequent religious rite, is passed.

1895. Windischgrätz ministry falls and is succeeded by one headed by Badeni.

1896. Millenary of the national existence **of Hungary** is celebrated with imposing ceremonies. A new **electoral law** increases the number of voters in Austria proper from two to five millions.

1897. Austria and Russia reach an agreement on the **Balkan question.** Prolonged struggles in the Austrian Parliament over the **renewal of the Ausgleich,** or the apportionment of general expense between Austria and Hungary. Minority in the lower house opposes Prime Minister Badeni, who favors the official use of the **Bohemian language** in Bohemia. This the Germans in Bohemia consider a violation of the constitution. The **commercial union** is maintained on the basis of reciprocity.

1898. *Sept. 10.* **Empress Elizabeth** is **assassinated** by an anarchist.

Dec. 2. **50th anniversary of the Emperor Francis Joseph's accession** is celebrated.

1902. *June 28.* **Austro-German alliance** renewed (see GERMANY).

1903. *January.* A new tariff goes into operation, with duties greatly increased to meet the German tariff. Austria and Russia draw up the so-called **Mürzsteg program** on Macedonian affairs.

1901. *November.* Serious disturbances occur in the lower house of the Hungarian Reichsrath, resulting in the suspension of its sessions.

December. Student riots at Innsbruck, because of the purposed addition of Italians to the university faculty, cause strained relations with Italy.

1905. Grave crisis in the affairs of the Dual Monarchy, endangering its continued existence. The party of independence in Hungary gains great strength. January 4 the Hungarian Parliament is dissolved, but the ministry is defeated in a general election. June 18 Count Tisza's resignation is accepted and Fejérváry is appointed premier. The adoption of the Hungarian language in the Hungarian regiments is demanded by the opponents of the government, and is met by offers of universal franchise.

1906. *Feb. 19.* The emperor as king of Hungary dissolves the Hungarian Parliament, the leaders having refused to form a cabinet unless the words of oommand in the Hungarian portion of the army are given in Magyar.

May 22. Alexander Wekerle is made premier.

December. Austrian Reichsrath passes bill granting **universal suffrage.**

1907. *May 14.* Elections for the new Austrian Reichsrath, under the new suffrage act, show the **remarkable strength of the various socialistic parties.** Of the 225 seats allotted the Germans, the Clericals win 117 and the Radicals 53. The **Ausgleich** is **renewed.** In Hungary the Croats show themselves violently opposed to the language program.

1908. Revolution in Turkey complicates Austrian relations in the Balkans.

Sixtieth anniversary of the coronation of **Francis Joseph** (celebration June 12; Aug. 18, emperor's 78th birthday; and Dec. 2, anniversary of his accession).

Oct. 7. Government announces its intention formally to **annex Bosnia and Herzegovina.** Excitement follows in Serbia, Montenegro, and Turkey. Powers consult concerning the assembling of a European conference.

1909. *Jan. 12.* Turkey accepts the Austro-Hungarian offer of $10,500,000 in return for the extinction of nominal Turkish rights of suzerainty, claimed since 1878 in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Protocol signed February 26.

March 31. Serbian note, agreeing to the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina; severe humiliation to Serbia, which had hoped to become a great Slav power.

1910. *Jan. 18.* **Hédervary** forms a Hungarian cabinet. He advocates a National Labor party, but, lacking support, dissolves the Parliament March 22. A riot follows in which the premier is injured. Reaction in favor of Hédervary gives the government 246 out of 413 seats.

Aug. 18. Eightieth birthday of Francis Joseph celebrated with great festivities throughout empire.

1911. *Jan. 30.* At Cracow University, **students strike** in protest against the appointment of a German professor; authorities close the university.

June 26. Von Biernerth, the Austrian premier, resigns, the general elections held June 13–20 resulting in the defeat of his ministry by the Christian Socialists. Baron Paul Gautsch von Frankenthurm succeeds him.

Sept. 18. Vienna is placed under martial law on account of **food riots.**

Oct. 31. Cabinet resigns and Count Karl Stürgkh is invited to form a ministry.

1912. *March 31.* Francis Joseph threatens to abdicate as king of Hungary unless the difficulties regarding the army law are overcome.

April 16. Hungarian ministry resigns; Ladislas Lukács forms a new cabinet, April 21.

May 23. Socialist proclamation of a **general strike,** as a demonstration in favor of universal suffrage and against the election of Count Tisza as speaker of the lower house, results in **riots** and bloodshed **at Budapest.** [lies defeat Turkey.

October. War breaks out in the Balkans. Al-

Oct. 31. Grave apprehensions are raised in Europe by the attitude of Austria-Hungary toward Serbian claims for seaports on the Albanian coast.

1913. *March 11.* Austria objects to Serbian troops assisting Montenegro in the capture of Scutari (see TURKEY). Tension between Austria and Russia is relieved by an understanding between the emperor and the czar. March 20, **ultimatum** is delivered to **Montenegro** in regard to Scutari. Russia advises King Nicholas to yield. April 10, the powers join Austria in blockading the Montenegrin and Albanian coasts. April 23, Austria-Hungary asks the powers to intervene in regard to the continued siege of Scutari by Montenegro. Troops are moved to the southern border. May 14, a landing party from the allied squadron occupies Scutari.

June 3. Lukács ministry falls in Hungary, after corrupt practices of the premier are exposed in court. New cabinet formed by **Tisza** on June 5.

July 26. **Provincial constitution of Bohemia** is temporarily **suspended** by the emperor because the wranglings of the Czechs and Germans interfere with the normal administration of the kingdom.

Oct. 18. **Austria sends an ultimatum to Serbia** demanding the evacuation of Albanian territory by Serbian troops within eight days.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *April 25.* **Emigration** of males under thirty-four is **prohibited** unless full military service has been performed.

June 5. Understanding of Berchtold with German emperor that Austria is to chastise Serbia.

June 28. **Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne,** and his wife are **killed at Sarajevo** by a Bosnian. The government of Serbia is held responsible by Austria, though no proof of participation is ever produced.

July 23. **Austrian ultimatum to Serbia.** Two days later diplomatic relations are broken off.

July 28. **Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.** (For the WORLD WAR, see that title.)

Aug. 6. Austria declares **war on Russia.**

Aug. 7. **Montenegro declares war** on Austria. **[England** does **likewise.**

Aug. 13. **France declares war** on Austria.

Aug. 25. State of **war** between **Japan** and Austria declared.

Aug. 27. Austria declares **war on Belgium.**

Sept. 23. Cholera breaks out in Austrian army.

Oct. 26. Gavrio Prinzip and 23 accomplices in the assassination of the archduke and his wife are pronounced guilty at Sarajevo. Five are sentenced to death, and others to penal servitude. None executed.

1915. *Jan. 13.* Berchtold resigns, and is succeeded by Burián von Rajescz as foreign minister.

Jan. 28. Mobilization provokes violent uprisings among the South Slavs, especially in Bosnia and the Herzegovina. [is called out.

Feb. 13. Entire Austro-Hungarian Landsturm

Feb. 24. Government takes over all grain and flour, and in March a system of per capita distribution is inaugurated.

Strong German pressure brought to bear on Austria to induce her to **cede to Italy Trentino** and a portion of the Istrian peninsula, for the purpose of keeping Italy neutral.

March 20. **Austria** declares herself ready **to make large concessions** to Italy. The Italian reply proves disappointing.

March 24. Half a million troops are massed on the Italian frontier. Many villages evacuated and houses destroyed to afford better range for the guns.

April 18. **Bread riots** occur **in Vienna** and at points in Bohemia.

April 26. Field Marshal von Auffenberg, ex-minister of war and former chief of staff, is arrested and convicted of plotting to sell military secrets to the Russian government for $1,500,000.

Secret treaty of Italy with Allies (see ITALY).

May 3. **Italy** formally **abandons the Austro-Italian alliance.**

May 19. First meatless day in Vienna; two days in the week are set apart by the government on which no beef, pork, or veal may be sold.

May 24. **War** is **declared by Italy** on Austria-Hungary.

June 24. **Food crisis** becomes **acute,** many articles quadrupling in price. Panic in Budapest.

July 24. Government takes over the 1915 vegetable crop.

November. Ministers of the interior, of commerce, and of finance resign, being unable to solve the economic situation. **Hungary** is practically **in a state of famine.**

1916. *July.* New taxation system devised by Hungary to meet the interest (about $72,000,000) on her four war loans. Károlyi forms a new party in Hungary, with immediate peace as its platform.

August. **Roumania declares war** on Austria.

October. 10,000 munition workers strike in Bohemia and demand flour.

Oct. 21. Count Stürgkh, premier of Austria, is assassinated at Vienna; succeeded by von Körber on October 27.

Nov. 21. **Francis Joseph dies** after a reign (beginning Dec. 2, 1848) exceeding in length that of any previous Hapsburg; his grandnephew Archduke Charles Francis Joseph succeeds as Emperor **Charles I.**

December. Owing to the shortage of coal and difficulties of transportation all shops are ordered closed at 7 P.M., restaurants and cafés at 11 P.M.; all electric or gaslight signs are prohibited, and the lighting of shop windows is to be reduced one third.

Dec. 12. Austrian ministry under von Körber resigns; Clam-Martiniz forms new cabinet.

Dec. 22. Czernin succeeds Burián von Rajescz as foreign minister.

Dec. 26. For reply to President Wilson's "peace note," see WORLD WAR.

1917. *January.* Acute **food crisis;** demonstrations and riots in Graz and elsewhere.

March 3. Clam-Martiniz announces that the government will provide **food for the poor** at reduced prices.

March 27. Restricted potato rations go into effect. Food Bureau orders introduction of **meat cards** and **forbids** the restaurants to serve **sugar.**

May 23. Tisza, who has favored intimate cooperation with Germany, tenders his resignation. He is succeeded by Count Moritz Esterházy, a Magyar Liberal.

May 31. At the opening of the Austrian Parliament, the Emperor indicates his readiness to make a separate peace with Russia.

June 19. Clam-Martiniz, unable to make headway against the Slav opposition, resigns. Von Seydler succeeds as premier.

June 25. **Károlyi,** leader of the Independent party in the Hungarian Parliament, declares that responsibility for the war rests with the Teutonic leaders. He **demands independence for Hungary and a democratic constitution.**

July 14. Speaking amid great uproar in the Austrian Reichsrath, a Czech member, Praschek, demands separation from Germany.

Aug. 20. Wekerle becomes premier of Hungary upon the resignation of Esterházy.

Sept. 21. For the reply to the pope's peace message, see WORLD WAR.

1917 (*continued*).
November. Severe **food crisis in Vienna.** Hungary is reported to have refused supplies.
Dec. 18. Czernin leaves for **Brest-Litovsk** to negotiate with Russia.
Dec. 24. A reform bill introduced in the Hungarian Parliament would not only extend **franchise to women,** but make them eligible to office.
1918. *Jan. 3.* Subscriptions to Hungary's seventh war loan fall off heavily.
Jan. 18. Serious **strikes** and **riots in Vienna** and other Austrian cities, due to shortage of foodstuffs and desire for peace.
Jan. 19. **General** strike begins in Austria, 100,000 workers joining in Vienna alone.
Jan. 20. In the face of widespread peace agitation, von Seydler cabinet resigns in Austria. Resignation refused by Emperor Charles.
Jan. 24. Czernin, the foreign minister, expresses general agreement with the peace suggestions of President Wilson, but qualifies his approval of some points by declaring that Austria-Hungary must support Germany.
Jan. 26. Emperor Charles, as king of Hungary, accepts the resignation of the cabinet and directs the premier, Wekerle, to effect a reorganization.
March. Strike movement reported spreading to Hungary. Communication between Budapest and Vienna cut off.
April 2. Czernin discusses the four points laid down by President Wilson in his address of February 11 (see UNITED STATES), but doubts if the Allies will accept them.
April 11. Report spreads that **Emperor Charles,** in a letter to his cousin, Prince Sixtus de Bourbon, **acknowledges** the justice of **French claims to Alsace-Lorraine.**
April 15. Czernin, minister of foreign affairs, resigns; Baron Burián von Rajescz succeeds him.
May 20. Martial law proclaimed in Prague. Rioting crowds denounce the government.
June 1. British government recognizes the Czech National Council (see CZECHO-SLOVAKIA).
June 17. Hungarian government seizes all grain crops and flour mills.
June 20. 100,000 munition workers strike as a result of reduction of bread rations. Tisza, former premier, in a speech before the Hungarian Parliament, declares that there is only a third or a fourth of the food necessary to keep population in health.
June 29. Emperor Charles summons the Reichsrath.
July 16. Burián von Rajescz, Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, approves "heartily to a great extent" President Wilson's principles announced July 4, and declares "we are prepared to discuss everything except our own territory."
July 25. Von Hussarek succeeds von Seydler as Austrian premier, and declares his country prepared to make **peace on favorable terms.**
Sept. 14. The government invites all belligerents to participate in a confidential and unbinding discussion, in a neutral country, on the basic principles of a just peace.
Sept. 25. Italy approves of the aspirations of the **Jugo-Slavs** for independence (see JUGO-SLAVIA).
Sept. 27. **Panic** on the **Budapest** bourse.
Oct. 4. Von Hussarek resigns as premier.
Oct. 17. Károlyi, opposition leader, demands absolute **autonomy for the Magyars,** and the immediate institution of peace negotiations.
Oct. 18. **Emperor Charles** issues to his subjects a manifesto which **declares for a confederate state** in which each nationality shall have its own local autonomy.
Oct. 19. President Wilson informs Austria-Hungary, in reply to its note, that he cannot now entertain that government's acceptance of his earlier peace proposals.
Oct. 23. **Károlyi moves** a resolution for the **independence of Hungary** and **a separate peace.** He demands the resignation of the Wekerle cabinet (see HUNGARY).
Oct. 25. **Andrássy** succeeds Burián von Rajescz as foreign minister. **Apponyi** succeeds Wekerle as Hungarian premier.
Oct. 26. Prof. Heinrich **Lammasch** accepts office of Austrian premier on condition that he may proceed to make a **separate peace** with the Allies.
Oct. 27. Andrássy, replying to President Wilson, recognizes rights of the **Czecho-Slovaks** and the **Jugo-Slavs.**
Oct. 29. Andrássy asks the United States to conclude an immediate **armistice.**
Nov. 1. **Revolution** breaks out (see CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, HUNGARY, JUGO-SLAVIA). In Vienna mobs **demand the abdication of the emperor,** who escapes to Gödöllö. The **red flag** of Bolshevist Socialism is **hoisted in Vienna;** a national assembly meets there and adopts a new constitution without the monarchy. **Republican cabinet is formed,** including a number of Socialists.
Nov. 3. **Armistice is signed;** Austria agrees to retire her troops behind a certain line, to demobilize, surrender a portion of the navy, and permit occupation and passage of Allied troops.
Nov. 10. From all parts of the empire come reports of **serious disorders;** rioting, destruction of military stores, and sinking of war vessels.
Nov. 11. **Emperor Charles** announces his **abdication.** State Council declares **German Austria part of the German Republic.**
Nov. 13. **Anarchy** is spreading rapidly **in all regions** of the country. **Disintegration of the old Dual Monarchy** is still in process.
Nov. 25. **First woman** to be appointed as **minister to a foreign country** named by the new Hungarian government; Miss Schwimmer accredited to Switzerland.
1919. For international negotiations, see WORLD WAR; for CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, HUNGARY, and JUGO-SLAVIA, see those titles.
Feb. 16. **Elections** to the Constituent Assembly, **women voting,** result in a **plurality for the Socialists.** March 4, Assembly meets and approves of a **union with Germany.**
March 14. **Food conditions** are reported as **desperate** by the interallied commission.
March 15. Temporary ministry is appointed by the Assembly; **Karl Renner** premier.
March 23. Ex-emperor **Charles** is **compelled to leave** Austria; he goes to Switzerland.
April 17. **Bolshevist** attempts at **outbreak in Vienna** are entirely unsuccessful; necessity of stability for food relief is fatal to the agitation.
June 2. **Peace treaty** is handed to the Austrian delegates.
June 15. **Communist demonstration** in Vienna, with fatal rioting.
Sept. 10. **Treaty of Saint-Germain** is signed after Austrian attempts at modification have failed. Dual Monarchy is abolished; **Austria must not unite with Germany** without permission of the League of Nations; Austria **loses** the **territory** claimed by Italy and Jugo-Slavia (see JUGO-SLAVIA) receives a small slice from Hungary on the eastern border, and is deprived of Bohemia, Moravia (see CZECHO-SLOVAKIA), Galicia (see POLAND), and Bukowina (see ROUMANIA); **army reduced** to 30,000 effectives; **navy** to be **surrendered;** various artistic and historic objects to be given (restored) to other countries; racial minorities protected; amount of **reparation** to be fixed by the commission. The treaty also contains the **provisions on labor** found in the German treaty and in the covenant of the League of Nations, which league Austria may join. **Renner** heads a reorganized ministry. **Conditions** in the restricted nation are still reported as **desperate,** and continue so during the winter and spring, especially in Vienna; with relief measures conducted under American auspices.
Oct. 25. National Assembly **ratifies the peace treaty.**
Dec. 17. **Supreme Council** at Paris **places a ban on separatist movements** in the Austrian provinces, Tirol wishing to join Germany and Vorarlberg to unite with Switzerland.

AZERBAIJAN.

THIS northwest province of Persia on the Russian border was included in the operations of the World War, and heavy fighting occurred repeatedly in the neighborhood of Lake Urmia (Urumiah), although Persia as a nation attempted to maintain neutrality. In May, 1918, the Republic of Azerbaijan was set up, apparently to prevent the Armenians from claiming that territory, which has some Armenian population. The Republic comprises a portion of the former Persian province of Azerbaijan and the two former Russian provinces of Baku and Elizavetpol, with the capital at Baku. It was recognized by the Conference at Paris and by Great Britain in 1920.

The **area** of Azerbaijan is about 40,000 square miles, and an estimate, based on defective Russian statistics, gives it a **population** of about 4,615,000 people.

1918. *May 28.* Independent republic established.
1919. *April 27.* Joint meeting with Georgians and Armenians at Tiflis.
September. Bolsheviki expelled.
1920. *January.* De facto administration recognized by Great Britain.

BAHAMAS.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.

BALTIC PROVINCES.

See under RUSSIA, page 143.

BALUCHISTAN.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65.

BARBADOS.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.

BASUTOLAND.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 66.

BECHUANALAND.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 66.

BELGIUM.

Historical Outline.

THE geographical position of **Belgium** has from earliest times given the country an important standing among the nations of western and central Europe. From the days of Cæsar, the Belgic territory has been the line of racial division between the Teutonic and the Latin and Celtic races. During the Middle Ages the provinces which now form the modern kingdoms of the Netherlands and Belgium were brought under the control of the dukes of Burgundy, and in 1516 on the accession of the Emperor Charles V. (Charles I. of Spain) they were attached to the Spanish crown. Charles V. was succeeded by his son, Philip II., whose tyranny led to the War of Liberation, finally brought to a close in 1648 by the Treaty of Westphalia by which Netherlands gained its independence, but Belgium remained under the control of Spain.

The attempt of Louis XIV. of France to place his grandson upon the throne of Spain produced the War of the Spanish Succession, at the close of which, by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), the Belgian provinces were assigned to Austria and became known as the Austrian Netherlands. In 1792 the armies of revolutionary France invaded the country and by the treaty of 1801 (Lunéville) it was incorporated in France. At the fall of Napoleon, Belgium was against its will united with the kingdom of the Netherlands.

Although the population outnumbered that of Holland by nearly a million, the two parts of the kingdom had equal representation in the legislative assembly. The seat of the government was in Holland and the king was a Protestant in religion and a Dutchman by birth. In the ministry and in the civil service the Belgians did not receive what they considered their share of the offices. The attempt to make Dutch the official language aroused great opposition. Nevertheless the Belgians were prosperous, and measures for improving and extending the educational system were undertaken.

In 1830 the Belgians revolted. In the civil war that followed, the Dutch were unable to prevail; and on the intervention of the great powers, an independent kingdom of Belgium was set up, under Leopold of Saxe-Coburg as Leopold I., king of the Belgians.

The Treaty of London (1831) signed by Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, and Russia recognized Belgium as an independent state and guaranteed its independence and permanent neutrality. Leopold I. turned the attention of the government to private industry and internal communication. Commercial treaties were negotiated with different countries to provide outlets for the industrial products. The king attempted to remove irritating questions from politics, and was so successful that the revolutions of 1848 hardly affected Belgium.

In 1865 Leopold I. was succeeded by his son, Leopold II., who was a figure in Europe throughout his reign, and was chiefly responsible for the atrocities in the Belgian Congo. During the first years of his reign there were almost annual outbreaks, riots and strikes against the Catholic clergy and demands for equal suffrage. The guarantee of neutrality was carried out in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870–71.

In 1909 Albert succeeded as king. At the outbreak of the World War on August 2, 1914, **Germany** presented an ultimatum to Belgium demanding passage for German troops. The king at once appealed to Great Britain, who demanded that Germany observe the neutrality of Belgium, which she and Great Britain had guaranteed, and, on refusal, entered the war. In the meantime the German troops entered Belgian territory. The small Belgian army held the Germans in check at Liége and thus gave the Allies time to concentrate their forces. The overwhelming numbers of the German army, however, broke down all resistance and swept through and occupied all but a small strip of the Belgian territory.

From 1914 to November, 1918, Belgium suffered under military occupation, including wholesale military arrests and executions of noncombatants, the most noted instance being that of Edith Cavell. The Germans levied heavy taxes, fines, and indemnities upon the country, and (1916) decreed the wholesale deportation of Belgians to Germany for forced labor. The suffering of the population was somewhat mitigated by the Belgian Commission for Relief, through which practically all the rest of the Allied world distributed food and supplies under the direction of Herbert Hoover. In 1918 the Belgian government declared that it was no longer willing to accept a status of guaranteed neutrality.

Organization.

Government. Belgium is a constitutional monarchy, the legislative power being vested in the king, Senate, and Chamber of Representatives. No act of the king, however, can have effect unless signed by one of his ministers, who is responsible to the legislature. The Senate consists of 120 members, chosen for eight years, partly by direct and partly by indirect election. The Chamber of Representatives, consisting of 186 members, apportioned according to population, is chosen by direct election for four years, one half retiring every two years. By the system of proportional representation, minority parties are represented. The Electoral Reform Bill of 1919 provides for universal one-man, one-vote suffrage for males of 21, for widows, and for mothers of soldiers killed in battle or of civilians shot by Germans, thus doing away with plural voting.

Religion and Education. Most of the inhabitants are Roman Catholic, but the salaries of ministers of all denominations are paid by the state.

Four universities exist, of which those at Ghent and Liége are state institutions, while those at Brussels and Louvain (ruthlessly destroyed by the Germans) are church institutions. Connected with the universities are special schools of engineering, art, and mining. The secondary schools of Belgium are well organized and administered; but the primary schools, because of the low salaries of the teachers and the inadequate inspection, do not rank high. Education is free for those who cannot afford to pay, but is not compulsory.

Industry. The principal mineral production of Belgium is coal, the mining of which gave employment to over 150,000 people before the war. The product has exceeded 32,000,000 tons a year. The iron mines do not produce as much as formerly and large imports of iron are made from France and Luxemburg. Liége is the center of the metal industry.

The soil of Belgium originally was unfavorable to production, but like Holland, the country has been reclaimed, until at present the agriculture and horticultnre of Belgium are hardly exceeded by any nation. The lands are divided into small holdings and brought to a high state of cultivation. In 1913 the chief crops were oats and rye, wheat and potatoes, and sugar beets. Next after agriculture and mining is the production of live stock. Belgian horses are chosen by purchasing agents of many countries for cavalry service, and sheep and cattle industries flourish.

The Belgian manufactures enjoy a high reputation. Many fine fabrics are produced, particularly woolen, linen, and cotton goods, laces and hosiery. Belgium has two ports of entry, Ostend and Antwerp, and has a large export trade in raw materials and manufactured products.

Defense. The exposed position of Belgium has made the country from earliest times a battlefield. Although its neutrality was guaranteed by the great powers it was thought necessary to fortify several chief cities. Until recently the army was recruited by voluntary enlistment, but on May 30, 1913, a military bill passed the Chamber of Deputies, imposing compulsory military service, and providing an effective field army of 170,000. The total length of service is eight years in the active army and five years in the reserve, which latter can be called out only in the event of war or threatened invasion.

The **area,** including the cessions from Germany, is 11,759 square miles and the **population,** as estimated in 1918, was 7,620,576.

Chronology.

924. What later becomes **Belgium is divided;** Flanders remains a French fief, the rest is in the duchy of Lorraine under the Holy Roman Empire. Feudal states and, later, great city communes develop.

1468. Incorporation with the rest of the Netherlands, **under Burgundian rule,** is completed.

1477. Netherlands passes to the House of **Hapsburg** by Burgundian marriage (see AUSTRIA).

1555. It becomes a **province of Spain.**

1579. *Jan. 5.* League of Arras is signed; southern Catholic Netherlands **severs connection with northern Protestant Netherlands** and remains loyal to Spain. [confirms separation]

1648. *Jan. 30.* Peace of Westphalia (Münster)]

1713. *April 11.* By the Treaty of Utrecht Spanish Netherlands **becomes Austrian** Netherlands.

1792. Belgium overrun by France, becomes a **dependency of France.**

1801. Belgium **incorporated into France.**

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *June 9.* By the Congress of Vienna **Holland and Belgium are reunited** as the Kingdom of the **Netherlands.**

June 18. Napoleon defeated at **Waterloo,** on Belgian territory.

1830. Differences, especially of religion and language, promote dissatisfaction; under the influence of the July Revolution in France, a **revolt against the union.**

Dec. 20. A congress of the powers at London recognizes the **Independence of Belgium.**

1831. *Feb. 7.* Constitution of Belgium is adopted.

June 4. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg elected king of the Belgians; on July 21, he ascends the throne as **Leopold I.** French army stops the threatened advance of the Dutch troops.

Nov. 15. The powers sign a **treaty with Belgium at London,** giving it part of Luxemburg and Holland, a territorial indemnity in Limburg, and declaring independent **Belgium a "perpetually neutral state,"** guaranteed by Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, and Russia.

1832. The French besiege the Dutch in Antwerp, who capitulate December 23. By this conquest the Belgic revolution is completed.

1839. *April 19.* The powers reaffirm the treaty of 1831. On the same day **Netherlands and Belgium** sign a **treaty of separation** in same terms.

1848. Two parties, Liberal and Catholic, develop; the Liberals gain control (1847) and, in sympathy with the popular revolts elsewhere in Europe, the responsible ministry causes the Parliament to enact an **Electoral Reform Bill.**

1852. The Liberals are overthrown, but the Catholics do not gain control until 1854.

1857. The Liberals regain the majority, following an attempt to give the clergy control of charities.

1865. *Dec. 10.* Leopold I. dies, and is succeeded by his son, **Leopold II.**

1870. Flemish is recognized, with French, as an official language. On the outbreak of the **Franco-German War** Belgium takes measures to guard her frontier, but Great Britain announces an intention to uphold the guarantee of neutrality and induces France and Prussia not to violate it.

1876. Leopold II. calls a conference of geographical experts at Brussels to consider Africa. The **International Association** for the Exploration and Civilization of Africa is started.

1878. *Nov. 25.* A special committee of the association, called finally the International **Association of the Congo,** is formed. It is mainly supported by Leopold, and gradually becomes strictly a Belgian affair. It develops the territory of the Congo and its tributaries.

1879. A bill for improving the primary educational system is passed by the Liberals. By it **religious instruction is abolished.** The Belgian bishops protest, and refuse absolution to teachers and parents. Catholic private schools are established, attended by a majority of the children. Diplomatic **intercourse with the Vatican** is temporarily **suspended.**

1880. The **fiftieth anniversary of Belgian Independence** is celebrated.

1884. The clerical reaction leads to the overthrow of the Liberal ministry, and the **Catholic party regains control,** retaining it until the outbreak of the World War. A law is passed permitting the communes to choose between Catholic or unsectarian schools, both being publicly supported. Socialists become important as separate party.

April 22. The United States recognizes the **Congo Association,** with Leopold at its head, as a properly constituted state. Other powers follow suit and the limits of the new state are fixed.

1885. *Feb. 26.* The General Act of the (Congo) **Conference at Berlin** is signed by the participating nations. It provides for freedom of trade in the Congo Basin, the neutrality of the territories of the basin, and the navigation of the river, and also settles other matters pertaining generally to Africa.

Aug. 1. Being authorized to do so by Parliament, Leopold announces to the powers who signed the Congo Act that he has assumed the title of Sovereign of the **Independent State of Congo,** which will have with Belgium an exclusively personal union. The government is an absolute monarchy, and becomes practically a monopolistic trading concern.

1886. The spread of socialism among the laborers and the deplorable condition of the miners lead to disastrous **strikes and riots,** with demands for better conditions and freer suffrage. The agitation continues for years and is the vital question in Belgian politics.

1890. *July 3.* A **convention** is made **with** the **Congo Free State,** by which Belgium advances a loan and is authorized to annex the Free State after ten years.

1891. The first international **Socialist Labor Congress** meets at Brussels in August. Great strikes prevail during the year, and recur during the next two years, the purpose being to force universal suffrage. Meanwhile, the Parliament is unable to reach an agreement on the subject.

1893. *April 27.* Constituent **Assembly adopts** as a compromise **manhood suffrage** with plural voting for the clergy and property holders.

1895. A **new school law** requires compulsory and religious primary education.

1896. *Sept. 19.* Charges by missionaries and others of gross cruelties in the Congo causes the king to appoint a supervisory **Committee of Protection,** which is ineffectual.

1899. *December.* **Proportional representation** is adopted.

1903–1905. Criticism of the **treatment of natives in the Congo** and the commercial methods employed there excite discussion in Great Britain and elsewhere as contrary to the acts of the Congo Conference. Leopold denies the charges and refuses to permit an international investigation. He appoints (July, 1904) a commission of inquiry, but reforms later inaugurated by its effort prove illusory. Belgium's option of annexation not exercised. Intervention by Great Britain feared.

1908. *Nov. 15.* **Congo Free State is annexed.** The original treaty (November 28, 1907) reserved the crown domain to the king, but this unsatisfactory feature was later eliminated.

1909. *Dec. 17.* Leopold II. dies and is succeeded by his nephew **Albert I.,** who, in his speech from the throne, promises radical reforms in the Congo.

1911–1913. The severe **political strife** of these years turns again upon the ministry's educational bill, which favors the Catholics and clerical control, and on the demands against plural voting ("one man, one vote"). The Catholics retain the ascendancy in the elections of June, 1912, but **anticlerical riots** break out in Brussels, and the protests of the Socialists are voiced by strikes. In April, 1913, half of the male workingmen are supposed to be idle. A compromise is reached.

1913. *May 30.* **Military bill** passes Chamber of Representatives, imposing **compulsory universal military service** and providing for an effective field army of 170,000 and a reserve of 200,000.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 2.* **Germany,** in violation of her guarantee of Belgian neutrality, **demands passage for her troops** through Belgium and on refusal invades and subjugates the country. In conformity with the German policy of terror, the conquest is accompanied by many acts of atrocity. (See WORLD WAR for military events.)

Aug. 17. The **seat of government** of Belgium is **transferred** from Brussels (1) to Antwerp, (2) to Ostend on October 5, (3) to Havre, France, on October 13.

Sept. 5. Baron **von der Goltz** becomes the **first German governor-general** of Belgium. He is **succeeded by Baron von Bissing** in December. The pretense of civil government and observance of Belgian law is observed over all of the country not in the army zones, but the arbitrary military courts supplemented by **"military necessity"** practically nullify this. The Hague Convention is violated by the imposition of collective penalties, local and national, levies in excess of legitimate requirements, the substitution of German for Belgian authority, and persistent **efforts at Germanization** and the sapping of Belgian national spirit. The attempt is made to split Belgium on a linguistic basis.

Oct. 9. **Antwerp falls.** This completes the occupation of Belgium, except for a small section in the west, including Ypres, which remains in Belgian control throughout the war.

October. **Commission for Relief in Belgium,** composed of Americans and other neutrals, is organized, with Herbert C. **Hoover** at its head. In connection with a Belgian organization within Belgium it collects, transports, and distributes food and other necessities to prevent starvation in Belgium, where industry has ceased because of German occupation and the Allied blockade. Belgium's raw material and much of her food supplies normally come from outside. The Allies permit the passage of supplies through the blockade, and the Germans refrain from seizure of the imports as well as from requisition of the supplementing Belgian produce, which the commission also handles. The commission has a quasi international status and a separate flag. It sells supplies to those able to pay, and distributes the rest. The **necessary funds** are **raised** mainly **by loans** to the Belgian government from Great Britain, France, and, later, the United States, and the difficulties due to the irredeemable paper money in circulation within Belgium are overcome by the commission's taking complete control of Belgian finances, becoming the sole agent of exchange between the people and the exiled government. The loans are supplemented by **contributions,** in which the British Empire and the United States bear the largest share, but to which many Belgians also contribute.

The commission "mobilizes the benevolence" of the whole world — money, supplies, and personal service — through a complete and highly efficient organization. Separate organizations care for Belgian refugees, esp. in Great Britain and Holland.

December. **Cardinal Mercier** issues a **pastoral letter,** in which he outspokenly condemns German methods of invasion and occupation. Efforts to silence him fail. Throughout the war he is a mainstay in preserving the Belgian spirit of resistance.

1915. *Feb. 15.* **Report of the Rockefeller** Foundation Fund **Commission** on Belgium is issued. This and other reports show that under

1915 (*continued*).
the German rule there has been great depopulation, destruction of buildings and industry, and vast requisition of money, supplies, animals, machinery, raw materials, and finished products.

May 15. German decree for **forced labor** within Belgium.

Oct. 12. Miss **Edith Cavell,** an Englishwoman, lately the head of a training school for nurses in Brussels, is **executed** with others by the German authorities, on the charge of harboring British, French, and Belgian soldiers and helping them to escape from the country. The United States minister, Brand Whitlock, does all he can to save her. It becomes an outstanding example of German methods.

1916. *Oct. 3.* Decree issued for the **deportation of Belgians to Germany** and the front. Idleness is the excuse, but persons are taken without respect to this. The expatriates are kept in concentration camps as a reserve supply of labor, and sent to factories, mines, the front, etc.
General denunciation by the civilized world follows, and the Germans declare that deportations have ceased and expatriates are to be returned; but this is largely fictitious.

1917. *January.* A new form of forced labor is inaugurated in the demand for auxiliary service by Belgian civilians in the army zone.

1918. *October–November.* Allies recover large parts of Belgium.

Nov. 12. The Belgian government declares that the country will no longer submit to a status of guaranteed neutrality. It **aspires to complete independence** and the rights common to all free peoples.

Nov. 22. **King Albert enters Brussels** escorted by Allied troops amid scenes of great enthusiasm. Speaking from his throne in Parliament, he promises equal suffrage to all men of mature age. A **coalition ministry** of Catholics, Liberals, and Socialists starts the process of reconstruction. [forces.

Nov. 28. The country is cleared of German

1919. *April 11.* Chamber of Representatives adopts **Electoral Reform Bill,** universal "one-man, one-vote" suffrage for males of 21, for widows, and for mothers of soldiers killed in battle or of civilians shot by Germans.

June 18–19. President Wilson visits Belgium.

June 24. Supreme Council of Peace Conference grants Belgium **priority in reparation** up to $500,000,000 and substitution of German bonds for Belgian war obligations.

June 28. In the **treaty of peace** Germany renounces to Belgium the small territory of **Moresnet,** and the inhabitants of the circles of **Eupen** and **Malmedy** are to vote on their future status, the League of Nations to make the final decision. Germany also promises to reimburse all sums Belgium has borrowed during the war, make restitution of all things of which she despoiled Belgium, and to make such other reparation as is assigned by the Reparation Commission. The damage done to Belgium by the Germans is officially estimated (May 17) at $7,600,000,000.
Belgium desires additional territory at the mouth of the Scheldt and in Limburg, and negotiations with Holland for this purpose are started, but with no success.

July. By agreement with Great Britain, later ratified by Supreme Council, northwest portion of German East Africa (Ruanda, Urundi) attached to Belgian Congo.

Aug. 8. Belgium ratifies peace treaty.

Sept. 9. **Cardinal Mercier** begins his **visit to the United States.**

Oct. 2–31. **King Albert,** with the queen and crown prince, **visits the United States** to convey his country's thanks for services during the war.

Oct. 9. Report of experts of **Dutch-Belgian Commission on territorial disputes.** Belgium, as Treaty of Versailles states that treaty of 1839 no longer conforms to existing conditions, makes claim to Limburg, also to economic **control of the Scheldt,** use of it in time of war, and Dutch territory south of it. Experts declare claim contrary to Dutch neutrality.

Nov. 19. New Chamber to have 71 Catholics, 70 Socialists, 34 Liberals, besides small groups. Catholics lose 24 seats, due to abolition of plural voting. Senate, Catholics 59, Liberals 36, Socialists 25. Delacroix continues as premier of coalition cabinet.

1920. Sovereignty over Eupen and Malmedy begins.

Jan. 31. Text of **Dutch treaty** unofficially published. Joint control over navigation of Scheldt; military use to be decided by League of Nations; better canal connection for Belgium.

BELGIAN CONGO.

The basin of the mighty Congo River was first made known to civilized nations by the explorations of Stanley in 1876–77. King Leopold II. of Belgium saw the possibilities of the tropical area and aided in founding the Congo International Association. In 1884–85 a congress of European nations by a general act declared the navigation of the Congo and its tributaries free, and suppressed the slave trade.

The **area** is estimated at 909,654 square miles and the **population** is variously estimated from 7,000,000 to 15,500,000. In the World War the neighboring districts of Ruanda and Urundi were taken from the Germans and added to the Belgian area.

1482 *or* **1483.** Mouth of the river discovered by Portuguese. [course.

1816. Tuckey's (English) **exploration** of lower

1873. Livingstone on upper waters.

1876–1877. Stanley's expedition from east to west.

1878. International Association of the Congo formed.

1884. Boundary controversies. [State.

April 22. United States recognizes Congo

November. **Congo Conference** begins at Berlin; lasts until Feb. 26, 1885. [Congo.

1885. *April.* Personal union of **Belgium and**

1891. War with Arabs.

1907. *Nov. 28.* **Annexation by Belgium.**

1919. Enlarged by **Treaty of Paris.**

BERMUDAS.

See under British Empire, page 73.

BHUTAN.

Bhutan (area 20,000 square miles, population about 250,000) is an "independent" state in the eastern Himalayas, east of Sikkim and south of Tibet. Practically it is a dependency of Great Britain, from which, since 1865, the "penlops" or chiefs receive an annual subsidy of 50,000 rupees in return for good behavior.

1774. *April 23.* Treaty between Bhutan and East India Company.

1826. Treaty, following a punitive expedition; Bhutan loses Assam passes (dwars), but receives **annuity** during good behavior.

1864. *Nov. 12.* Bengal passes incorporated in British India.

1865. *Nov. 13.* **Treaty of peace.**

1910. *January.* **Treaty with Great Britain;** noninterference with Bhutan domestic affairs, but **British advice** to be followed in **foreign relations.**

BOLIVIA.

Historical Outline.

Bolivia, named in honor of Simon Bolivar, "the Liberator," possessed a civilization as far back as the first centuries of the Christian Era. In the Titicaca Basin ruins are found which antedate any others of like character in America. Before the age of Charlemagne, an empire, under a dynasty called Pirua, had been created in this mountainous region. This was succeeded by the kingdom of the Aymaras, which in turn was conquered in the 14th century by the Incas of Peru, and the history of the country was merged in that of Peru.

When the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro had destroyed the empire of the Incas, they turned their attention to the Aymaras. In 1538 Pizarro sent his brother Hernando to reduce this region, which was thereafter organized as the dependency of Charcas, or Upper Peru. The native population rapidly declined as the result of forced labor in the mines, European diseases, and alcohol. In 1776 Charcas was detached from Peru and joined to the viceroyalty of Buenos Aires.

In 1780 an uprising occurred in Charcas, which was suppressed by the authorities of Peru and Buenos Aires. Other rebellions broke out in 1809, which lasted until 1815. The final struggle for independence extended from 1821 to 1825, when Bolivar sent a part of his forces into this region and, by a wonderful march across the tropical mountains of the Andes, drove out the Spanish authorities. A new republic was proclaimed, and General Sucre was elected president, but still the country was involved in almost continuous war with its neighbors and was torn by insurrection. Until 1873 almost all the presidents came to power by revolution supported by armed factions. In 1879 Bolivia and Peru engaged in a disastrous warfare with Chile. The seacoast of Bolivia was forcibly annexed, and finally ceded to Chile in 1905. In 1920 the controversy was revived.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of Bolivia (1880) vests the executive powers in a president elected for four years by direct popular vote and not eligible for reëlection. There is a Congress of two chambers chosen directly by the people. The suffrage is extended to all who can read and write. Sixteen senators, two for each department, are chosen for six years, one third changing every two years. Seventy deputies are elected for four years, one half changing every two years. The republic is divided into eight departments, in each of which a prefect appointed by the president heads the political, administrative, and military authority.

Religion and Education. The recognized religion of the state is the Roman Catholic, although the exercise of other forms is permitted. Primary instruction, which is normally free and compulsory, is under the care of the municipality. Two universities exist and there are schools of commerce in some departmental capitals.

Production and Industry. About 5,000,000 acres are under cultivation, but agriculture is backward. Some irrigation by means of artesian wells is attempted. Wheat, corn, barley, beans, and potatoes are produced for home consumption; and coffee, cocoa, and cinchona are exported. Bolivia ranks second of South American countries in exports of rubber, Brazil being first. Bolivia is rich in minerals and produces one quarter of the total tin output of the world. After tin come copper and antimony.

About two fifths of the total area of Bolivia lies in the tropical zone within the Andean cordilleras. These mountains, divided into two great parallel chains with flanking ranges running to the east, reach their greatest breadth in Bolivia. Below the mountainous area the ranges open out and inclose extensive lofty plateaus which attain an average elevation of about 12,000 feet, but descend about a thousand feet toward the south. Between the eastern mountain range and the "Cordillera Oriental" is a confused mass of rough intersecting ranges. The soil is fertile and bears every variety of product, from the subtropical fruits at the base of the mountains to the products of the temperate zone higher up. Three fifths of the territory of Bolivia, however, is composed of great alluvial plains, flooded bottom lands and forests, much of it lacking drainage, so as to be of little value for crops and grazing, but there are considerable areas which lie above this flooded region and furnish excellent pasture. The tributaries of the Amazon and La Plata drain the greater part of Bolivia, while Lake Titicaca receives the waters of several small streams flowing through the great central plateau. Since the war with Chile, Bolivia has no seacoast.

Defense. A permanent force of 3,577 men is provided by the law of 1915; and military service is compulsory for all males between the ages of 19 and 50. The army is a militia with a service in the first line of six years.

The **area** is 514,155 square miles and the **population** in 1915 was estimated at about 2,890,000.

Chronology.

1538. Region is conquered by Hernando **Pizarro.** Until 1776 it is, as **Charcas,** under viceroyalty of Peru, then under Buenos Aires.

1825. *March.* Following **interminable warfare** from 1809 on, the **royalists** of Upper Peru are **finally crushed** by Sucre.

Aug. 6. An assembly of deputies decides on **separation from Argentina;** formal declaration of independence issued; country named **Bolivia.**

1826. Constitution, framed by Bolivar, is **adopted.** Unsettled conditions and repeated revolts ensue.

1835–1839. Santa Cruz, head of Bolivian government, takes part successfully in factional contest in Peru and plans a confederation; but Chile makes war against the combination and after the **battle of Jungay** (June, 1839) Santa Cruz is driven into exile. A round of revolts, temporary presidencies, and dictatorships follows.

1866. *Aug 10.* **Boundary treaty with Chile,** following controversy over control of guano fields.

1873. *Feb. 6.* Secret **Peruvian alliance** against Chilean aggression.

1879–1884. Chilean War (see Chile).

1899. *Oct. 26.* **Pando,** leader of successful revolt, becomes **president.** Stable conditions follow.

1903. Brazilian boundary treaty ends contest over **Acre** rubber field.

1904. *Aug. 14.* **Montes** is constitutionally elected to succeed Pando as **president.**

1905. *Oct. 20.* **Treaty of peace with Chile;** Arica–La Paz railway (see Chile).

1909. Severance of diplomatic intercourse with **Argentina** (see Argentina).

Aug. 12. **Villazón** becomes **president.**

1913. *Aug. 15.* **Montes** becomes **president** for second time.

1917. *April 13.* **Diplomatic intercourse with Germany severed.**

Aug. 15. Gutiérrez **Guerra** becomes **president.**

1919. *Jan. 18.* Ex-President Montes is Bolivian delegate **at Paris Peace Conference.**

1920. *March.* Bolivia asks **League of Nations to adjust contest with Peru and Chile** over results of Chilean War and grant her a port, particularly **Arica,** in the disputed region. Peru resents the suggestion and accuses Chile of fomenting trouble. **United States** secretary of state sends a **note to Chile,** which Spanish America resents. **Brazil offers her mediation.**

BORNEO.

See under British Empire, page 62; and under Netherlands, page 129.

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA.

See under Jugo-Slavia, page 123.

BRAZIL.

Historical Outline.

On the return of Columbus from his first voyage, Pope Alexander VI., on May 3, 1493, divided the world by a line running north and south, 100 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. Spain might discover and claim all west of the dividing line, and Portugal might discover and take all east of it. The following year this line, by treaty between the two powers, was moved to a meridian 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. In February, 1500, the Spanish adventurer Vicente Yáñez Pinzón discovered the northern coast of **Brazil.** This discovery would have given the country to Spain had not the maritime parts of Brazil lain east of the papal line of demarcation. Thus, though Spain made the discovery, Portugal had the exclusive right of possession and settlement.

In April, 1500, the Portuguese captain, Cabral, on a voyage to India, reached the Brazilian coast south of Bahia. No colony, however, was established until 1531. Portugal divided the coast into sections, and assigned each section to some Portuguese nobleman who was expected to become the proprietary of a colony. These grants became the basis for the later Portuguese provinces.

Bahia was founded in 1549, and became the capital of the Portuguese possessions in South America. Notwithstanding the papal grant, other European nations attempted to make settlements. Thus, a French colony was established at Rio de Janeiro in 1558, but was abandoned in 1560. Another French settlement was made at Maranhão in 1612. In 1624 the Dutch seized Bahia, but were obliged to surrender it the following year. In 1630 Pernambuco was taken by the Dutch and held until 1654.

In 1640 Portugal established a viceroyalty for Brazil with Bahia as the capital. Rio de Janeiro became the capital in 1762. During the 17th century colonial settlements did not thrive, but in the 18th there was a remarkable development. Negro slaves, early introduced, furnished profitable labor. Sugar and coffee industries were established and rich mines of gold and diamonds discovered. The interior was explored and its enormous resources appreciated.

On the French invasion of Portugal in 1807, Dom John, prince regent of Portugal, and the Portuguese royal family, fled to Brazil for refuge and made Rio de Janeiro the seat of government. The new government was extravagant, yet the increased activity brought a new stimulus to the industry of the whole nation. Many English shipbuilders, French manufacturers, Swedish iron founders, and German engineers settled in the country. The government sought to improve the agricultural and natural resources by introducing plants and trees from India and Africa which would thrive in Brazil. The importance of Brazil decided the regent to make it a kingdom; and by the decree of 1815 the Portuguese sovereignty took the title of the **United Kingdom** of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarve. In 1816 the Queen Dona Maria I. died, and the prince regent took the title of Dom John VI. and returned to Portugal (1821). His son, Dom Pedro, became regent.

In 1822 Brazil declared its independence of Portugal and Dom Pedro was proclaimed emperor of Brazil. For fifteen years the old Portuguese party kept up a petty warfare, and in 1831 Pedro abdicated in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II., a minor, who in 1840 was proclaimed sovereign in his own right. From 1849 to 1852 Brazil was involved in war with the Argentine Confederation under the dictator Rosas. From 1865 to 1870 there was war with Paraguay, instigated by Francisco Solano López of Paraguay.

During the reign of Dom Pedro II., Brazil made steady advance in material prosperity. Steamers were placed on the Amazon and its tributaries and some railways were built. The emperor was highly educated and sincerely desired to improve the educational system. He was more deeply interested in the economic and social life of his people than in the political life of the country. His liberalism prevented his opposing the socialistic doctrines which had taken deep root in the educated classes. The heir to the throne, his daughter, Isabella, Countess d'Eu, however, was deeply attached to the Church and so greatly under its influence that the Liberals opposed her possible accession to the throne. Discontent was increased by the sudden abolition of slavery without compensation to the owners in 1888. Hence, in 1889 the empire was overthrown and a federal republic with a constitution modeled upon that of the United States was proclaimed.

During the early years of the republic the administration fell into the hands of military adventurers and unscrupulous politicians, who attempted to exploit the national resources for their own benefit. Outbreaks and insurrections occurred, and in 1893 there was a naval revolt and civil war. In 1894 Doctor Prudente de Moraes Barros succeeded to the presidency and began to reduce militarism to a minimum and to reform the disordered finances. In 1898 he was succeeded by President Salles, who not only established financial order, but by means of arbitration, settled the boundary dispute with French Guiana. In 1906 the Pan-American Congress met in Brazil and was addressed by Secretary of State Root, of the United States, who expressed the friendly sentiment of that country toward the South American republics. In 1912 a new coinage system was established, based upon a gold standard, corresponding in weight and form with the British pound sterling. In 1914 Brazil, together with Argentina and Chile (A B C powers), attempted to serve as mediator in the dispute between the United States and Mexico. When the United States entered the World War in 1917, Brazil came out against the Germans, declared war, but was not drawn into the European campaign.

Organization.

Government. By the constitution of 1891 the Brazilian nation is constituted as the United States of Brazil, with twenty states, one national territory, and one federal district. The legislative authority is exercised by a national congress with the approval of the president of the republic. Congress consists of a Chamber of Deputies and a Senate. The Chamber of Deputies of 212, (1919), elected for three years by direct vote (with minority representation) in a proportion not greater than one for every 70,000 of population. No state, however, may have less than four representatives. The Senate consists of 63 members chosen by direct vote, three from each state and from the federal district, for nine years, one third retiring each year. The president is elected for a term of four years and is not eligible for the succeeding term. Both the president and vice president are elected directly by an absolute majority of the votes. The president appoints and dismisses ministers, is commander in chief of the army and navy, and within certain limits has the power to declare war and make peace. With the consent of the Congress he appoints the members of the supreme federal tribunal and all diplomatic envoys. The ministers are not responsible to the Congress or to the courts for the advice given to the president.

Local government is intrusted to the states, which must adopt a republican form of government with distinct administrative, legislative, and judicial authorities. The governors and members of the legislature must be elected. The federal executive cannot intervene directly in the government of the states. Each state adopts its own constitution and laws, which must not be contrary to the federal constitution. In case of infringement on the federal constitution, the government has power to interfere by force of arms if necessary.

Production and Industry. Brazil is an agricultural country, although only a small fraction of its soil has been brought under cultivation. The chief product is coffee, of which Brazil furnishes four fifths of the world's supply. The average crop is estimated at 12,000,000 sacks of 132 pounds each. About one eighth the world's supply of rubber comes from Brazil, the product of 1919 being 38,000 tons. Other important crops are sugar, tobacco, cotton, cacao, and nuts. The forests and mines of Brazil are of enormous value, but little has been done in their development. The most important manufacturing industry is cotton weaving, which is so rapidly increasing that the importations from Europe are declining. The manufacture of silk is also encouraged. There are more than two thousand tobacco factories and over a hundred sugar factories.

The population is made up of a comparatively small group of Portuguese descendants, with numerous Negroes and a still greater number of Indians. In the southern states of Brazil there are prosperous Russian, Italian, and German settlements, the last named numbering about 500,000. Before the war Great Britain had the greatest share of the foreign trade, but since 1915 the United States has both exported more to Brazil and imported more from Brazil than any other country.

Religion and Education. Until the downfall of the empire, the established religion was Roman Catholic. By the constitution of 1891 absolute equality and toleration were given to all religious beliefs; the government, however, left to the Church all religious buildings and their properties and income. The vast majority of the people are Roman Catholic.

Education is free, but except in a few municipalities is not compulsory. The federal government expects to provide for higher or university education, but there is no general university in Brazil, though several are in the process of formation. There are, however, about 25 faculties which confer degrees.

Defense. By the law of 1908, military service is obligatory between the ages of 21 and 45 for a term of two years in the ranks, seven in reserve and seven in the territorial army, and eight in the national guard. The reservists receive four weeks' training each year, the territorial army from two to four weeks. The peace strength of the standing army is at present 54,000. Complete mobilization would bring out 120,000. The navy consists of two dreadnoughts built in 1907, two coast-defense ships, and three cruisers, besides river monitors, small cruisers, and torpedo boats.

The **area** of Brazil is 3,275,510 square miles; the **population** (1900) was 17,318,556, while the estimated population (1917) was more than 30,000,000.

Chronology.

1500. *February.* **Brazilian coast discovered** by Pinzón for Spain.

April 24. **Cabral** touches south of Bahia and **claims country for Portugal,** to which it falls under the demarcation line of the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494).

1531. First settlement, at São Vicente, under the system of **hereditary captaincies** for those who undertake colonizing.

1549. *April.* **Sousa** arrives at Bahia as governor-general to establish a **general government,** administrative powers of the captaincies having been revoked.

1558. French settlement at **Rio de Janeiro;** abandoned after a few years, and Portuguese settle there in 1567.

1580. Spain conquers Portugal; Brazil neglected.

1630. Dutch West India Company takes **Pernambuco** and establishes **a powerful colony.**

1640. Restoration of Portuguese independence.

1645. Portuguese colonists begin **war against the Dutch.** [tured.

1654. Pernambuco, last Dutch settlement, cap-

1662. Dutch surrender all claims to Brazil.

1808. *Jan. 21.* **John VI.,** prince regent, with his court, who has fled from Portugal before Napoleon's advance, arrives at Bahia.

March 7. Royal government established at Rio de Janeiro. **Brazil opened to foreign commerce.**

1815. *Jan. 16.* United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarve decreed.

1821. John VI. (now king) yields to an armed demand, with which **Crown Prince Pedro** sympathizes, and **grants constitutional government** in Brazil. John VI. returns to Portugal.

1822. *Sept. 7.* **Pedro proclaims the independence** of Brazil. October 12, he is proclaimed constitutional **emperor.**

1825. *Aug. 25.* Treaty with Portugal; **independence recognized.**

1826. *May 2.* Pedro I., on death of John VI., abdicates Portuguese crown. [Uruguay).

1827. War with Argentina over Uruguay (see

1831. *April 7.* **Pedro I.,** forced by the Liberals, **abdicates** in favor of his five-year-old son **Pedro II.** and leaves for Portugal. An elected regency governs.

1840. *July 23.* Majority of **Pedro II.** proclaimed.

1852. Brazil assists Argentineans to overthrow the dictatorship of Rosas (see Argentina).

1865-1870. Alliance with Argentina and Uruguay in **war against Paraguay.**

1871. *September.* **Gradual-emancipation Law.**

1876. Dom Pedro visits United States. [Law.

1888. *May 13.* **Immediate-abolition-of-slavery**

1889. *Oct. 2.* First **Pan-American Conference meets at Washington** (see United States).

Nov. 14. Emperor is seized by republican conspirators and sent to Portugal. **United States of Brazil proclaimed;** Deodoro da Fonseca provisional president.

1891. *Feb. 24.* **Federal constitution adopted; Fonseca first president.** Seditious outbreaks ensue, and Fonseca declares a dictatorship, but resigns on November 23, Vice President **Peixoto** succeeding.

1893. *Sept. 6.* Discontent against Peixoto's corrupt administration culminates in a **naval revolt** at Rio de Janeiro, the city being bombarded in an unsuccessful attempt to force his resignation. Insurgent government established at Desterro.

1894. *March.* **Rebellion** is finally **crushed.** Severe reprisals.

Nov. 15. **Moraes Barros** succeeds as **president.**

1895. Occupation by British of island of **Trinidad** (off Brazilian coast) is protested. Matter is arbitrated by Portugal, and island is surrendered to Brazil in 1896.

Feb. 5. President Cleveland decides in favor of Brazil the **boundary controversy with Argentina.**

1898. *Nov. 15.* **Campos Salles** is inaugurated as **president.** His administration begins much needed **financial reforms** and settlements, especially of foreign claims and debts.

1900. President of Switzerland decides in favor of Brazil the **boundary dispute with French Guiana.** [dent.

1902. *Nov. 15.* Rodríguez **Alves** becomes presi-

1903. *Nov. 14.* **Boundary dispute** (**Acre**) **with Bolivia** is settled by treaty and purchase.

1904. *May.* **Boundary dispute** with Peru; conflict is avoided by mutual withdrawal of troops.

1904 (*continued*)

June 6. King of Italy arbitrates **boundary dispute with British Guiana,** largely in favor of Guiana.

1906. *July 23.* **Third Pan-American Congress** meets at Rio de Janeiro; notable for speech by Root, United States secretary of state, on equal rights of American states and an all-American public opinion.

Nov. 15. **Penna** succeeds as **president.**

1909. *June 14.* President Penna dies; Vice President **Peçanha** succeeds. [**Peru.**]

Sept. 8. Boundary demarcation **treaty with**

1910. *Nov. 15.* **Fonseca** becomes **president.**

November–December. **Naval mutiny** at Rio de Janeiro; first demands are acceded to, but later mutiny is forcibly suppressed. [States).]

1914. *April–June.* **A B C mediation** (see United

Nov. 15. **Braz** is inaugurated as **president.**

1915. *May 26.* **Tripartite treaty** with Argentina and Chile; no war until dispute has been passed upon by an impartial commission.

1917. *April.* **Anti-German riots** break out after sinking of the Brazilian ship *Parana* (April 4); on April 10 **Brazil severs diplomatic relations with Germany.**

June 2. **Government takes over** 45 interned **German ships** (235,000 tons).

June 28. Proclamation of neutrality revoked.

Oct. 26. Brazil declares **war on Germany.** Except with her navy, Brazil does not participate actively in the war.

1918. *Nov. 15.* Rodríguez **Alves** again **president.**

1919. *Jan. 16.* Rodríguez Alves dies; Vice President **Moreira** serves, pending an election.

Jan. 18. **Brazil** has three delegates **at the Paris Peace Conference.**

June. President-elect Epitacio **Pessoa** visits the United States.

July 28. **Pessoa** is inaugurated as **president.**

Nov. 11. **Treaty of Versailles,** with the League of Nations, is **ratified;** promulgated, January 13, 1920.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Historical Outline.

In 1648 England was in the midst of civil war. The struggle between Charles I. and Parliament was twofold in character. On the constitutional side it was an attempt to limit the power of the crown and to extend parliamentary government and its powers at the expense of royal prerogative. On the religious side, the attempt of the king to impose conformity to the doctrines and practices of the Church of England, as he and his advisers interpreted them, was opposed by the Presbyterians, who wished to establish their form of church policy, and by the Independents, who feared that the "new presbyter is but old priest writ large" and wished to make each congregation a self-governing body.

The Civil War resulted in the triumph of Parliament and the Independents under Oliver Cromwell, who with his Ironsides captured the king. The English Presbyterians united with the Scots against Cromwell and the "new-modeled" army, but were defeated, and all England was at the mercy of the Independents. Their first step was to break up the Long Parliament, December 6, 1648. Colonel Pride drove the Presbyterian members out of the House of Commons — "Pride's Purge" —; thenceforth Independents controlled the legislature as well as the army. Charles I. was tried and beheaded (1649) and the Commonwealth was established. That, too, proved weak and gave place to the Protectorate under the personal rule of Oliver Cromwell, backed by his invincible Ironsides. On Cromwell's death, England, tired of military rule, returned to the constitutional form of government, and Charles II. and the Stuart line were restored (1660).

Charles II. maintained an ignoble and corrupt court, but learned from his father's fate not to defy the power of Parliament openly. The Restoration, however, brought a reaction; many of the liberties for which the Long Parliament of Charles I. had struggled were ignored not only by the king, but by Parliament itself. James II., who succeeded Charles (1685), was of a different type. Stubborn, where his brother had been yielding, he personally threatened civil liberty, and even sought to restore the Roman Catholic Church.

The result was the Revolution of 1688, by which James II. was deposed and the Protestant William of Orange, and his wife Mary, the daughter of James, were placed upon the throne. This revolution (1688) meant more than a change of sovereigns; James II. had claimed to rule by divine right, William III. ruled by act of Parliament. Thus, parliamentary sovereignty was definitely established. With the establishment of the power of Parliament the royal prerogative came more and more into the hands of the ministers, who were not responsible to the king. This power was based on control of Parliament, through the personal influence of the ministers as representatives of the landholding Whig nobles in the House of Lords, and their control of the House of Commons, which was practically chosen by the same great Whig families.

In 1707, through the union of England, Scotland, and Wales, Great Britain was formed. Scotland sent forty-five members to the House of Commons and the Scottish peers chose sixteen to represent them in the House of Lords.

On the Continent Louis XIV. was attempting to expand his dominion. William III found it easy to bring England to the support of a rivalry which lasted for two centuries. Whichever side France espoused, England was obliged to oppose her. In the War of the Spanish Succession, the War of the Austrian Succession, and the Seven Years' War, England headed a grand alliance to prevent the establishment of an overwhelming empire in Europe and to protect her own institutions. The struggle encircled the world. The vast French empire of India fell to England as part of the prize of victory. The English and French colonists in America fought the battles of their parent states, and by England's victory France was eliminated from North America in 1763.

From 1689 on, the supremacy of Parliament was unquestioned. In 1715 the royal veto became a formality. With the exception of the ill-starred attempt of George III. to establish personal rule, no sovereign has since questioned the sovereign power of Parliament. The changes in the English constitution have been not so much in the nature of amendments, though great remedial acts and statutes have registered the growth of new forces. The growth of the English constitution is through customs which determine how the power of the state shall be exercised. The whole tendency of these customs has been to subject the power of the crown to the control of the ministers, who in turn are responsible to the House of Commons, which represents the political sovereignty of the people, that is, of the voting classes.

The reign of William III. vindicated the sovereignty of Parliament; that of Anne (1702–1714) saw the beginnings of the establishment of the cabinet system. During the reigns of George I. and George II., both of whom were foreigners who understood little and cared less for English institutions, the cabinet became supreme. The ministry of Walpole (1721–1742) was an uninterrupted rule of the Whigs, who had departed from their original principles of opposition to the absolutism of Charles II. and James II. and themselves had become aristocratic and corrupt. During the reign of George III., who at first imitated Walpole in control of the House of Commons, the constitutional principle was at last established, under William Pitt, that a minister might appeal to the electors from an adverse vote in the House of Commons. Thus the parties became the instruments of popular sovereignty.

After the transference of the French colonial empire to England, Great Britain attempted to enforce a mercantile system on her vast colonial empire. The colonies, although fostered and encouraged to produce what Great Britain lacked, were prevented from competing with each other and the mother country. The English colonists in America resisted this English control of their economic development and resented the attempt of Great Britain to control their political life. Thus the American Revolution began, which resulted in the independence of the United States and the realization on the part of England of the value of strong and attached colonies, even though competing.

In the war for the independence of the United States, England's old enemy, France, intervened. Hardly had peace been made before France was convulsed by the French Revolution; and again England and France contended for supremacy. From 1793 to 1815 England was the soul of an alliance against Napoleon; and in the Congress of Vienna, which remade the map of Europe, her voice was influential.

The eighteenth century saw also a bloodless revolution in England. The invention of Hargreaves' spinning jenny, Crompton's mule, and Cartwright's power loom, and the invention of the steam engine by James Watt revolutionized the textile industry and brought new sources of power to the manufacturer. The discovery (1762) of Roebuck that iron ore might be smelted by pit coal as well as charcoal, developed the iron trade and vastly increased the output of the collieries. Industry no longer was carried on in isolated cottages, but in towns. These inventions quickened the growth of a powerful banking system. The factory system was established. One effect was the rise of new centers of population. New demands were made for means of communication. A canal system was developed. Ports and docks were built after 1800. The old highways were transformed into turnpikes which in turn were supplemented by railroads. Agricultural England stood still while industrial England, under the system of *laissez faire*, grew rich. The state made no attempt to protect the workman against the rapacity of the employers, and unspeakable misery and degradation developed.

Along with the industrial revolution an agrarian revolution took place. The increased population demanded an increased supply of food. England ceased to export corn (see corn, *n.*, **3,** in the *Dict.*). The old wasteful system of simple rotation of crops gave way to scientific farming. The rights of common pasture were limited and common arable lands almost disappeared. Small holdings gave place to large farms, cultivated by gangs of agricultural laborers, who in their degradation were the counterpart of the factory hands. The price of corn increased with the demand and was artificially protected by the corn laws, which limited importation from abroad. Wages were inadequate to meet the rising costs of living, and pauperism increased to such an extent that a seventh of the population regularly received poor relief. England in 1850 was a land of contrasts: — vast wealth and desperate poverty, professed liberty and an unrepresented proletariat.

A change also took place in religion. The passionate devotion of the High Church party in the reign of Anne gave place to indifference. Religion seemed dead. In 1729 John Wesley, his brother Charles, and George Whitefield formed a society nicknamed the Methodists, from which developed a great religious revival. Thenceforward the nonconformists were a recognized social and political factor. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the evangelicals added fervor and zeal to the religious life of England through the foundation of Bible societies and Sunday schools.

From 1784 to 1830 was the period of Tory supremacy. Fear of the French Revolutionary ideas produced reaction and suppression in England. Nevertheless, the Catholic Relief Bill was passed (1829) and shortly after the accession of William IV. the Whigs came to power. The first step in the development of modern political England was the passage of the Reform Bill in 1832. In theory Parliament represented the people, but the franchise was so restricted that only a small minority of the people had the right to vote. Moreover, the shifting of the population from agricultural to industrial England produced startling inequalities in representation. Towns which had disappeared still elected members to Parliament, while the new manufacturing centers were totally unrepresented. The first Reform Bill of 1832 enfranchised the middle classes. The working classes were drawn into public life in 1867, the agricultural laborers in 1885, the women in 1918; until to-day England has universal suffrage for both men and women, with no property qualifications; and representation is apportioned according to population. Parliament really represents the people.

During the nineteenth century England was practically always at war on the borders of her dependencies. Formal wars went on with the United States in 1812, as a result of the enforcement of the claim to control the seas; against China in 1842; as an ally with France against Turkey (the Crimean War, 1854–1856); but England escaped from the numerous European wars from 1859 to 1913. The most serious colonial war was the South African (1899–1902). The striking feature of the nineteenth century was colonial expansion in Canada, Australasia, and Africa, with the development of great self-governing dominions. The British rule of India is a direct parallel with the greatest triumphs of Roman civilization.

From the last quarter of the nineteenth century the Liberal and Conservative parties both attempted to ameliorate the condition of the poor, differing in the rate of progress. Of late years the great outstanding difference of opinion has been the status of Ireland. Ireland retained her Parliament as a separate kingdom until the Act of Union of 1800, following the Revolution of 1798. In the last half century an ever increasing demand has been made for home rule for Ireland. In 1886 Gladstone accepted the principle and introduced his first Home Rule Bill which was defeated in the House of Commons. Again in 1893 Gladstone carried a Home Rule Bill triumphantly through the House of Commons, only to have it rejected by the House of Lords. In 1913, a Home Rule Bill again failed in the House of Lords; but under the change of the Parliament Act of 1911, the Commons passed the bill three times, and in 1914 it became a law. The World War and civil disturbances in Ireland caused the government to delay putting the bill into operation and the question was postponed.

In the meantime the Sinn Feiners developed in Ireland and scouted Home Rule, demanded independence, and set up the form of an Irish Republic. England could find no course for the time being but to govern Ireland by military rule, and that left the problem hanging.

The first years of the twentieth century saw the growth of a new force in British politics, the Labor party. The industrial situation of England was critical. Frequent strikes on a large scale threatened not only prosperity but industrial life itself. The government was forced to intervene again and again, and by act of Parliament to establish minimum wages in certain industries. When Germany struck at France in 1914, the Germans expected that

England would be paralyzed by her Irish and domestic troubles. During the war, although strikes occurred, labor supported the government. With the coming of peace, however, the Labor party demanded changes affecting the very foundations of the capitalistic system. At the election of 1918, labor gained ground, though short of a majority. In 1920, the Labor party appears as a strongly organized opposition to the coalition under Lloyd George.

The two Teutonic powers and Italy were forming and consolidating the Triple Alliance, while from 1879 to 1900 England occupied a position of "splendid isolation" in European affairs. France and Russia were in close alliance. England was without an ally and at times seemed to be without a friend. In 1898, France and England nearly came to blows over the partition of the Sudan, while between Russia and England there was mutual jealousy and suspicion. The Boer War (1899–1902) showed Germany ready to take advantage of England's difficulties. Great Britain under the personal influence of King Edward began to reach out to other powers. In 1902 a treaty with Japan was signed by which either power agreed to come to the aid of the other if attacked by more than one nation. In 1904 a treaty was signed with France, nominally settling the status of the mutual possessions in Africa, but in fact laying the foundation of the later "Entente Cordiale." It made an end to the suspicion between England and France. As a result better relations between England and Russia developed. Thus at the outbreak of the World War, Europe was divided into two groups, the Triple Alliance and the Entente powers, who, although bound by no common formal treaty to aid each other in case of war, were in substantial agreement and harmony; and as Great Britain was secretly pledged to protect the French Channel coast, Germany's attack upon France was certain to draw England in. As a guarantor of the neutrality of Belgium and as the power directly threatened by the German occupation of Belginm, England was certain to come to Belgium's aid. Moreover, throughout her history, her interests demanded that Belgium should be both neutral and independent. Morally, and for the protection of her coasts, she was bound to come to the aid of France. Thus, on August 4, 1914, when Germany refused to respect Belgian neutrality, England declared war.

During the war the British Empire raised 8,000,000 men. In November, 1918, the strength of the British army furnished by the United Kingdom (exclusive of the army in India) was over 3,500,000 men. Up to November 10, the casualties on all the various fronts were over 3,000,000. In addition, Great Britain, through her navy, maintained a blockade against Germany, kept the seas open for trade and was essential in transporting the American army to France. In addition to financing her own military establishment Great Britain loaned to her dominions $831,060,000 and $7,620,480,000 to her allies.

Organization.

Government. The government of Great Britain is in form a constitutional monarchy. The king reigns, but does not govern; in fact he has no political power and very little authority of any kind. The royal powers are exercised by the ministers, nominally appointed by the Crown, but actually chosen by the House of Commons as an executive committee of Commons and Lords, responsible to the people The executive power of the ministers is far greater than that of the president of the United States; and there are few limitations in the British constitution upon the exercise of this power.

The constitution is not found in any one document, but in the acts of Parliament, the rules and customs of Parliament, the rules of common law and understandings and extralegal agreements. From one point of view, Great Britain may be said to have no constitution, since Parliament may at any time alter any constitutional principle by statute. To put it another way, Parliament is both a legislative and a constituent assembly. It makes the laws and it makes the constitution Parliament is thus legally completely sovereign or, rather, represents the ultimate sovereignty of a constitution.

Parliament is composed of two chambers, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Lords consists of peers who hold their seats (1) by hereditary right; (2) by creation of the sovereign; (3) by virtue of their office (the Law Lords, two archbishops, and 24 bishops); (4) by election for life (28 Irish peers); (5) by election for duration of the parliament (16 Scottish peers). The number is thus not fixed, but a full house, in 1920, would be about 700. The House of Commons consists of 707 members, chosen (since 1918) by almost universal suffrage, male and female. In Great Britain the constituencies are supposed to contain about 70,000 inhabitants, and in Ireland 43,000, each. In addition, the holders of degrees from certain universities elect representatives for the universities.

The two chambers are nominally coördinate, although money bills, which the Lords cannot amend, must originate in the House of Commons. In 1909, the David Lloyd George budget contained new taxes on land; it aroused the landholding interest, which was very strong in the House of Lords, and the Lords refused to concur. Hence, the Parliament Act of 1911 provided that any bill which passed three times through the House of Commons, provided at least two years had intervened between its first introduction and its passage for the third time, becomes a law even if the House of Lords refuses its assent. The threat of swamping the House of Lords by creating new peers brought the Lords to accept this measure, which reduced them to a subordinate position in legislation leaving the Commons the responsible authority.

The nominal term for a parliament is five years, but the king, on the advice of his ministers, may dissolve the House of Commons at any time and call for a new election. Moreover, since Parliament is supreme, it may prolong its own life, as was done during the World War; the parliament chosen in 1911 thus continued until 1918.

Although possessing the legal power in legislation, the right to supervise all executive acts, the authority by vote of want of confidence to force the withdrawal of any ministers or the fall of the whole cabinet, Parliament is much under the control of the cabinet. This is due in part to the development of the two-party system. Since the cabinet ministers are the chiefs of their party, members of Parliament are chosen by their parties to support the cabinet in whatever it undertakes. Hence, since 1886 only one cabinet has fallen because of an adverse vote in the House of Commons. The cabinet and the ministers are more and more looking not to the legal sovereign — Parliament — but to the political sovereign, the electorate; and more and more public opinion is able to control the action of the ministers.

In local government, Parliament is also supreme. Municipalities, counties, and smaller subdivisions, exercise a considerable measure of self-government by virtue of acts of Parliament; but most of their activities may be supervised by ministers chosen by the Commons and nominally responsible to it.

Industry and Labor. The establishment of free trade and the repeal of the corn laws in the middle of the nineteenth century hastened the decline of English agriculture. Much of the land had a value beyond its income-producing power, because of the social importance connected with its ownership. Great estates were kept up for pleasure and display, rather than on an economic basis. It was cheaper to import than to raise agricultural products. Beginning in 1908, provision was made by act of Parliament to increase the small holdings, and the David Lloyd George budget of 1909 attempted to tax idle land so as to increase the acreage under cultivation. Nevertheless, on the outbreak of the World War the agricultural condition of England was serious. Since a considerable part of the food had to be imported, every effort was made to increase the area under cultivation. The price of wheat was guaranteed and a minimum wage was fixed for agricultural laborers and thus the acreage under wheat increased by nearly one half over 1914.

In manufactures England has for a century excelled, particularly in textiles. Of late years, however, German competition came in and Germans were able to undersell some products in England and there was an agitation for "fair trade," that is, some form of protective duties.

The condition of British labor is better than in any Continental country. The pressure to ameliorate its condition has come from trade-unions rather than from theoretical socialists; and up to the outbreak of the war, they won many substantial privileges. In the twentieth century the trade-unions were enforcing their demands by strikes on a scale so large as to tend to paralyze some of the national industries. This brought about government intervention and the establishment in certain industries of minimum wages fixed by law. As a result of the experiences in the war, the English laborers formed a political party which presents formidable opposition to the coalition government of David Lloyd George. It also urges radical changes in the capitalistic organization of society and looks toward the establishment of some form of state socialism.

In commerce Great Britain is still far superior to any other nation. Her merchant fleet is the greatest and her trade more widespread and profitable. Before the war London was the clearing house of the world's commerce, and Great Britain still remains the chief carrying nation of the world.

Religion. Complete religious toleration in Great Britain has been the rule since 1866, and there are no political disabilities on account of religion. The Church of England is established by law in England and is supported by the government. Nominally, the king appoints the bishops and other ecclesiastical dignitaries, but in reality the ministry in power at the time selects them. In Wales the English Church was disestablished in 1914, but the enforcement of the act was postponed until the close of the war. In Scotland the Presbyterian Church is established by law; alongside exists the Free Church of Scotland. In Ireland there is now no church establishment. Nonconformist denominations, especially the Wesleyan Methodists, the Primitive Methodists, the Congregationalists, and the Baptists, are strong. In all, the dissenting churches count 2,000,000 members; and there are about 1,900,000 Roman Catholics in England and Wales. The total official membership of the Anglican Church is 2,359,599 (1919).

Education. Until very recently England was backward in public education. For the well-to-do there was ample provision in the historic endowments for schools, colleges, and universities; and both the established church and the dissenting churches gave some gratuitous education to the poor. In 1906, a broad provision was made for the establishment of free schools, the government in some cases contributing to the support of church and other private schools on condition of certain tests and examinations, and in others establishing "board schools" that were purely public. The system is complicated and has involved frequent disputes, especially on the difficult question of religious teaching.

Elementary education is now free, and attendance at school is compulsory between the ages of five and fourteen. Provisions are also made for courses in advanced instruction. On July 31, 1917, there were in England and Wales over 21,000 schools for elementary education, with over 5,979,000 pupils on the books. By the Fisher Act of 1918, county and county borough councils are required to provide at once free continuation schools for pupils under sixteen years of age and subsequently for those under eighteen. Vocational schools are also provided for, and the employment of pupils in industry must be suspended if required by the Education Authority. Provision is made for medical inspection, physical training, and amusements.

Higher education is provided for by the universities, of which Oxford and Cambridge were founded in the Middle Ages. Others, as Manchester, Birmingham, and London, are of modern origin.

Defense. Before the World War, the land forces of the United Kingdom consisted of a regular army recruited by voluntary enlistment for twelve years, from three to nine of which were spent in active service and the rest in the army reserve. The greater part of the regular army was stationed in the dominions. On mobilization for war the regular army at home was absorbed into the "expeditionary force," with a total strength of about 165,000. The territorial army was intended for home defense and was recruited by voluntary enlistment for terms of four years. The total forces of the regular army and territorial army in 1914 were about 727,000; but only about 100,000 were in the United Kingdom and available for immediate service.

During the war conscription was adopted by the Military Service Act of 1916, which was amended and extended except to Ireland. The United Kingdom furnished about 3,500,000 troops.

Great Britain's strongest defense, however, has been her navy, maintained on the "two-power" principle; that is, that the British navy must at all times be equal to the two strongest foreign navies combined Not satisfied with this, the attempt was to double the combined strength of any two foreign navies. In 1914, the navy consisted of 16 superdreadnoughts, 15 dreadnoughts, 40 battleships, 50 cruisers, 248 destroyers, and 85 submarines, besides other boats; in 1919, there were 46 dreadnoughts, 21 battleships, 34 cruisers, 340 destroyers, 147 torpedo boats, and numerous submarines.

Area and Population. The area of the United Kingdom in square miles is: England, 50,874; Wales, 7,466; Scotland, 30,405; Ireland, 32,586; Isle of Man, 227; Channel Islands, 75 — a total of 121,633. The population is: (1911) England, 34,045,290; Wales, 2,025,202; Scotland, 4,760,904; Ireland, 4,390,219; Isle of Man, 52,016; Channel Islands, 96,899 — a total of 45,516,259, including enlisted men abroad. These figures have been much disturbed by the losses of the war.

Chronology — Great Britain and Ireland.

For earlier events in the history of Great Britain and Ireland, see MEDIEVAL PERIOD and EARLY MODERN PERIOD, *Chronology*.

1649. *Jan. 30.* **Charles I. put to death,** and England is declared to be a **commonwealth.** Army of Independents under **Oliver Cromwell** becomes the controlling power, the Long Parliament is the formal legislative authority and a council of state, of forty-one members, is the formal executive. The office of king and the House of Lords are abolished. **Charles II.** proclaimed king in Edinburgh, February 5, and a rising in Ireland supports his claims; Cromwell leads a force into Ireland in August and captures Drogheda and massacres the garrison, September 11.

1650. Settlement of Gold Coast begins about this time.

Cromwell returns to England in May, while Ireton and later Ludlow remain in command of Ireland; insurrection there continues for nearly three years. Montrose lands with a royalist force in Scotland, but is defeated, captured, and put to death, May 21. Charles himself reaches Scotland, June 24;

1650 (*continued*).
he subscribes to the Covenant, and is hailed as king. Cromwell on September 3 marches into Scotland with 16,000 men and overwhelms the forces of Leslie at **Dunbar;** Edinburgh and Glasgow surrender.

1651. Charles is crowned at Scone, January 1, enters England in August, but is routed by Cromwell at **Worcester,** September 3, and flees to France.
First **Navigation Act** is passed, October 9, forbidding importations into England except by English or colonial vessels or those of the country producing the goods.
St. Helena Island is settled.

1652. Navigation Ordinance leads to a **War with the Dutch,** the chief carriers of Europe; a series of naval engagements in the Channel in which the English, under Blake, are victorious over Tromp. Treaty of **peace** is made at Westminster on April 5, 1654.

1653. Cromwell dismisses the so-called Rump Parliament and the Council of State, April 20, and assembles the "**Barebone's**" **Parliament** of 140 members, appointed by himself, July 4. December 11, this parliament resigns its powers to Cromwell, and on December 16 he becomes **Lord Protector of the Commonwealth** of England, Scotland, and Ireland under the **Instrument of Government,** which provides for an executive in the Protector and an independent council of twenty-one, named for life in the Instrument; a parliament of one house and restricted powers; and a standing army of 30,000 men.

1654. New parliament meets on September 3; Cromwell excludes those unfavorable to a new constitution giving the power to the Protector and Parliament, but breaks with the remainder over control of the army.

1655. On January 22 Cromwell dissolves Parliament, and resorts to military and arbitrary rule. **Blake,** in April, leads the English fleet to an attack on **Algiers, Tunis,** and **Tripoli.** Jamaica is captured in the same month by a force sent to make reprisals in the **West Indies.** During March, April, and May there is an uprising in Salisbury under **Penruddock,** but it is suppressed and the leader put to death. On October 24 an **alliance** is made **with France,** by which it is agreed that Charles shall be banished from French soil. November 27, severer measures are proclaimed by Cromwell against **Catholicism** and **Episcopacy. Censorship of press** also declared. These measures but feebly enforced.

1656. War breaks out **with Spain** and, September 9, the English fleet captures treasure ships near Cadiz. September 17, a second parliament meets, from which Cromwell excludes opponents.

1657. Plot against the Protector discovered. **First constitution** is now **amended,** through the **Humble Petition and Advice;** a second house instituted and the Protector denied authority to exclude members of the Parliament; **toleration in religion** granted, except to popery and prelacy; title of king offered to Cromwell; he refuses to accept it, but is installed on June 26 as **Lord Protector,** with right to name his successor. **Blake** is victorious against the Spaniards off Santa Cruz, April 20; he **dies** August 7, at sea.

1658. *Feb. 4.* Cromwell dissolves the second parliament, in which he has no longer a majority.
June 17. **Dunkirk is surrendered** to English and French forces after defeat of Spanish at **battle of the Dunes** (June 4).
Sept. 3. **Cromwell dies,** and his son Richard **Cromwell** becomes Lord Protector.

1659. *Jan. 27.* New parliament meets, but its disagreements with the army cause the Protector to dissolve it, April 22; when 42 members of the Rump Parliament meet at the invitation of the soldiers. **Protector,** finding his position among opposing factions too difficult, **abdicates,** May 25. Army officers expel the parliament, October 13, and a military committee is placed at the head of affairs. It fails and the Rump is again restored, December 26.

1660. Monk marches from Scotland and enters London on February 3, and on February 13 takes sides against the Rump, which, under pressure, dissolves itself on March 16. **End of Long Parliament.** By the **Declaration of Breda,** April 4, Charles grants a pardon to all not under special condemnation and promises religious toleration; the **Convention Parliament** (so called because though otherwise regular it was not summoned by the king) meets on April 25; approves the proclamation, May 1; May 8, **Charles II.** announced as **king;** he enters London May 29, but is not crowned until April 23, 1661. Monk becomes captain general and the Earl of Clarendon chancellor. Feudal dues and purveyances done away with, and in their place a yearly income of $5,800,000 is granted to the king. Bishops restored to their sees, and an act of indemnity passed, the regicides and others being excluded from its provisions. Army is disbanded. Parliament dissolved, December 29.

1661. Insurrection of the **Fifth-Monarchy Men** in London in January. January 30, bodies of Cromwell and others are exhumed and shamefully dishonored. In **Scotland** a Royalist parliament assembles and the **Covenant is abolished;** all legislative acts of the last twenty years repealed. **Argyle** executed, May 27. New parliament meets, May 8; November 20, the **Corporation Act** passed, compelling all magistrates and municipal officers to take the sacrament according to the Church of England.

1662. *May 20.* **Charles II. weds Catherine,** daughter of John IV. of Portugal. **Bombay** is part of her dowry.
Aug. 24. **Act of Uniformity** comes into force, requiring that all the clergy, fellows of universities, and teachers must assent to all the Book of Common Prayer; by this act 2,000 nonconformists are deprived of their living.
November. **Dunkirk,** the property of England, is **sold to France.**
Dec. 26. Charles declares in favor of **toleration** which is meant to include **Catholics.**

1664. *May.* **Conventicle Act** passed; decrees that more than five persons shall not meet for worship unless in household or according to the rites of the established church.
Aug. 29. **New Amsterdam** in America captured by the English. Other acts of hostility take place against the Dutch.

1665. *Feb. 22.* **War with Holland** declared; desired by Charles to help elevate Prince of Orange, and by all England through envy of commercial prosperity of the Dutch. War exhausts both combatants; **France** joins against England in 1666. **Plague** rages in London. Parliament meets at Oxford in October and by the **Five-mile Act** forbids dissenting clergymen to approach towns.

1666. British settlement of the Bahamas begins; also, the Virgin Islands are acquired.
Sept. 2–5. **Great Fire** of London desolates a thickly populated area of five hundred acres.
Nov. 28. **Covenanters** in Scotland **revolting** are overcome at the battle of **Pentland Hills** by Dalyell.

1667. *July 31.* Dutch War ended by **Treaty of Breda:** France receives Acadia and cedes to England Montserrat, Antigua, and part of St. Christopher; England retains New Amsterdam, but cedes Surinam to the Dutch and modifies the Navigation Act in their favor.
Aug. 30. **Earl of Clarendon** dismissed; **impeached,** October 10, and flees to France, November 29. New ministry formed by Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley Cooper, and Lauderdale, known as the **Cabal,** from the initials of its members.

1668. *Jan. 13.* England, Holland, and Sweden, alarmed by the victories of France in her war for the possession of Spanish Flanders, form a **triple alliance** against Louis XIV. War is ended by **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle,** on May 2.

1669. Charles, however, negotiates secretly with France for personal aid. Duke of York avows himself a Catholic and Charles does so secretly.

1670. *June 1.* Secret **Treaty of Dover** is signed with Louis XIV.; Charles to declare himself a Catholic when he sees fit, receiving a subsidy and support against his subjects if necessary, and to aid France against Holland and Spain.
July 18. **Treaty of Madrid** with Spain. English colonies in America for the first time recognized by Spain.

1672. Charles closes the Exchequer in order not to pay his debts of $6,800,000; his action creates a panic. March 15, he issues the **Declaration of Indulgence,** a measure favorable to Catholics, but rescinds it, March 8, 1673, owing to opposition of Parliament.
March 17. **War with Holland** begins. Drawn naval battle of **Sole,** or **Southwold, Bay** is fought on June 7.
Nov. 17. Earl of Shaftesbury (Ashley Cooper) becomes Lord Chancellor.

1673. *March 29.* **Test Act;** officeholders ordered to take oaths of allegiance and supremacy, to abjure transubstantiation, and to take the sacrament according to the Church of England. Parliament forces this anti-Catholic act before granting King Charles any money. By it York and Clifford are forced to resign their positions. Shaftesbury dismissed for supporting the act. York, who is Charles's heir and whose two daughters are Protestants, marries again on November 21, with a Catholic princess.

1674. *Feb. 9.* Treaty of **peace with Holland** signed at Westminster.

1675. *March.* Organization of Lords of Trade, committee of the Council for Colonies.

1677. York's daughter **Mary weds William of Orange** on November 15.

1678. *August.* Alleged **Popish Plot** to assassinate the king and set up Catholicism declared in a perjured confession of Titus Oates. Five Catholic peers imprisoned and Coleman, secretary of the Duchess of York, executed. **Roman Catholics** excluded from Parliament by the **Disabling Act** of November 30, a measure destined to remain in force for 150 years.

1679. *Jan. 24.* Charles dissolves Parliament, which has sat since 1661, to save his minister Danby from impeachment. New parliament meets, March 6; impeachment proceedings are renewed, but dropped on his dismissal and imprisonment.
April. Charles suddenly institutes a new privy council of 30 members for the old one, with Shaftesbury as president; a small committee does the important work.
May 26. **Habeas Corpus Act** stops royal evasion of the writ. Charles dissolves Parliament on May 27, to prevent passage of a bill to exclude York from the succession. Lauderdale causes the **persecution of Covenanters** in Scotland, but Archbishop Sharpe is assassinated, May 3. **Covenanters** under Balfour **defeat Claverhouse,** June 1, at **Drumclog;** but are **overcome** by Monmouth **at Bothwell Bridge,** June 22.

1680. Shaftesbury, again dismissed in October, 1679, heads the opposition which favors the succession of Monmouth, the king's illegitimate son, and petitions for a meeting of Parliament; while the supporters of York and **divine right** express their abhorrence of it. "Petitioners" and "abhorrers" received the nicknames of "**Whigs**" and "**Tories.**" New parliament meets on October 21; Commons passes the **Exclusion Bill,** but Lords reject it, as it cuts off York's Protestant daughters. Parliament is dissolved, Jan. 6, 1681.

1681. *March 21.* Another parliament meets, but is dissolved within a week; Louis's pension makes the English king independent of parliamentary grants. People, fearing civil war more than a Catholic king, rally to support of Tories. Shaftesbury accused of treason in November, but grand jury of Whig London refuses to indict him. December, Argyle condemned, but flees; Scottish **Covenanters** and **Cameronians** are **persecuted.**

1682. *October.* London getting Tory magistrates, **Shaftesbury** flees to Holland to escape indictment, and **dies** there.

1683. London deprived by judicial procedure of its charter **of self-government;** other corporate towns suffer similarly, the purpose being to secure a Tory parliament. **Rye House Plot** to kill the king discovered, also a **Whig conspiracy** involving Essex, Monmouth, Russell, Sidney, and others. Essex kills himself, Sidney and Russell executed, but Monmouth pardoned.

1685. *Feb. 6.* **Charles dies;** succeeded by York as **James II.** Tory parliament meets, May 19. Argyle returns to Scotland, but is apprehended and executed, June 30. **Monmouth** lands in Dorsetshire, June 11, and declares himself king; he is defeated at **Sedgemoor,** July 6, and executed on July 15. His supporters are ruthlessly condemned by Chief Justice Jeffreys in the **Bloody Assizes,** and James makes Jeffreys chancellor as his reward.

1686. By exercising the royal dispensation, James appoints Catholics contrary to the Test Act, and is supported by the courts. **Catholic worship is permitted;** Protestant divines are prohibited from preaching against Catholic doctrines. New court of ecclesiastical commission suspends Compton, Bishop of London, for failure to enforce the decree.

1687. James orders the fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, to choose a Catholic as president; they refuse and are expelled, April 4. James issues a **Declaration of Indulgence** proclaiming liberty of conscience to all denominations, but Dissenters do not rally to him, and Parliament, becoming hostile, is dissolved.

1688. Second **Declaration of Indulgence** issued and ordered read in all the churches. June 10, a son is born to James, making probable a **Catholic succession. Seven bishops,** headed by Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, are arrested for remonstrating against the declaration, but on June 30 are acquitted. Verdict causes widespread rejoicing and **William of Orange-Nassau** invited to deliver England. He lands at Torbay on November 5, with 14,000 men. December 18, he enters London and James is permitted to escape to France five days later.

1689. *Jan. 22.* **Convention Parliament** meets and on February 12 declares that the king has abdicated and the throne is vacant, and offers joint sovereignty to **William and Mary,** with regulation for **Protestant succession.** Offer is accompanied by a declaration of rights and liberties of the subjects and oaths of allegiance and supremacy. Certain bishops and clergy, refusing to take the oaths, lose their positions and are known as **nonjurors.**
April 3. **Mutiny Act** passed, which has to be renewed yearly; this gives Parliament control over the army. **Toleration Act,** May 24, gives freedom of worship to all Protestants except Unitarians. Declaration of rights and succession enacted as a **Bill of Rights** on December 16, which also debars the crown to papists.

1689 (*continued*).
James, backed by France, reaches Ireland, March 12. He lays unsuccessful siege to **Londonderry,** April–July, and the Irish are also defeated on July 30 at Newton Butler. In Scotland, Parliament declares for William and Mary and establishes Presbyterianism; **Dundee** (Claverhouse) raises a force for James and is victorious at **Killierankie** on July 17, but is himself slain.

1690. *March 20.* Second Parliament of William and Mary first meets.

June 30. English and Dutch fleet is defeated at **Beachy Head** by the French under Tourville With 36,000 men, William personally marches against James in Ireland, defeating him at **the Boyne,** July 1; James flees to France.

1691. For the war on the Continent in this and succeeding years, see FRANCE.

July 12. **Irish** are defeated at Aughrim, and Limerick surrenders, October 3, bringing the **war to an end.** Scotch **Highlanders** are **pacified,** chiefly by money; but William's chief representative there, the Master of Stair, taking advantage of the delayed submission of MacIan, chief of a MacDonald clan, causes the clan to be massacred at **Glencoe,** February 13, 1692. Lowlanders join in the protest and the minister is dismissed

1692. *May 19–23.* English and Dutch under Russell defeat Tourville in battle of **La Hogue,** which ends Louis XIV.'s attempts to invade England.

1693. *January.* $5,000,000 borrowed, **beginning of the national debt.** On July 27, 1694, **Bank of England** is chartered, which loans $6,000,000 to the government.

1694. To stop disorders in Parliament, a Whig ministry led by the **Junto** of Somers, Russell (Orford), Montagu (Halifax), and Wharton succeeds a bipartisan one, and becomes the beginning of the **modern cabinet. Triennial Act,** passed December 22, limits life of a parliament to three years. Mary dies on December 28, and William reigns alone as **William III.** There is much corruption during this period.

1695. Parliament by refusing to renew the licensing act establishes **liberty of the press.** [meets.

Nov. 22. Third Parliament of William III.

1696. *Feb. 14.* **Plot to assassinate William,** of which James II. is cognizant, betrayed.

1697. *Sept. 20.* **Treaty of Ryswiek** (Rijswick) ends Franco-English war; Louis recognizes William as king. [meets

1698. *Dec. 6.* Fourth Parliament of William III.

1700. *April 11.* **Act against the Catholics;** nonjurors to forfeit estates for life, Catholic priests and schoolmasters liable to life imprisonment.

1701. *Feb. 6.* Fifth Parliament of William meets, with a Tory majority; ministry is also Tory. By the **Act of Settlement,** June 12, the crown is to pass after Mary's sister Anne and her issue to Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James I., and her issue, being Protestant. Act shows jealousy of a foreign sovereign and also of growing power of cabinet; contains a provision against ministers and placemen sitting in Parliament. **James II. dies,** September 6, and as the **Grand Alliance** to which England is a party is just then formed **against France,** Louis recognizes James's son (James III., or the Pretender) as king of England Sixth Parliament of William III. meets, Dec. 30.

1702. *March 8.* **William dies** and **Anne,** a Tory, ascends the throne. War is declared against France by the Grand Alliance, May 4, Marlborough being captain general, and having, through his wife, great influence over Anne. (See FRANCE for events of War of the Spanish Succession; and UNITED STATES for Queen Anne's War.) October 20, First Parliament of Anne meets.

1704. *July 24.* **Gibraltar** is captured.

1705. *Oct. 25.* The new parliament (second of Anne) is Whig; Marlborough and Godolphin, Lord Treasurer, make advances to it, and the Place Bill of the Act of Settlement is so modified as to permit members of Parliament who accept places created before 1705 to retain their seats if reëlected.

1707. *May 1.* **England and Scotland** are **united** under the name of **Great Britain;** union provides for one Parliament, with 16 Scottish peers in the Lords and 45 members in the Commons; Union jack becomes the national flag. First Parliament of Great Britain meets, October 23.

In **Ireland** the Protestant parliament continues to subject the Catholics to severe penal laws, while England suppresses Irish commerce to the advantage of her own merchants.

1708. The Pretender lands in Scotland, but withdraws. November 16, Second Parliament of Great Britain meets.

During the year the royal veto is exercised for the last time.

1710. Marlborough and Godolphin have become Whigs and a ministry of this party has been forced on Anne. **Sacheverell,** having preached a sermon (November 5, 1709) denouncing the principle of resistance and toleration established by the Revolution of 1688, is impeached by the ministry, but public opinion supports the Tories, and Anne seizes the opportunity to form a Tory ministry under Harley (Oxford) and Saint-John (Bolingbroke), supported by a Tory parliament, which meets on November 25 (third of Great Britain). Overtures of peace are made to France.

1711. *Feb. 28.* Parliament passes the **Property Qualification Act,** by which only landholders can have seats in Commons. It also passes the Occasional Conformity Act, December 22, directed against dissenters in office; but the Lords condemn the foreign policy of the Tory ministry. Anne **creates 12 peers,** giving the Tories a majority in Lords as well as in Commons. December 31, Marlborough deprived of all his offices.

1713. *March 31 (April 11, N.S.).* **Peace of Utrecht** concluded. Pretender renounced by France, and Hudson Bay country, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, St Christopher, Gibraltar, and Minorca ceded to Great Britain by France and Spain By the **asslento** Great Britain secures a monopoly of slave trade to Spanish America. In general, the treaty favors the English commercial class, which is Whig.

1714. Fourth Parliament of Great Britain meets on February 16 Last measure of the Tories to strengthen their hold is the Schism Act (June 25), which requires a bishop's license of conformity to teach. **Anne dies,** August 1; the crown passes to **George I.,** son of Sophia

1715. *March 17* Fifth Parliament of Great Britain meets and impeaches Bolinghroke, Ormonde, and Oxford; Ormonde imprisoned; others escape **Jacobite riots** occur. Earl of Mar heads a rising of Scottish Jacobites in September and on December 2 the Pretender reaches Scotland, but accomplishes nothing, returning to France in February.

1716. *May 7* **Septennial Act** increases the life of a parliament, including the existing one, to seven years.

1717. *Feb. 18.* Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts repealed. British Parliament on April 7 passes an act asserting its right and power to make laws to "bind the kingdom and people of Ireland"

1720. Failure of the **South Sea Company,** started by Harley in 1711 and the subject of wild speculation Fall ruins many, and government officials are implicated in it and other "blue-sky" operations.

1721. *April 3.* **Walpole** (Whig) becomes virtually **prime minister;** his administration continues for 21 years, upheld by systematic corruption and intent upon keeping both foreign and domestic peace at any price. [meets

1722. *Oct. 9.* Sixth Parliament of Great Britain

1727. *June 11.* **George I. dies;** son succeeds as **George II.** [ain meets

1728. *Jan. 23.* Seventh Parliament of Great Brit-

1735. *Jan. 14.* Eighth Parliament of Great Britain meets.

1739. **War with Spain** over smuggling and search in Spanish America (**War of Jenkins's Ear**), and Georgia's encroachment on Florida. Vernon captures Porto Bello in Darien.

1740. Vernon fails in attack on Cartagena September. Anson begins a cruise, during which he destroys a city in Peru, captures a $1,500,000 plate ship, and circumnavigates the globe, returning June, 1744 [assembles

1741. *Dec. 1.* Ninth Parliament of Great Britain

1742. *Feb. 17.* **Walpole falls;** succeeded nominally by Earl of Wilmington, but Carteret (foreign minister) and Newcastle are the chief men of the new administration.

1744. *March 15.* **France declares war** on Great Britain, bringing her into the War of the Austrian Succession (see GERMANY and UNITED STATES). Carteret retires November 23; Henry **Pelham** (Newcastle's brother) becomes **prime minister.**

1745. France sends the **Young Pretender** (grandson of James II.) to **Scotland;** he lands on July 25 and wins several battles.

1746. *Feb. 22.* **William Pitt** joins the ministry.

April 16. Duke of Cumberland defeats Murray and the Pretender at **Culloden.** Leading Jacobites are executed; Pretender flees to France This ends the Stuart attempts to regain the throne

1747. *Nov. 10.* Tenth Parliament of Great Britain meets.

1748. *Oct. 18.* **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle;** England neither gains nor loses. It includes peace with Spain.

1752. **Gregorian calendar** (see CALENDAR, in the *Dict.*) is adopted in Great Britain and the colonies.

1753. **British Museum** founded.

1754. **Newcastle** succeeds his brother as **prime minister,** and Henry **Fox** becomes Secretary of State, also leader of Commons in 1755 Eleventh Parliament of Great Britain meets, May 31.

French and Indian War begins in America (see UNITED STATES). Formal war is not yet declared, however. Newcastle, indisposed to a vigorous policy, dismisses Pitt on Nov. 20, 1755.

1756. *May 17.* **War is declared,** being known in Europe as the **Seven Years' War** (see GERMANY). France captures Minorca in July. Newcastle resigns, October 26, and Devonshire and **Pitt** succeed, December 4 Latter, an ardent **Imperialist,** has the support of the commercial interests and those weary of rule through corruption.

1757. *April 6.* George II. dismisses **Pitt,** who, however, regains power on June 29 in a **coalition ministry** with **Newcastle,** who controls the Commons and gives Pitt the means of carrying out his policy, while himself manipulating the patronage. Pitt subsidizes Frederick the Great on the Continent and devotes himself to building up the **Empire** in America and elsewhere, **sea power** being his chief instrument. **Clive,** June 23, wins the victory of **Plassey** in Bengal, India (see INDIA).

1759. *August.* English fleets under Boscawen and Hawke defeat the French off Lagos in August and at Quiberon Bay, on November 20, frustrating preparations to invade England.

Sept. 13. French defeated at Quebec; fall of Canada in 1760. [grandson as **George III.**

1760. *Oct. 25.* **George II. dies;** succeeded by his

1761. Pondicherry, French post in Madras, surrenders to Great Britain, which secures British predominance in that country (see INDIA). Pitt insists on war with Spain and, disregarded, resigns October 5. **Newcastle is premier,** Egremont, Bute, and George Grenville in the ministry, the last becoming leader of the Commons. Twelfth Parliament of Great Britain convenes on Nov. 3

1762. *January.* **War declared on Spain.** Newcastle resigns, May 26, and is succeeded by **Bute,** a personal appointment by the **king,** who is **bent** upon **destroying Whig control** and being himself a party leader. Bute holds office only until April 8, 1763, when **Grenville** succeeds.

1763–1783. For American relations, see UNITED STATES.

1763. *Feb. 10.* **Peace of Paris** by Great Britain, France, and Spain. Great Britain gains from France Minorca, Canada, Louisiana east of the Mississippi, Dominica, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Tobago in the West Indies, and Senegal in Africa; and from Spain, Florida. Great Britain restores Cuba and Manila (captured in 1762) to Spain; she cedes St. Lucia to France and restores to her Goree in Africa, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Saint-Pierre, and Miquelon in America and the captured towns in India, but retains ascendancy there. **John Wilkes** is arrested for publishing articles in the **North Briton** insulting to the king; expelled from Commons, January 19, 1764, and outlawed. General warrants issued for others, but they are declared illegal. Wilkes receives popular support.

1765. *July 10.* The Marquis of **Rockingham** (Whig) becomes **prime minister,** with Conway and Grafton as secretaries of state. Earl of **Chatham** (Pitt) **succeeds** on July 30, 1766, as head of a heterogeneous ministry, but becoming incapacitated (May, 1767) the Duke of Grafton is nominal head with Charles Townshend leader of the Commons and moving spirit. Chatham resigns on October 15, 1768

1768. *May 10.* Thirteenth Parliament of Great Britain meets.

1769. *Feb. 4.* **Wilkes,** who has been returned to Parliament for Middlesex (London), expelled again; he is thereupon thrice reëlected, with much mob violence ("Wilkes and liberty"), and as many times rejected, his opponent being finally seated by the House. Publication of the **Letters of Junius** in the *Public Advertiser* begins; they continue for three years, supporting Wilkes and attacking the ministry and the king himself. Authorship is now generally assigned to Sir Philip Francis. (See JUNIUS, in the *Dictionary.*)

1770. *January.* Lord **North** becomes **premier.** This is a selection by the king; North is a supporter of the personal rule and the **king** is practically **his own premier.**

1771. The Commons endeavor to prevent the report of debates in the newspapers, but fail.

1774. *Oct. 4.* **Wilkes** elected **Lord Mayor** of London, and on October 29 again returned for Middlesex and seated without opposition on December 2, the Fourteenth Parliament of Great Britain meeting on November 29.

1778. *June 3.* Under the leadership of Sir George Savile, the Catholic Penal Act of 1700 is repealed

July 10. **France,** having entered into an alliance with the revolting **American colonies** (United States), declares war on Great Britain.

1779. *June 16.* Spain withdraws her ambassador from London, issues a manifesto, and soon begins an unsuccessful siege of Gibraltar, which lasts until peace is made.

1780. *Feb. 11.* Edmund **Burke** introduces his bill for the **economic reform of government,** abolishing sinecures in the civil list, reducing pensions and other extravagances which have made possible the ministerial (royal) corrupt control over Commons. Bill defeated, but it voices a **growing public discontent** (shown also in the Wilkes affair, Letters of Junius, and mob violence) with the king's efforts to rule as well as reign, and demands for manhood suffrage and electoral reform in Parliament; and some of its reforms are finally

1780 (*continued*).
enacted on June 19, 1782, under the Rockingham ministry, of which Burke is a member.

June 2. Lord George **Gordon,** a fanatic, heads a mob demanding that Parliament rescind the repeal of the Catholic Penal Act. The "**no-popery**" cry is made the excuse for **riots** which devastate London for six days. [assembles.

Oct. 31. Fifteenth Parliament of Great Britain

An **Armed Neutrality** is formed by Denmark and Sweden with Russia to resist British infringements on neutral rights, raising the new slogan of "free ships, free goods." Holland adheres to the same principle and Great Britain declares war on her, December 20.

1782. *March 20.* North, in spite of the king's insistence, resigns because of disasters in America and the West Indies. **Rockingham** again becomes **premier,** with Shelburne, Charles James Fox, and Edmund Burke in the ministry. June 21, an act repeals that of 1717 which asserted the power to make laws for Ireland, and also repeals the control of the privy council, under Poynings's law, over the making of laws there. In July **Shelburne** succeeds Rockingham, and Fox and Burke resign, while **William Pitt,** the younger, at the age of twenty-three, becomes Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader of the Commons.

April 12. **Rodney's** great **naval victory** over De Grasse in the West Indies restores British prestige sufficiently for an acceptable peace, especially after the failure of the final attack on Gibraltar on September 13.

1783. *Sept. 3.* **Peace of Versailles and Paris** signed with the United States, France, and Spain; independence of the first is recognized, with territory to the Mississippi; Tobago and Senegal ceded to France, and Minorca and Florida to Spain. Meanwhile the Shelburne ministry, having started the peace, is forced out, February 23, by a **coalition** of **North** and **Fox,** who, April 2, become secretaries of state, with the Duke of Portland as nominal premier. Pitt introduces, May 7, a bill for parliamentary reform, directed especially against the **rotten boroughs** and bribery; Fox supports it, but North opposes, and it is defeated. November 20, Burke's **India Bill** (see India) is introduced by Fox; though opposed by Pitt, it passes the Commons, but is defeated in the House of Lords on December 17 by the king's personal influence. King George dismisses the ministry on December 19 and names **Pitt** as **premier,** though the latter is not backed by the Commons, and is repeatedly defeated by the coalition majority.

1784. *March 25.* Parliament is dissolved and public opinion rallying to **Pitt,** he has a majority in the new Commons, which meets on May 15 (Sixteenth Parliament of Great Britain), and being strong enough to disregard the king's wishes, becomes premier in fact as well as in name. Pitt's own bill for reform in India (see India) passed on August 13.

May 20. **Peace** is signed **with Holland,** that country yielding to England the right of commerce in the East Indies and also Negapatam in Madras, India.

1785. Penang is ceded to the East India Company; beginning of the Straits Settlements. Singapore is added in 1819 and Malacca in 1824, the union taking place in 1826.

April 18. **Pitt** introduces another parliamentary reform bill aiming at the erection of a fund to buy off the owners of virtually private seats; it fails and he abandons his advocacy of the reform. His attempt to introduce **free trade with Ireland** passes, July 29, in a resolution of such restricted form that the Irish Parliament rejects it.

1786. *May 26.* **Sinking Fund Act,** Pitt's measure for paying the national debt.

Sept. 26. **Commercial treaty** with **France;** an important step, through the reciprocal reduction of custom duties, toward the overthrow of the mercantile system.

1787. Settlement of Sierra Leone begins; hinterland is developed, but proclamation of protectorate over it is not made until August 21, 1896.

1788. For trial of Warren Hastings, see India.

Oct. 12. The king becomes insane and the question of the **regency** becomes important. As the Prince of Wales is Fox's friend, Pitt insists upon, and carries through the Commons on February 12, a restrictive regency bill. Recovery of the king makes consideration by the Lords unnecessary.

1790. *Nov. 25.* Seventeenth Parliament of Great Britain opens.

1791. Irish question becomes important. The Irish Parliament is elected by and composed of Protestants, mainly from "rotten boroughs"; ministry is responsible to the lord lieutenant only, and he in turn can be independent of Parliament or make it subservient to him through patronage, and is responsible only to English ministry and crown. In October the **Society of United Irishmen** is started by Wolfe Tone, a Protestant, to open the franchise to Catholics and agitate for reform in Parliament and elsewhere.

1792. *June 15.* **Libel Act,** proposed by Fox, decrees that the jury shall judge as to the whole matter at issue.

1793. *Feb. 1.* **War** is declared by the **French republic.** (For British participation in the Continental wars 1793–1815, see France; and for the controversy and war with United States, 1794–1815, growing out of neutral trade question, see United States.) Reaction in England caused by the Terror in France and later by Napoleon's rule postpones the **domestic reforms** toward which **Pitt** is moving. Extent of the early reaction is seen in the harsh enforcement of the **Treasonable Correspondence Act** (passed May 7).

1795. With the return of orderly government in France (Directory) English public opinion veers toward peace and relief from the burden of war; October 29, the **king is mobbed** on his way to open parliament. Pitt insists on continuing war and the passage of bills to restrain what he considers revolutionary violence. Holland having become a depeodency of France, English capture Cape of Good Hope colony, but it is restored in 1802 by the Peace of Amiens.

Disturbances become frequent in Ireland by Catholics on one side and Protestant factions of Orangemen on the other.

1796. England captures Ceylon from the Dutch; also Guiana, but the latter is restored in 1802.

Sept. 27. Eighteenth Parliament of Great Britain first meets.

Oct. 8. **Spain declares war** on Great Britain.

Dec. 17. A French fleet with 20,000 soldiers leaves Brest to invade Ireland, at the appeal of the United Irishmen, but is scattered by a storm at sea.

1797. Trinidad is captured from Spain. February 16, off Cape St. Vincent, Sir John **Jervis** defeats a Spanish fleet and prevents its junction with the French and Dutch fleets to control the Channel during an invasion of Ireland. February 27, the **Bank of England suspends specie payments.** Mutiny on April 15 in the fleet at Spithead and the demands of the sailors are allowed. May 22, another revolt, with more far-reaching demands, takes place at The Nore; the mutineers are suppressed forcibly. October 11, **Duncan's** fleet defeats the French and Dutch off **Camperdown;** the victory restores public confidence and relieves the people from fear of invasion.

1798. *May.* **Rebellion** breaks out **in Ireland,** which is attended by many atrocities on both sides The Irish are at first successful, but are defeated at Ballinahinch on June 13 and at Vinegar Hill (overlooking Enniscorthy) on June 21; a small body of aiding Frenchmen surreoders at Ballinamuck on September 8, and the rebellion is completely crushed. Many are executed; Tone, captured, commits suicide.

Aug. 1. Horatio **Nelson** defeats the French fleet at the **battle of the Nile** and destroys the hope of success of Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt.

1800. *July 2.* Royal assent is given to the **union of Great Britain and Ireland,** the consent of the Irish Parliament having been venally procured by Pitt. Irish Parliament thus ceases; 4 spiritual and 28 temporal Irish lords are to be sent to the union House of Lords and 100 members to the Commons. Established churches are united. Present **union jack** is adopted as **British flag,** the royal arms and titles changed, and the claim to be "king of France" is dropped. November 5, a royal proclamation declares that the members of the existing British parliament shall also be members of the first union parliament.

1801. *Jan. 1.* Union goes into operation. January 22, First Parliament of the **United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland** meets. March 14, **Pitt resigns** because of the king's antipathy to Catholic emancipation, and the **Addington ministry** succeeds.

March 10. **First British census;** population of Great Britain (England, Wales, and Scotland), 10,500,956.

April 2. Nelson bombards Copenhagen, the **Armed Neutrality** of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark having been **revived.** June 17, the Armed Neutrality ends through an agreement between Great Britain and Russia.

1802. *March 25.* **Peace of Amiens** is signed with France, Spain, and Holland. Great Britain restores all over-sea conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. Malta, which Bonaparte took from the Knights of St. John and England took from him, is to be restored to the Knights. This, however, is not done; England is suspicious of Napoleon's intentions, especially as to Egypt ("the road to India"), and other complications help to make the peace a short one. [dom opens.

Nov. 16. Second Parliament of United King-

1803. *May.* **Rupture of the Peace of Amiens.** Napoleon begins to gather a great army at Boulogne to invade Great Britain. To accomplish this he must have at least temporary command of the Channel and neighboring seas. In June the British conquer St. Lucia in the West Indies. Guiana is also reoccupied.

July 23. Robert **Emmet,** a United Irishman, plans another revolt, but his rising with a handful of men is suppressed and he is executed Sept. 20.

1804. *May 10.* On the resignation of Addington the king has **Pitt** organize a **second ministry,** excluding Fox.

1805. The **third coalition** against France is formed by Great Britain, Austria, Sweden, Russia, and Prussia; the British function is chiefly to control the seas and subsidize the Continental nations. Oct. 21, **Nelson** destroys the combined French and Spanish fleet at **Trafalgar** and prevents invasion of England, but is himself **killed.**

1806. *Jan. 23.* **Pitt dies.** Lord **Grenville** heads the **Ministry of all the Talents** with **Fox** as foreign secretary (Fox dies on September 13). Cape of Good Hope is again captured from the Dutch, and Curaçao off the coast of South America; the latter is restored in 1814. [opens.

Dec. 15. Third Parliament of United Kingdom

1806–1807. British **orders in council** in contravention of Napoleon's Continental system (see United States).

1807. *March 24.* King George dismisses the **ministry** because of the refusal to promise not to propose measures of Catholic relief, and the Duke of **Portland,** March 31, forms a new one with George Canning as foreign secretary, and Castlereagh as secretary of war.

March 25. **Slave trade is abolished.**

June 22. Fourth Parliament of the United Kingdom meets.

Sept. 5. Surrender of Copenhageo to British and seizure of Danish fleet.

1808. Peninsular War begins when Canning sends an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley to deliver Portugal and support the Spanish revolt against Napoleon (see Spain).

1809. *October.* Portland resigns as prime minister and George **Perreval** succeeds; Canning and Castlereagh also resign. Government conservative.

1810. George III. goes insane again, and the Prince of Wales (**George IV.**) becomes **regent** under an act passed February 5, 1811.

Ile de France (Mauritius) is captured; also Moluccas from the Dutch, but the latter are restored in 1814; Seychelles Islands are occupied.

1811. *May 17.* Population of England, Wales, and Scotland, 11,970,120.

September. Java is taken from the Dutch, but is restored in 1814.

1812. Perceval is assassinated by a lunatic. June 8, Lord **Liverpool** becomes **premier** with Castlereagh as foreign secretary and Lord Sidmouth (Addington) as home secretary.

June 18. The United States declares war (see United States). [gathers.

Nov. 24. Fifth Parliament of United Kingdom

1813. Successful British campaigns against the French in Spain.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1814–1815. For the Congress of Vienna, see Nineteenth-Century Period. For the treaties of peace and commerce with United States, see United States.

1814. *May 30.* **Peace of Paris** is signed. Great Britain restores to France all over-sea conquests except Tobago and St. Lucia in the West Indies, Seychelles, and Mauritius (Ile de France). Great Britain retains Malta. August 13, convention is signed with Holland on colonial possessions. Great Britain restores all colonies conquered since 1802 except Cape of Good Hope and part of Guiana; Holland is given back Banka in exchange for Cochin in India.

1815. For the Hundred Days and battle of Waterloo, see France.

Ascension and Tristan da Cunha islands occupied.

March 28. Amendment of the corn law forbids the importation of wheat (see 1st Corn, *n.* **3,** in the *Dict.*) unless the price is 80 shillings ($19.50) per quarter (8 bushels), thus protecting landowners.

1816. Occupation of Gambia begins.

Period following the war is one of much **distress;** unemployment, bad harvests, falling off of foreign demand for manufactures, heavy war debt, and disregard of the rights of labor. Conditions lead to radical demands, led by William **Cobbett,** for reform of political system, and to violence.

1817. *March 4.* Remedy of the conservative ministry for this distress, discontent, and natural development of new ideas is to suspend *habeas corpus* until March 1, 1818, and also, March 31, to pass an act against seditious meetings. Revival of business does not become general and firm until 1821.

1818. *Oct. 20.* Commercial and fishery treaty with United States (see United States).

1819. *Jan. 14.* Sixth Parliament of United Kingdom assembles.

Aug. 16. Political and social **agitation** culminates at Manchester in great mass meeting, which troops disperse with some bloodshed ("Manchester Massacre"). Ministry replies, December 11–30, by the passage of the **Six Acts,** which forbid training in the use of arms, authorize

1819 *(continued)*.
search, deprive defendants of certain rights in trials for misdemeanors, provide against seditious meetings and libel, and put a stamp duty on pamphlets.

1820. *Jan. 29.* George III. dies, still insane; the regent becomes **George IV.**

April 21. Seventh Parliament of United Kingdom first meets.

May 1. Thistlewood and four others are executed for plotting to kill the ministers.

August. Queen **Caroline,** consort of George IV., is tried for **divorce,** but the Lords abandon the bill after a hearing of three months. She receives popular support, but is forbidden to participate in the coronation, and dies on August 7, 1821.

1821. Bank of England resumes specie payments. [of his career.]

Robert Peel becomes home secretary; beginning

May 28. Population of United Kingdom, 20,893,584.

1822. *Aug. 12.* Castlereagh commits suicide **George Canning** succeeds as foreign secretary, most brilliant English diplomat of his time. (For Great Britain and the Holy Alliance, see Nineteenth-Century Period.)

1823. Several acts embody Peel's **criminal law reforms; death penalty** abolished for some 100 crimes. [teenth-Century Period.)]

Canning's South American policy. (See Nine-

1824. *June 21.* Law against **combinations of laborers** is repealed; but on July 6, 1825, because of disturbances, the repeal is revoked, though combinations to fix wages and hours of work are permitted.

1824–1826. First Burmese War; no annexations.

1825. *Sept. 27.* Opening of the Stockton and Darlington railway; cars drawn by Stephenson's locomotive. [Kingdom opens.]

1826. *Nov. 14.* Eighth Parliament of the United

1827. *Feb. 17.* Liverpool is disabled and **Canning** becomes **prime minister.** He dies on August 8 and **Goderich** succeeds.

July 6. Great Britain, Russia, and France unite to mediate or interpose in the War of Greek Independence. October 20, the **Turkish fleet** is **destroyed** at **Navarino** (see Greece).

1828. *Jan. 26.* **Wellington** becomes **prime minister;** Peel continues as home secretary.

May 9. Under the leadership of Lord John Russell, act is passed **repealing** the **Corporation Act** of 1661 and the **Test Act** of 1673, so far as they affect Protestants; requirement of disbelief in transubstantiation continues to exclude Catholics from Parliament and office.

1829. *April 13.* **Catholic Emancipation Act** does away with the tests which exclude Catholics from Parliament and from office, but retains the tests for certain offices and established church and university positions. This Whig measure agitated for years, but now receives the support of Wellington and Peel

1830. *June 26.* **George IV. dies;** his brother succeeds as **William IV.**

Sept. 15. Manchester and Liverpool **railway,** first important thoroughfare of the kind in the world, is opened. [dom assembles.]

Oct. 26. Ninth Parliament of the United King-

Nov. 16. Wellington, defeated in Commons, resigns, and the first distinct Whig ministry since 1806 begins November 24; Lord **Grey, prime minister;** Althorp, Brougham, Melbourne, and Palmerston in the cabinet, and Lord John Russell a subordinate member.

1831. *March 1.* Lord John Russell for the cabinet introduces a **parliamentary reform bill.** Opposition in Commons leads to a dissolution and on the appeal to the country the new parliament (tenth of United Kingdom), which meets on June 14, has a large ministerial (Whig) majority, and passes the bill on September 22. Lords reject it on October 8; the action, so contrary to public wishes, causes riots in many places.

May 29. Population of United Kingdom, 24,028,584.

1832. Settlement of Falkland Islands begins

March 24. **Reform Bill** passes Commons again, and the Lords, under threat of creation of new peers, give in; bill becomes law on June 7. It disfranchises 56 boroughs entirely, and in all 145 seats are taken from the old boroughs, while 42 towns receive one or two members and county membership increased from 94 to 159. Suffrage is largely extended. Other acts of July 17 and August 7 reform the representation of Scotland and Ireland, increasing their membership, and much enlarging the suffrage. Effect of the reform is to **enfranchise the middle class.**

1833. *Jan. 25.* First Parliament under the Reform Act (eleventh of the United Kingdom) meets. Those supporting reform measures (Whigs and Radicals) begin to be called **Liberals;** their opponents, **Conservatives.**

Aug. 24. Act on the temporalities of the established church in Ireland reduces the number of bishops from 22 to 12.

Aug. 28. Act passed **abolishing slavery** in British colonies; goes into effect August 1, 1834; owners to be paid $100,000,000. Act causes commercial disturbance, especially in West Indies; former owners abuse the apprentice system, production of coffee and sugar falls off. Planters show much disaffection.

Aug. 29. Notes of the Bank of England are made legal tender in England and Wales. On the same date Lord Ashley's **Factory Act** is passed. It forbids night labor of children under 9; those under 11 (after a period, under 13) not to work more than 9 hours a day (48 a week), except in silk mills; and those between 11 (later 13) and 17, not more than 12 hours, or 69 a week. Also provides for inspection to enforce it.

1834. *July 16.* Lord **Melbourne** becomes **prime minister.**

Aug. 14. **Poor Law** reforms bad condition of pauperism; provides for the abolition of local boards, enlarging central authority; also for the union of parishes to support workhouses, the general administration of the relief being in the hands of guardians elected by ratepayers. Outdoor relief reduced to a minimum.

Nov. 14. The king dismisses the ministry, the last instance of such action by a sovereign, and makes **Peel prime minister.**

1836. Melbourne ministry returns as Peel does not command a majority in the new parliament (twelfth of United Kingdom) which meets on February 19. Palmerston is foreign secretary and Lord John Russell home secretary.

Sept. 9. Municipal Corporation Act makes rate paying the basis for burgess-ship.

1837. *June 20.* **William IV. dies;** his niece **Victoria** succeeds. As a woman cannot rule in Hanover, the kingship of that country goes to her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, and ceases to be united with the crown of Great Britain.

Rebellion in Canada (see Canada).

July 17. Number of crimes for which **death** is **penalty** reduced to six

Nov. 15. Thirteenth Parliament of United Kingdom assembles.

1838. *May 8.* The **People's Charter,** by William Lovett, is first published. It becomes the program of the **Chartists,** led by Feargus O'Connor, — a phase of the continuing social agitation. The "six points" are: annual parliaments, universal male suffrage, ballot, equal electoral districts, abolition of property qualifications for Parliament, and salary for its members. Parliament on June 14, 1839, refuses to consider a monster petition by the Chartists, and there is rioting at Birmingham and elsewhere.

July 31. Poor law is enacted for Ireland

Aug. 15. Irish tithes are transferred from the tenants to the landowners.

September **Anti-Corn-Law League** is formed at Manchester under the leadership of Richard **Cobden** and John **Bright.**

1838–1842. First Afghan War (see India).

1839. *Jan. 16.* Aden is captured [system.]

Aug. 17. Preparatory act for reform of postal

1840. War with China (see China).

Feb. 10. Queen **Victoria** weds her cousin, **Prince Albert** of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, who later (1857) receives the title of **Prince Consort.**

May 22. Sovereignty over New Zealand is proclaimed.

July 15. Treaty with Russia, Austria, Prussia, and Turkey to suppress Mehemet Ali (see Turkey). Acre is captured on November 4 and Mehemet Ali retires into Egypt. France being left out of the alliance, there is friction between her and England, but it disappears.

Aug 10. Under the leadership of Sir Rowland **Hill,** act is passed for **penny postage** throughout the United Kingdom, prepaid by stamps.

1841. *January.* Hongkong is ceded by China; confirmed by treaty of August 29, 1842.

June 7. Population of United Kingdom, 27,057,923.

Aug. 19. Lord Melbourne, burdened by deficiency of revenue, having been defeated in Commons, a new parliament meets (fourteenth of United Kingdom) with a Conservative majority. **Peel** forms his **second ministry,** including Wellington as a figurehead and Aberdeen as foreign secretary.

1842. First concessions to Sir James Brooke in Sarawak, Borneo; formal British protectorate not established until 1888.

June 22. Opposition to the protection for food and other products leads to a **revision** of the **tariff;** duties on some 750 out of 1200 articles are reduced or abolished; an **income tax** is imposed to make up the deficit. This policy of reducing tariff duty and extending the free list Peel continues in subsequent budgets; later, Gladstone's budgets make even more rapid steps toward **free trade.**

Aug. 9. **Ashburton Treaty** on **Maine** boundary (see United States).

Aug. 10. An act fathered by Lord Ashley forbids labor in mines by women, girls, or boys under 10.

1843. *May 12.* Natal is proclaimed a British colony; increased by later annexations and treaties (see South Africa).

May 18. Disruption of the established Presbyterian Church of Scotland; withdrawal of a large portion of the ministers, who form the Free Church of Scotland and abandon their benefices.

May 19. **Gladstone** becomes a member of the Conservative ministry.

1844. Factory Act (Ashley's) forbids the employment of any female more than 12 hours a day (69 a week). It permits children of 8 to labor, but establishes for children half-day or alternate-day labor, with compulsory education.

July 19. A separate issue department is established for the Bank of England and it is made the sole source of future circulating bank notes.

1845. *July 31.* **Jews** made **eligible** to municipal offices.

1845–1846. Failure of potato crops in **Ireland** with resulting **famine.** This adds force to movement to repeal the corn laws.

1846. Labuan Island is ceded to Great Britain.

June 15. Oregon Treaty with United States (see United States).

June 26. Peel's bill for **repeal of the corn laws** lowers food duties by a sliding scale on wheat, with duty on other grains and flour and meal in proportion. After February 1, 1849, the duty on all grain at whatever price is to be very low. Peel, though a Conservative, carries the act by Liberal aid. On June 24, 1869, this reduced duty is abolished.

June 27. Peel is defeated on a bill for Irish relief, by a combination of protectionists and others headed by **Benjamin Disraeli.** Lord John **Russell** forms a Liberal **ministry** on July 6. Palmerston is foreign secretary.

1847. *June 8.* Ashley's work for labor betterment is crowned by an act establishing a maximum **ten-hour day** (58 a week) for women and children.

Nov. 18. Fifteenth Parliament of United Kingdom meets.

Dec. 20. Act for public works for Ireland is first fruit of Russell's efforts to solve the **Irish problems.** It is disappointing in results and he is forced to a coercion act by disorders.

1848. *April 10.* A revival of **Chartism** leads to the plan for a great meeting at Kensington Common, London, to carry a much-padded petition to Parliament. The petition is presented, but government preparations cause the failure of the affair as a demonstration.

July 29. A **rising,** connected with the various revolts of this year on the Continent, takes place prematurely **in Ireland;** the conspiracy is led by Smith O'Brien (a Protestant) and one Mitchel, and the movement is quickly **suppressed** by the police. O'Brien and Mitchel are exiled.

Aug. 14. **Encumbered Estates Act** is Russell's next Irish measure. It provides for the sale of such estates to solvent purchasers who presumably will not press so heavily on the tenants. It is not a success, and the ministry not being able to pass further acts of relief, the incomplete program is a failure.

1849. *June 26.* Last remnants of the old **Navigation Acts** are repealed; but the coasting trade of the United Kingdom and of each possession (under certain excepting regulations) is still reserved for British ships. [United States).]

1850. *April 19.* **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty** (see

Sept. 30. A papal bull restores the **Roman Catholic hierarchy in England,** where since the toleration of Catholic worship the Catholic bishops have been nominally missionaries "*in partibus infidelium*" (L., in lands of the infidels). This meets with much popular opposition, and on August 1, 1851, the **Ecclesiastical Titles Act** lays a fine on anyone attempting to give effect to the bull, but the act is never enforced and is finally repealed

1851. Electric telegraph connection between England and France is established

First International Exhibition takes place in the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, London

March 31. Population of United Kingdom, 27,745,949.

Dec. 10. Russell forces Palmerston to resign because of latter's independent course in foreign affairs.

1852. Second Burmese War; December 20, a portion of the country is annexed.

Feb. 21. Russell ministry resigns, Palmerston having retaliated by procuring its defeat in the Commons. February 27, the Earl of **Derby** organizes his first (protectionist) **ministry,** with **Disraeli** as chancellor of the exchequer; but the ministry lacks a majority in the new parliament (sixteenth of United Kingdom) of November 4; and on December 28 the **Aberdeen ministry** succeeds, with **Gladstone** as chancellor of the exchequer, Palmerston as home secretary, and Russell in charge of foreign affairs.

1853. *Aug. 20.* Penal servitude is substituted for long-term sentences of transportation, and on June 26, 1857, **transportation** overseas, which is very objectionable to the colonists, is **abolished.**

1854. Kuria Muria Islands ceded to Great Britain.
March 28. Great Britain and France begin war (**Crimean War**) on Russia over Turkish affairs (see RUSSIA). Sardinia joins the Allies (1855).
1855. *Jan. 30.* Aberdeen resigns because of criticism of the inefficient management of the war. **Palmerston** becomes **prime minister** on February 6, with a combination cabinet from which, however, Gladstone and other Peelites soon retire.
May 21. Order in council establishes a commission to pass on the qualifications of candidates for the **civil service**, thus reforming the method of selecting officials. [ished.]
June 15. Stamp duties on newspapers abol-
1856. Cocos (Keeling) Islands are taken under British protection.
March 30. **Peace of Paris** ends Crimean War. Great Britain acquires great influence over Turkey.
1857. **Arrow War** in China (see CHINA).
April 30. Seventeenth Parliament of United Kingdom assembles.
Aug. 28. **Divorce Act** substitutes for the complicated system of the ecclesiastical courts a Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, with a limited appeal to the House of Lords. The act goes into operation January 1, 1858.
1857–1858. Indian Mutiny (see INDIA).
1858. Final occupation of Andaman Islands.
Feb. 22. Second **Derby ministry** (Conservative) begins; **Disraeli** chancellor of the exchequer.
June 28. Property qualification for Parliament is abolished. [opened to **Jews.**]
July 28. Membership in Parliament and offices
Aug. 2. **East India Company abolished,** as a result of the mutiny; the rights are transferred to the crown (see INDIA).
Aug. 16. Communication is established over the **Atlantic cable** to the United States, but it soon ceases to work. [and commerce.]
Aug. 26. First treaty with Japan; friendship
1859. *May 31.* Eighteenth Parliament of United Kingdom opens. Ministry resigns.
June 13. Second **Palmerston ministry** (Liberal) with **Gladstone** as chancellor of the exchequer and Russell foreign secretary.
1860. Prince of Wales visits Canada and the United States.
Jan. 23. Cobden's treaty of reciprocity with France is signed. England cordial to Napoleon III.'s empire.
1861. Great Britain unites with Spain and France in sending an expedition to **Mexico** to enforce claims; satisfaction being received, England and Spain withdraw. [29,321,288.]
April 8. Population of United Kingdom,
May 12. Declaration of **neutrality in American Civil War.**
Aug. 6. Purchase of Lagos begins the present colony and protectorate of Nigeria; growth is through the Royal Niger Company and the various divisions are amalgamated on January 1, 1914
November–December. Trent affair (see UNITED STATES). Danger of war.
Dec. 14. **Prince Consort dies.**
1862. *May 1.* Second International Industrial Exposition opens in London.
July 29. Confederate States steamer *Alabama* sails from Liverpool (for Alabama Claims controversy, see UNITED STATES).
Strong pressure on the government to recognize the Southern Confederacy fails.
1863. *Oct. 8.* Construction of **Laird rams** for Confederate States is stopped (see UNITED STATES).
1864. *March 29.* British protectorate over Ionian Islands terminates; islands are ceded to Greece.
1865. *Oct. 11.* **Insurrection** of blacks begins **in Jamaica;** rigorously and cruelly suppressed.
Oct. 18. Palmerston dies; **Russell** becomes **prime minister** on November 6.
1866. *Feb. 1.* Nineteenth Parliament of Great Britain meets.
Feb. 17. Because of **Fenian agitations,** Parliament suspends *habeas corpus* in Ireland.
July 6. Russell ministry having resigned because of opposition to their Reform Bill, **Derby** becomes (Conservative) **prime minister** for the third time, with **Disraeli** again chancellor of the exchequer and Robert Cecil (Salisbury) secretary for India; the last named, with others, resigns on March 10, 1867, because opposed to Disraeli's Reform Bill.
1867. Abyssinian expedition punishes King Theodore for his treatment of British officials; Magdala is captured and Theodore kills himself. British retire from country. [suppressed.]
March. Rising of Fenians in Ireland is quickly
Aug. 15. **Second Reform Act;** Disraeli puts the measure through, seeing that it is a popular demand. Several attempts at further reform since 1832 have failed, though only one sixth of the adult males are voters and representation is still unevenly distributed. This act greatly enlarges the suffrage, but continues it on a property or rental basis; some readjustment of seats in Parliament is also made. Practically **enfranchises** the settled **working class.**
1868. *Feb. 27.* Derby resigns; **Disraeli** becomes **prime minister,** but resigns when the new parliament elected under the Reform Act has a Liberal majority. **Gladstone's first** (Liberal) **ministry** begins on December 9; John **Bright** is a member.
March 12. Basuteland is annexed.
July 13. Reform acts for Scotland and Ireland are enacted; **suffrage extended** and se ts redistributed. [Kingdom assembles.]
Dec. 10. Twentieth Parliament of United
1869. British claim to Nicobar Islands is acknowledged by other countries.
July 26. **Irish Disestablishment Act** ends the established church there; it also discontinues the annual grants to nonconforming ministers (*regium donum;* L., royal gift) and to the Catholic Maynooth College, certain compensatory sums being appropriated. Property of Church of England in Ireland is divided; a portion goes to charity. [ished.]
Aug. 9. **Imprisonment for debt is abol-**
1870. *June 4.* Order in council extends **civil service reform;** appointments in most departments are restricted to those qualified under open competitive examinations.
Aug. 1. **Irish Land Law** is Gladstone's attempted solution of Irish troubles; it provides that compensation shall be made to outgoing tenants for improvements made by them; and appropriates funds for loans to landlords making such compensations on improvements, or to tenants desirous of purchasing holdings. Unsatisfactory; does not establish fair rents or fixity of tenure.
Aug. 9. **Elementary Education Act,** Forster's bill, makes free primary instruction generally possible. Since 1833 Parliament has made small grants to voluntary (denominational) schools; such grants are continued, but board schools sustained by grants and local rates are to be added where needed, with a compromise on compulsion and religious instruction. Progress of education still slow and restricted.
1871. *April 3.* Population of United Kingdom, 31,845,379. [STATES).]
May 8. **Treaty of Washington** (see UNITED
June 16. **University Test Act** abolishes religious tests for degrees or lay offices at Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham.
July 20. System of **purchase of commissions** in the army, which restricts the officers to wealthy families, is **abolished** by royal warrant, in spite of obstruction by the Lords.
1872. Geneva Arbitration Commission assesses $15,500,000 as the indemnity due the United States for *Alabama* damages.
July 18. **Voting by ballot** is made obligatory for all British elections.
1873. **Ashanti War** in Africa.
Aug. 5. **Supreme Court of Judicature Act** unites the existing courts into one supreme court, to the appellate division of which is transferred the appellate jurisdiction of the judicial committee of the privy council, and of the House of Lords; but on August 11, 1876, the act is repealed so far as it concerns the Lords.
1874. *Jan. 20.* Protectorate over the Federated Malay States begins with a treaty with Perak.
Feb. 21. **Disraeli's second** (Conservative) **ministry** begins, Gladstone having been defeated in a general election. Sir Stafford Northcote is chancellor of the exchequer, and Salisbury is secretary for India. For the first time since 1841 the Conservatives have a clear majority in Commons. On March 5 the Twenty-first Parliament of the United Kingdom assembles; two of the members are Laborites. [Great Britain.]
Oct. 10. Fiji Islands are ceded by the natives to
1875. *November.* Disraeli **purchases** for Great Britain the khedive's shares in the **Suez Canal;** beginning of the foothold in **Egypt** (see EGYPT).
1875–1876. Prince of Wales (later Edward VII.) visits India.
1876. Protectorate over Baluchistan (see INDIA).
April 28. Under the Royal Titles Act of April 27 **Victoria** takes the title of **Empress of India.**
1877. Laccadive Islands are sequestered.
Home Rule Federation of Great Britain is organized with C. S. **Parnell** as president. Movement, organized in 1871 by Isaac Butt, sets off a separate legislature for Ireland, against the Fenian policy of independence. [(see SOUTH AFRICA).]
April 12. Transvaal declared British territory
1878. *May 27.* **Factory Act** codifies and extends the legislation on the subject.
June 4. Convention with Turkey by which Cyprus is placed under British administration. The island is annexed on November 5, 1914.
1878–1881. Second Afghan War (see AFGHANISTAN and INDIA).
1879. Zulu War (see SOUTH AFRICA).
Antirent agitations in Ireland are followed by the organization of the **Irish Land League,** with Parnell and T. P. Dillon as leaders.
1880. *April 18.* Disraeli (now Lord Beaconsfield) being defeated at a general election, resigns; **Gladstone** forms his **second** (Liberal) **ministry** including in it the Marquis of Hartington, John Bright, W. E. Forster, and Joseph Chamberlain. On April 29 the Twenty-second Parliament of the United Kingdom first meets.
Sept. 7. **Employers' Liability Act** extends and regulates the liability of employers to make compensation for personal injuries suffered by workmen in their service.
December. Revolt of the Transvaal; ended by treaty of peace on March 21, 1881. August 3, 1881, self-government is guaranteed to Transvaal under British suzerainty (see SOUTH AFRICA).
1881. *April 4.* Population of United Kingdom, 35,241,482.
Aug. 22. **Irish Land Act** provides for a court to adjust differences and grants a modified form of free sale, fixed tenure, and fair rents (" three F's "); but the Liberals also enact a new set of coercive acts against the chronic disturbances in Ireland, and the Irish leaders denounce the new land law and " **boycott** " it. Parnell and others, though denying connection with violence, are imprisoned in October; the League issues a proclamation against the payment of rents and is suppressed.
Nov. 1. British North Borneo Company is chartered; on May 12, 1888, a formal protectorate over the region is established.
1882. *May.* Parnell and others, on an agreement with the Liberals, are released; but on May 6 Lord Frederick **Cavendish,** chief secretary for Ireland, and his undersecretary are **assassinated** in Phœnix Park, Dublin. Parliament passes the Prevention of Crimes Act on July 12, and the Arrears for Rent Act on August 18. In October an **Irish National League** takes the place of the suppressed Land League.
July 11–12. British **bombard Alexandria;** following the defeat of the Egyptians, the dual control of France and England is ended and British sole protection (financial agency, Sir Evelyn Baring) results (see EGYPT).
1883. *Aug. 25.* **Corrupt Practices** Prevention Act enumerates the corrupt practices in parliamentary elections and limits expenditures.
1883–1884. Dynamite outrages by Irish revolutionists (**Clan-na-Gael**) are frequent in London and elsewhere.
1884. *Nov. 6.* British New Guinea (Papua) protectorate is proclaimed; annexation comes on September 4, 1888.
Dec. 6. **Third Reform Act** adds about 2,000,000 voters, mostly agricultural laborers, and approximates to manhood suffrage. It passes the Lords only after a bill to redistribute seats is framed (enacted June 25, 1885) which does away with all small-borough representation.
1884–1885. For **Gordon** and **Sudan** affairs, see EGYPT.
1884–1886. By ten treaties with native tribes British protectorate over Somaliland begins.
1885. *January.* Dynamite explosions by Irish revolutionists culminate in attempt to destroy Houses of Parliament, Tower, and Westminster Hall.
Jan. 27. Order in council for British jurisdiction over Bechuanaland; incorporated in Cape Colony on October 3, 1895.
Feb. 26. General act of Congo Conference signed (see BELGIUM). [GHANISTAN).]
March. Russian advance on Herat (see AF-
June 12. **Gladstone resigns,** as his ministry has become unpopular because of foreign and Irish policies. First (Conservative) **ministry** of Marquis of **Salisbury** begins on June 23.
Aug. 14. Ashbourne **Land Purchase Act** forms a fund from which Irish tenants may borrow to buy their holdings; a Conservative remedy backed by Parnell. Later acts continue policy.
December. General elections return 335 Liberals and the same number jointly of Conservatives and Nationalists to Parliament.
Dec. 11. Johore comes within British sphere of influence by treaty.
Third Burmese War; rest of country is annexed on January 1, 1886.
1885–1888. Canadian fisheries controversy (see UNITED STATES).
1886. *Jan. 12.* Twenty-third Parliament of the United Kingdom meets. January 28 Salisbury resigns. **Gladstone** forms his **third** (Liberal) **ministry** with W. Vernon Harcourt, Lord Rosebery, John Morley (secretary for Ireland), and Joseph Chamberlain in the cabinet. On April 8 Gladstone announces his **Home Rule Bill**—an Irish legislature in two divisions, differently chosen, with limited powers, and Irish members excluded from British Parliament, which retains much of the control over Irish affairs. Parnell supports the measure, but the **Liberal Unionists** under Hartington and Joseph Chamberlain secede. On June 7 the bill is defeated and Gladstone appeals to the people. The elections return a Conservative majority, so Gladstone resigns on July 20 and **Salisbury's second ministry** succeeds, with Lord Iddesleigh (Northcote) as foreign secretary, Randolph Churchill as chancellor of the exchequer and leader of the Commons at first;

1886 (*continued*).
later, Goschen and Balfour enter the cabinet. New parliament (twenty-fourth of United Kingdom) meets on August 5.

April 23. Protectorate established over Sokotra.

1887. Construction of **Manchester Ship Canal** begins; opened May 21, 1894.

May. Sultan of Zanzibar makes a commercial concession to what becomes the Imperial British East Africa Company; beginning of East African protectorate. Zanzibar itself, another portion of **British East Africa,** becomes a protectorate by treaty, June 14, 1890; Uganda, recognized on July 1, 1890, by Germany as within British sphere of influence, becomes a protectorate on Aug. 27, 1894.

May 14. Zululand is declared a British possession; incorporated in Natal on December 30, 1897.

June. **Victoria's golden jubilee** (see JUBILEE, *n.* **3,** in the *Dictionary*); a great imperialistic demonstration.

July 19. Irish Crimes Act becomes law. During its consideration a series of articles in the London *Times* accuses Parnell of complicity in Irish violence. Letters on which charges are based are proved to be forgeries by Richard Piggott.

1888. *June.* Christmas' Island, in Indian Ocean, annexed.

Aug. 13. Local Government Act for England and Wales transfers county administration from justices of the peace to elected county councilors; London included.

Dec. 24. Affirmation instead of oath legalized for Commons and law courts; the result of persistent efforts of Charles Bradlaugh, an atheist, long kept out of Parliament for this reason.

1889. *June 14.* Samoan Treaty (see UNITED STATES). [Scotland.]

Aug. 29. Elected county councils enacted for

Oct. 29. Royal charter is granted to British South Africa Company, marking the beginning of Rhodesia (see SOUTH AFRICA). The region is placed within British sphere of influence by treaties with Germany (July 1, 1890), Portugal (June 11, 1891), and Congo (May 12, 1894).

1890. Great labor strikes throughout England.

Feb. 13. Special commission on Parnell exonerates him on charge of personal complicity in outrages, but considers him guilty of agitation which encouraged such actions. Parnell also receives damages from the *Times*.

July 1. **Treaty with Germany** delimits respective spheres of influence of the two nations in **Africa:** Great Britain, in exchange for concessions there, cedes Heligoland (Helgoland) to Germany.

Aug. 5. A similar treaty with France recognizes the latter's control over Madagascar and in northern Africa.

December. Division of Irish Nationalists due to charges of immorality against **Parnell.** The majority come under the leadership of Justin **McCarthy.**

1891. *March 24.* Protocol with Italy fixes respective spheres of influence in Africa.

April 5. Population of United Kingdom, 38,104,975.

May 14. Nyasaland (British East Africa) protectorate is constituted.

June 11. Treaty with Portugal ends controversy over African lands and delimits respective spheres of influence.

Aug. 5. Education Act continues and expands policy of the act of 1870.

Oct. 6. **Parnell dies** and **John Redmond** succeeds as leader of the minority branch of the Nationalists.

1892. *Jan. 14.* Albert Victor, heir apparent, dies. His brother George becomes heir apparent.

May 27. Protectorate over Gilbert and Ellice Islands announced; annexed Nov. 10, 1915.

June 27. Small Holdings Act authorizes county councils to acquire land by lease or purchase for letting or sale in small holdings to those who will cultivate it, and to advance purchase money to such persons. Proves a success.

Aug. 4. Twenty-fifth Parliament of United Kingdom meets; it has four Laborite members. The ministry is defeated and resigns. **Gladstone** forms his **fourth ministry** (Liberal) with Vernon Harcourt, Rosebery, Morley, James Bryce, and H. Campbell-Bannerman in the cabinet.

November. **Great strike** of cotton spinners at Lancaster. [United States.]

1892–1893. Bering Sea seal fishery dispute (see

1893. Solomon Islands annexed in part; final British protectorate November 14, 1899, under agreement with Germany.

Feb. 13. New **Home Rule Bill** is introduced by **Gladstone;** similar to earlier one except that it permits Irish representation in British Parliament. Passes Commons on September 1, but is overwhelmingly rejected by Lords on September 8. Gladstone threatens the House of Lords with loss of its right to veto legislation. Irish question now subsides, due to economic improvement.

1894. *March 1.* Anglo-Chinese treaty on Burmese-Tibetan limits (see CHINA).

March 3. Gladstone resigns because of old age and differences in the ministry; **Rosebery** becomes **prime minister.**

March 5. New Local Government Act establishes elected district and parish councils in England and Wales, instead of appointed ones.

May 5. Treaty with Italy on spheres of influence in Somaliland.

July 31. Vernon Harcourt's budget introduces the policy of graduated taxation on estates.

1895. *June 22.* Rosebery resigns when defeated on a minor matter; **Salisbury** on June 25 begins his **third ministry** (Conservative), taking the foreign portfolio himself. Balfour, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Chamberlain (colonial affairs), Goschen, Devonshire (Hartington), and Lansdowne are in the cabinet. Parliament is dissolved on July 8, and the new government wins in the ensuing elections.

Aug. 12. Twenty-sixth Parliament of United Kingdom meets. [South Africa).]

Dec. 29. **Jameson Raid** on Transvaal (see

1895–1896. Venezuela-Guiana boundary (see UNITED STATES).

1896. *Jan. 15.* Convention with France regarding sphere of influence in Siam and independence of that nation, also regarding privileges in southern China.

Aug. 27. Protectorate over Ashanti, after another war. On September 26, 1901, country annexed with same governor as Gold Coast. Northern Territories are under the same government.

1896–1898. Kitchener's **Sudan Expedition** (see EGYPT).

1897. *Jan. 11.* As outcome of the Venezuelan boundary controversy a general arbitration treaty is signed with the United States, but the Senate of that country rejects it.

May 14. Treaty with Abyssinia on boundary of Somali protectorate; portion of it is ceded to Abyssinia.

June 22. Celebration of the sixtieth anniversary of **Victoria's** accession (**diamond jubilee**); a demonstration in favor of a wide empire. **Colonial** premiers hold **conference** with Secretary Chamberlain.

Aug. 6. **Workmen's Compensation Act** further regulates employers' liability, but permits outside agreements on the subject.

1898. *June 13.* Canada grants the United Kingdom and some colonies a preferential tariff.

July 1. In the general scramble for Chinese territory England secures the lease of Weihaiwei; also (June 9) additional portion of Kowloon, opposite Hongkong.

Aug. 12. Local Government Act for Ireland extends to it the laws for county and district (not parish) councils.

September–November. **Fashoda incident of African rivalry with France** (see EGYPT).

Dec. 25. **Penny postage** goes into operation throughout most of the empire.

1899. Reunion of the divisions of Nationalists under leadership of John **Redmond.**

May 18. First Hague Peace Conference assembles (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

July 13. London Government Act; the metropolis (outside the " city ") is divided into separate boroughs having the power hitherto exercised by the county council.

Aug. 9. National **Education Act** establishes a central board with power, among other things, to inspect secondary schools. [Africa).]

1899–1902. South African War (see South

1900. Boxer Rising (see CHINA).

May 18. Tonga (Friendly) Islands are put under British protection.

July 9. Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act (see AUSTRALIA).

Oct. 31. Union of the Free Church of Scotland with the United Presbyterian, forming the **United Free Church.** A small number of the Free Church ministers and congregations refuse to unite and claim all the Free Church property. House of Lords on August 1, 1904, upholds the contention, but on August 11, 1905, a committee is appointed to apportion the property.

Dec. 3. Twenty-seventh Parliament of United Kingdom meets; Conservative ministry is upheld by a large majority.

1901. *Jan. 22.* **Victoria dies;** her son succeeds as **Edward VII.** He at once begins a policy of understandings with France and Russia, instead of " splendid isolation." [41,976,827.]

April 1. Population of United Kingdom,

July 22. In the Taff Vale Case the House of Lords decides that **labor unions may be sued** as corporations. Trade-Unions Congress meets in September to devise means to combat decision.

Aug. 17. Royal Titles Act is passed, under which king adds to his official designation (king) " of all the British dominions beyond the seas."

Sept. 18–21. Millenary of Alfred the Great.

Nov. 18. **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** on Panama Canal (see UNITED STATES).

1901–1904. An intermittent and indeterminate war conducted by British, African, Boer, Abyssinian, and Indian troops on a mullah in Somaliland.

1902. *Jan. 30.* **Treaty with Japan** for defensive alliance in preserving integrity of China and Korea; if either is attacked by more than one nation, the other will afford active help. Considered an offset to the Franco-Russian alliance.

March 5. Great Britain joins in a general convention to abolish bounties on sugar; later she prohibits the importation of bounty-fed sugar.

March 26. Death of **Cecil Rhodes.** Will provides for **scholarships** at Oxford for colonial, American, and German students (Rhodes scholars).

May 15. Abyssinian treaty on Sudan boundary and railway signed.

June 30–Aug. 11. Council of colonial premiers, who discuss metric system, imperial defense, and preferential tariff.

July 11. Salisbury resigns; **Balfour** becomes **prime minister** (Conservative).

Oct. 31. Completion of the all-British (" all-red ") cable around the world.

December. Controversy over coercion of Venezuela (see VENEZUELA).

Dec. 18. Education Act for England and Wales abolishes the special school boards, giving their power to county and borough councils; church schools are placed on an even basis with the board schools as regards public support. Act so increases power of Anglican clergy over education that Nonconformists adopt a policy of passive resistance, refuse to send children to school or pay rates.

1903. Coolie question in Transvaal (see South Africa). [States).]

Jan. 24. Alaskan boundary treaty (see UNITED

May 15. **Chamberlain** launches his campaign for **preferential colonial tariff** in order to further imperial unification. Balfour leans toward a policy of retaliatory duties in dealing with foreign countries. Chamberlain's resignation is announced on September 18, as are also those of various free-trade members of the ministry.

July. Edward VII. and the queen visit Ireland and are warmly welcomed. Irish problem has, however, become acute again. There have been troubles over rent, pro-Boer demonstrations, and obstructions and disturbances in Parliament.

July 30. Agreement between the government and Cunard Line inaugurates a new policy for auxiliary cruisers, hitherto provided through subsidies in time of peace. Money advanced for building certain class of vessels and annual subsidy for loss in running them. The company agrees to sell or hire its fleet to the government in time of war, and also to have a portion of its officers and crew naval reserve men. Mail subsidy is continued by a fixed annual amount.

Aug. 14. Irish Land Purchase Act continues the Conservative policy of the act of 1885.

Aug. 25. Report of the commission on conduct of **South African War** strongly condemns the military system. Another (Esher) commission is appointed to plan a reorganization.

Oct. 14. General arbitration treaty with France is signed; first step in the *rapprochement,* for which the king is largely responsible.

1904. *Feb. 1.* Esher Commission makes its first report on **army reform;** plan adopted in the main: — a defense committee headed by the premier; an army council, including some civilians, in place of the commander in chief; and a general staff.

April 8. **Agreement with France** is signed (" *entente cordiale* ") by which French rights in Morocco and British in Egypt are recognized; and notes are exchanged on Madagascar, Siam, and New Hebrides. On same day by convention France gives up some of her fishing rights on the coast of British America and in return Great Britain makes concessions in West Africa (see NEWFOUNDLAND).

Sept. 7. Anglo-Tibetan Treaty (see INDIA).

Oct. 22. Firing by Russian men-of-war, *en route* to the Orient during Japanese war, on English trawlers on North Sea; satisfaction is given by Russia after a commission investigates.

1905. *Aug. 12.* **New Anglo-Japanese Treaty** of alliance for ten years, provides for mutual assistance if attacked in the Orient, to defend peace in India, and preserve integrity of China. England recognizes Japan's right in Korea and agrees to assist her in Russian war if any nation assists Russia.

Dec. 4. Balfour ministry, after holding out against several incidental adverse votes, resigns in order to put affairs to the test of a general election. **Campbell-Bannerman** forms a Liberal **ministry** with Asquith, Edward Grey, Lloyd George, Morley, Bryce, Burns (Laborite), and Birrell in the cabinet.

1906. *Jan. 8.* Parliament is dissolved; elections result in a great Liberal victory. New parliament (twenty-eighth of United Kingdom) meets on February 13; Labor party has 41 members.

Feb. 27. Joint Anglo-French protectorate over New Hebrides is established by a protocol; confirmed, October 20, by a treaty.

May 8. Advocates of woman suffrage (**suffra-**

1906 (*continued*).
gettes) begin their campaign of keeping the matter before the public attention through militant agitations and sabotage, and by a demonstration before the house of the premier, following it up on June 15 by mobbing Asquith.

July 30. **Education Bill,** designed to separate state-aided schools from denominational control, passes Commons. In the Lords it is so amended as to defeat its intention.

Nov. 2. London elections against advocates of **municipal ownership** of public utilities.

Dec. 21. Trades Dispute Act reverses the Taff Vale decision, allows peaceful picketing, and prohibits suits for torts against trade-unions. At the same time a new Workmen's Compensation Act continues the right of "contracting out."

1907. *Feb. 13.* **"Suffragettes"** riot and attempt to force an entrance to the House of Commons; sixty are arrested.

May 21. Convention of the Nationalist (Irish) party in Dublin refuses to support the Liberal party's bill for an Irish council, which provides for an elective body, though the lord lieutenant retains the veto. Bill is withdrawn.

June 15. Second Hague Peace Conference begins (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

Aug. 28. Bill allowing marriage with a deceased wife's sister finally becomes law. Long a matter of dispute between the Houses because of objections by the bishops. Amendment of the Small Holdings Act authorizes a commission to investigate and draft schemes for such holdings; county council may acquire necessary land compulsorily.

Aug. 31. **Anglo-Russian Convention** on Asiatic spheres; a *rapprochement* similar to that of the French treaty of 1904. Spheres in Persia delimited; Russia declares Afghanistan outside her sphere; both nations agree to keep out of Tibet.

Nov. 2. Treaty with France, Germany, Russia, and Norway to preserve the independence and territorial integrity of Norway.

1908. *Feb. 26.* Commons adopt a resolution urging speedy transfer of Congo from Leopold's personal rule to Belgium (see BELGIUM).

April 4. General Arbitration Treaty with United States; later renewed.

April 5. Campbell-Bannerman resigns; Herbert H. **Asquith** becomes **prime minister** on April 8. Winston Churchill enters the cabinet, and Lloyd George becomes chancellor of the exchequer. His revolutionary budgets are considered an attack on property.

April 23. Declaration of Great Britain, Denmark, France, Germany, Netherlands, and Sweden to maintain the *status quo* in territories bordering on the North Sea.

June 13, 21. Remarkable demonstrations of **"suffragettes"** in London.

Aug. 1. **Old Age Pension Act** is passed. Irish Universities Act permits founding of two universities (Dublin and Belfast) and dissolution of Royal University at Dublin and Queen's College at Belfast. Religious tests and privileges forbidden. National University at Dublin with constituent colleges at Cork and Galway, and Queen's University are founded under the act. [effect.]

Oct. 1. Penny postage with United States in[

Dec. 4. London International Conference on rules of naval warfare opens (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1909. **Suffragette** manifestations continue through this and following years; many arrests are made. In the debates on naval defense in Parliament both parties agree to maintain the "two-power" standard.

Jan. 27. Fisheries Convention with United States (see UNITED STATES.)

March 10. Through a treaty with Siam four other (nonfederated) Malay States (Johore being the fifth) are brought under British suzerainty.

March 23. Report is received from Lt. **Shackleton** that his expedition on January 9 reached within 111 miles (97 geographical miles) of the South Pole. [AFRICA).]

Sept. 20. Union of South Africa Act (see SOUTH[Labor Exchange Act is a remedy for unemployment, to bring the "man and the job" together.

Nov. 4. House of Commons passes a budget which includes a **reform of land taxes.** November 30, Lords, including great landowners, reject it by 350 to 75; an exercise of its veto which has long been in abeyance. December 2, Commons indorse the budget, and on December 3 Parliament is prorogued amid national excitement, and dissolved on January 8, 1910.

1909–1910. "Mad Mullah" in Somaliland renews his raids and British retire from administration of interior, confining control to coast towns.

1910. *Feb. 1.* Parliamentary elections result in seating 274 Liberals, 273 Unionists, 82 Nationalists, and 41 Laborites; a government majority of 124 if aided by the last two.

Feb. 15. Twenty-ninth Parliament of the United Kingdom opens. Opposition to land taxation by the House of Lords causes a long debate in Commons, followed by the adoption of a resolution on April 14 that the Lords be disabled from vetoing a money measure, and any other measure passed by the Commons in three successive sessions. A series of conferences held by leaders of the two main parties leads to no results.

May 6. **Edward VII. dies;** his son succeeds as **George V.**

Aug. 3. Accession Declaration Act modifies the king's oath by omitting certain matters offensive to Catholics.

Nov. 28. Parliament is dissolved, and the government appeals again to the people on question of status of the Lords. Result leaves the representation practically unchanged.

1911. *Jan. 31.* Thirtieth Parliament of United Kingdom begins its sessions. It continues during the World War, its dissolution being postponed.

April 2. Population of United Kingdom, 45,516, 259.

May. Announcement is made that hereafter the **Dominions** would be **consulted** as far as possible in **international affairs** which involve their interests. [DIA).]

May 8. Opium agreement with China (see IN-[

May 15. House of Commons passes, by 362 to 241, the Parliament Bill on the Lords' veto, thus practically repealing the equal legislative power of the Lords enjoyed for centuries.

June 22. **Coronation** of **George V.**

July 7. King and queen visit Ireland.

Pelagic sealing treaty signed (see UNITED STATES).

Aug. 10. House of Lords accepts the **Parliament Bill.** It becomes a **law** on August 18. By it the **life** of a **parliament** is limited to **five years.** On August 10, also, House of **Commons** votes to **pay** the unsalaried **members** £400 ($2000) a year apiece.

Aug. 17–20. General **railway strike** begins, involving 100,000 men.

Nov. 8. Balfour retires and **Bonar Law** succeeds as leader of Unionist party.

Nov. 11. King George and the queen sail for India (see INDIA).

Dec. 16. National Insurance Act becomes law; in force on July 15, 1912. It includes provision for unemployment insurance. Objection comes mainly from domestic servants, who desire to be excluded, and physicians, who object to inadequate remuneration.

1912. *Jan. 1.* Government takes over the business of the National Telephone Company (paying $61,000,000), thus completing its control throughout the United Kingdom.

Jan. 5. Sir Edward **Carson** organizes Ulster, which has a Protestant majority, against Irish Home Rule.

Jan. 18. Capt. R. F. **Scott reaches** the **South Pole** (discovered earlier by **Amundsen,** December 16, 1911). Scott and his party perish on the return, March 29.

Feb. 26. **Coal strike** begins; it affects 1,000,000 miners and 500,000 from allied industries. Many industries and transportations are greatly affected. Government intervenes to cause a settlement, and as the minimum wage is chief question, on March 29 a **Minimum Wage Act** for coal miners becomes law. Strike ends on April 9.

March. **"Suffragettes"** enter upon an intense window-smashing manifestation in London. Stores are assaulted, and British Museum, Royal Academy, and other likely objectives are closed. Many "suffragettes" are arrested and their headquarters are raided (March 5).

April 11. **Home Rule Bill** for Ireland introduced: a bicameral parliament of domestic powers, with Ulster safeguarded against religious discriminations; executive to remain vested in the representative of the crown; Ireland to have a small representation in the British Parliament; constitutionality of Irish legislation to be decided by the judiciary committee of the privy council; Great Britain to pay an annual subsidy to the Irish exchequer. [STATES).]

April 15. Sinking of the *Titanic* (see UNITED[

May 20. **London dock laborers strike,** and on May 25 all of the London transport workers are called out. The strike lasts till July 27, intimidation and rioting being of daily occurrence.

May 29. At a conference at Malta, it is announced that the British naval base in the Mediterranean will be shifted from Malta to Gibraltar. That this change is due to the **Triple Entente** (between Great Britain, France, and Russia) is confirmed in September, when it is announced that France will concentrate her naval strength in the Mediterranean.

June 20. Law lords of House of Lords hold it illegal to refuse Communion for reason of marriage to deceased wife's sister. This and the refusal to perform such marriages have been weapons employed by the clergy against the measure.

July 1. **New Copyright Act** (passed December 16, 1911) goes into effect. It extends duration of copyright to 50 years after death of author, but requires original publication within the empire, including the self-governing dominions which accept it; may be extended to foreign works under equitable arrangement. [Home Rule.]

Sept. 28. Ulster signs solemn covenant against[

Nov. 30. Riot in Commons over an attempt to rescind an amendment carried by the opposition.

Dec. 9. Great Britain protests act passed by United States Congress (August 24) giving its coastwise commerce freedom from **Panama Canal tolls,** as contrary to Hay-Pauncefote Treaty; that portion of the act is later (June 15, 1914) repealed, though the right is reserved.

Dec. 10–14. **Strike** of 10,000 railway employees in north of England, as a protest against the disciplining of an engineer.

1913. *Jan. 16.* **Home Rule** for Ireland Bill passes Commons by 387 to 257; **rejected** on January 30 by **Lords** by vote of 328 to 69.

Jan. 27. Speaker of Commons intimates that he would rule out a woman-suffrage amendment to the Franchise Bill; government at once withdraws the whole bill and the **militant suffragists** resort to violent tactics — incendiarism, bomb outrages, destruction of mail, burning of railway carriages, spoiling of golf links, etc. Convicted suffragists go on hunger strike, and the government passes on April 25 the "Cat-and-Mouse" Act for the reincarceration of suspended prisoners after recovery from self-imposed starvation.

Feb. 5. **Welsh Church Disestablishment Bill** passes Commons; **Lords reject** it Feb. 13.

April 3. Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst, "suffragette" leader, sentenced to three years' penal servitude for inciting to destruction of property.

May 7. Home Rule and Welsh Disestablishment bills again introduced in Commons, and passed on July 7 and 8; rejected again by Lords on July 15 and 22. Employment of nonunionists causes strike of 50,000 miners in South Wales; settled, May 15. [renewed.]

June 11. Treaty of **alliance with Japan** is[

July 12. Demonstration of 150,000 **Ulstermen** under Carson at Craigavad; **resolution to resist by force;** enrollment of **Ulster Volunteer Force** begins, arms smuggled into Ireland, and by end of year 100,000 men are enlisted. December 5, government puts an embargo on importation of arms.

Aug. 26. Irish transport workers go on strike in Dublin; many pitched battles with police before strike collapses on January 19, 1914.

1914. *March 2.* Earl Roberts and others sign a protest against forcing the Home Rule Bill without a preliminary appeal to the nation, and justifying resistance to it.

March 9. Asquith announces a compromise home rule plan; each of the nine Ulster counties allowed to exclude itself for six years. Rejected by Unionists and Ulsterites. [202,450,000.]

March 31. Net debt of United Kingdom, $3,-[

April 2. Yorkshire coal strike for minimum wage affects 170,000 workers.

May 12. Asquith pledges the government to introduce an amendment to the Home Rule Bill, if that measure becomes law.

May 19. **Welsh Church Disestablishment Bill** passes Commons, and becomes **law** on September 18 when signed by the king. Its preamble reads: "be it enacted . . . with the advice and consent of the Commons . . . in accordance with the . . . Parliament Act, 1911." It is the first law enacted without the approval of the Lords.

May 25. **Home Rule Bill** passes the Commons for the third time, and receives royal assent on September 18.

July 21. Informal conference called by the king in an attempt to reach a solution of the Home Rule question; fails.

July 25. Celebration of **peace centennial** with United States begins by the presentation to the American Ambassador of the keys of Sulgrave Manor, ancestral home of the Washington family.

July 26. Troops and police at Dublin try to seize a consignment of rifles landed by Nationalist Volunteers; blood is shed.

July 30. London **Stock Exchange closes;** remains closed for more than five months.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 4.* **War declared on Germany.** (For events leading up to British participation in World War, and events of the war, see WORLD WAR.) By mutual consent, domestic controversies — Irish, suffrage, labor — are suspended; but labor unrest soon recurs, due to increase in cost of living and conflict between government necessity and principles of organized labor.

Aug. 5. Prince of Wales National Relief Fund started; some $5,000,000 subscribed the first week.

Treasury notes for £1 10*s.* (about $7.25) are issued, thus furnishing a paper currency; previously the £5 ($25) note was the smallest issued in England; and postal orders become legal tender. **Moratorium** is declared; lasts until Nov. 4.

Sir John Jellicoe, commander in chief of the home fleet, takes supreme command in North Sea.

1914 (*continued*).

Aug. 6. Lord Kitchener becomes Secretary of State for War.

Aug. 7. House of Commons votes first **war credit** of $500,000,000 and increases the army by 500,000 and the navy by 67,000.

Aug. 12. Government accepts offer of men and warships from the self-governing dominions.

Great Britain declares **war on Austria-Hungary.** [reaches France.]

Aug. 16. First contingent of British troops

Aug. 28. Act giving the Treasury general authority to raise money by loans in such ways as seem best to it.

Aug. 31. Act permitting the licensing justices to restrict sale and consumption of liquor in any area during the war.

Sept. 5. Great Britain, France, and Russia agree **not to make peace separately;** later Japan and Italy sign the agreement.

Sept. 15. Redmond calls upon the Irish to take their part of the war burdens and sacrifices.

Sept. 18. Royal assent given to **Home Rule** and **Welsh Disestablishment** bills, but both **suspended during the war.** Parliament prorogued.

Oct. 30. Prince Louis of Battenberg, a German by birth, resigns as First Sea Lord, and is succeeded by Lord Fisher.

Nov. 2. North Sea is declared a "military area," on account of numerous German mines having been laid

Nov. 5. **War is declared on Turkey** "owing to hostile acts committed by Turkish forces under German officers." Cyprus is formally annexed.

Nov. 11. Parliament meets.

Nov. 20. House of Commons votes second war credit of $1,125,000,000 (total war credits $1,625,000,000) and authorizes the enlistment of 1,000,000 more men. **War costs** Great Britain $5,000,000 a day.

Nov. 27. **Defense of the Realm Act** ("Dora;" from the initial letters) permits, among other things, the taking over by the government of any factory making war material.

Finance Act raises the duty on tea to 8*d.* (16 cents) per pound, doubles the income tax, and increases the tax on beer.

Dec. 18. Turkish suzerainty over **Egypt** is declared terminated; Egypt made a British **protectorate.** [formally recognized.]

Dec. 19. French protectorate over Morocco is

Dec. 26. Protest of the United States on violation of neutral rights (see UNITED STATES)

1915. For WORLD WAR, see that title.

Jan. 5. London Stock Exchange reopens.

Jan. 10. Preliminary reply to United States (see UNITED STATES).

Feb. 16. House of Commons adopts navy estimates for 250,000 men.

Feb. 18. House of Commons adopts army estimates for 3,000,000 men, and the annual act of March 16 calls for this number.

March 1. Warning is given of intention to detain all ships carrying goods of presumed enemy destination or origin. United States protests on March 5 (see UNITED STATES); nevertheless, an order in council is issued on March 15 putting the policy into effect.

March 3. House of Commons votes third war credit of $1,435,000,000 (total war credits $3,060,000,000).

March 16. **Defense of the Realm Act** of 1914 is amended to permit taking over any factory plant, or the regulation or restriction of any factory, the removal of the plant, and the seizure of unoccupied premises in order to house workmen.

March 19. Arrangements for the settlement of labor disputes without stoppage of work are made at a conference between representatives of the government and thirty-five labor organizations.

March 31. **Net debt** of United Kingdom, $5,241,514,000.

April 6. The king puts a stop to the use of alcoholic liquors in all his houses; an example for the nation, for the unsatisfactory output of war munitions is partly attributed to drink.

April 18. Churches observe "King's Pledge Sunday"; pledge to abstain from intoxicants during the war.

April 20. Arrangements are made by which skilled workmen at the front may be recalled to work in munition factories as needed.

May 4. Budget of Chancellor of the Exchequer Lloyd George announces **cost of war** to April 1st, 1915, as $1,800,000,000, including $261,850,000 advance to allies and dominions; estimated total expenditures for fiscal year 1915–1916 is $5,663,270,000. War is costing Great Britain $10,000,000 a day.

May 12. Viscount Bryce's committee on German atrocities reports, accusing Germany of shocking violations of rules of civilized warfare.

May 19. Amendment to Defense of the Realm Act authorizes state control over liquor trade in areas prescribed by privy council.

May 25. **Coalition cabinet** is announced, headed by **Asquith** and containing 12 Liberals, 8 Unionists, 1 Laborite, and 1 nonpartisan, including Lansdowne, Curzon, McKenna, Lloyd George, Grey, Kitchener, Bonar Law, Austen Chamberlain, Balfour, Birrell, Arthur Henderson (Labor), Walter Long, Churchill, and Carson.

June 9. Ministry of Munitions of War is created by Parliament; Lloyd George fills the post.

June 16. Fourth war credit of $1,250,000,000 is voted (total war credits $4,310,000,000). **War is costing** Great Britain $14,000,000 a day.

June 21. Chancellor of the Exchequer McKenna introduces plan for financing the war by issuing 4½% bonds, partly in small denominations to be sold through the post office.

July 2. **Munitions of War Act** forbids strikes and lockouts and requires arbitration; labor restrictions on output are suspended and employers' profits limited in "controlled establishments."

July 13. Subscription to the war loan is about $3,000,000,000; 1,097,000 persons participating.

July 14. Protest of the United States against treatment of neutral trade (see UNITED STATES).

July 15. Coal strike in South Wales involves 200,000 men in spite of prohibition of Munitions Act; endangers supply of the fleet and manufacture of war munitions. Strike is settled five days later, government representatives acting as arbiters.

July 21. Fifth war credit of $750,000,000 is voted (total war credits, $5,060,000,000).

July 24. Reply to protest of United States (see UNITED STATES).

July 29. Act limits price of coal during the war. Finance Act does not change the income or other taxes, except to increase that on spirits.

Aug. 15. **National registration day** (provided for by act of July 15) throughout the United Kingdom. Every person (male and female) between the ages of 15 and 65 furnishes data to enable the government to gauge labor resources and the number of men available for military service.

Sept. 7. Trade-Union Congress protests against compulsory military service.

Sept. 16. Sixth war credit of $1,250,000,000 voted (total war credits, $6,310,000,000).

Oct. 12. There are 979 controlled establishments under the Munitions of War Act.

Oct. 13. Act authorizes joint Anglo-French loan in United States.

Oct. 18. Carson resigns from the cabinet owing to disagreement on Balkan affairs.

Oct. 21. Renewed protest of the United States in regard to the conduct of the blockade and the seizure of American ships (see UNITED STATES).

Nov. 2. Asquith announces that a **War Committee** which has been in existence in the cabinet for some time will be stabilized and limited in number and have control over the "strategic conduct of the war." November 11, he announces it as of five members — the Prime Minister, First Lord of the Admiralty (Balfour), Minister of Munitions (Lloyd George), Colonial Secretary (Bonar Law), and Chancellor of the Exchequer (McKenna). Later (July 9, 1916) Curzon is added

Nov. 11. Earl of Derby, director-general of **recruiting,** announces that **compulsory measures** will be adopted if sufficient numbers of unmarried men do not enlist before November 30

Nov. 12. Churchill resigns from ministry, having earlier (May) given up admiralty portfolio.

Nov. 15. Seventh war credit of $2,000,000,000 is voted (total war credits, $8,310,000,000).

Dec. 16. **Sir Douglas Haig** succeeds Sir John French in command of British troops in France and Flanders.

Dec. 23. **Finance Act** raises duty on tea, cocoa, coffee and substitutes, sugar, dried fruit, tobacco, gasoline, and medicine; imposes a custom duty on motor cars and parts, musical instruments, clocks, watches, and motion-picture films; increases the highest normal income tax and reduces the exemptions; increases the supertax, and lays a 50% tax on **excess war profits.**

Act is passed restricting during the war increases of rent or mortgage interest on small dwellings.

1916. For WORLD WAR, see that title.

Jan. 4. Protest of the United States on mail seizures (see UNITED STATES).

Jan. 27. **Compulsory Military Service Act** provides that all unmarried British male subjects ordinarily resident in Great Britain (this excludes Ireland) who were between 18 and 41 on August 15, 1915, shall "be deemed . . . to have been duly enlisted in His Majesty's regular forces for general service with the colors or in the reserve for the period of the war and to have been forthwith transferred to the reserve." Exemptions are given for employment in necessary national interests, physical disability, dependents, and conscientious objection. About 5,100,000 men have voluntarily enlisted.

Parliament is prorogued after a session (with some recesses) of 14 months. It reconvenes on Feb. 15.

Feb. 22. Eighth war credit of $2,100,000,000 is voted (total war credits, $10,410,000,000). **War is costing** Great Britain $22,000,000 a day.

Feb. 23. Lord Robert Cecil (already in the ministry) becomes Minister of Blockades.

March 8. House of Commons votes naval estimate for 350,000 men.

March 30. Doctrine of continuous voyage is applied by orders in council to conditional as well as absolute contraband; it is declared that a voyage to a nonblockaded port shall not in itself gain immunity from capture, for vessel or cargo, for a breach of blockade. [$80,884,000.]

March 31. **Net debt** of United Kingdom, $10,—

April 3. Reply to American protest on mail seizures (see UNITED STATES).

April 4. Chancellor of the Exchequer McKenna's budget statement shows that advances to allies and dominions during the fiscal year 1915–1916 have been $1,580,000,000; total expenditures during the year, $7,795,000,000; estimated total expenditures for 1916–1917, $9,117,500,000.

April 19. Annual Army Act calls for 4,000,000 men.

Finance Act lays a tax on entertainments, watches, table waters, and cider, in addition to previous taxes.

April 22. Attempt to land arms and ammunition in Ireland by a German auxiliary cruiser and a submarine is thwarted; a number of prisoners are made, including the Irish Nationalist leader, Sir Roger **Casement.** He is convicted of high treason on June 29, and executed on August 3.

April 24. **Rebellion** breaks out **in Dublin,** led by members of the **Sinn Fein** society; the post office and other buildings are seized, and fighting continues for a week. Martial law is declared throughout Ireland. May 3, three of the rebel leaders, including Padraic H. Pearse, "provisional president of the Irish Republic," are court-martialed and shot. Sixteen of the rebel leaders are convicted of treason and shot, 1,619 prisoners held, 161 others convicted, and 1,171 released. Because of the revolt, Birrell (secretary for Ireland) resigns from the cabinet on May 3; the lord lieutenant also resigns on May 10.

May. More than 43% of British merchant vessels have been requisitioned by the government for war purposes, and about 14% are employed in behalf of the Allied governments, leaving only 43% for ordinary commerce; consequently the importation of various bulky and dispensable wares is prohibited except under special license.

May 17. Advisory joint service Air Board is announced, with Curzon as president. Summer Time ("**daylight-saving**") Act puts the clock forward one hour from May 21 to October 1; in later years the privy council to decide on dates.

May 24. Ninth war credit of $1,500,000,000 is voted (total war credits, $11,910,000,000).

Second American protest on mail seizures (see UNITED STATES).

May 25. Amendatory Act on Compulsory Military Service extends it to married men and to those becoming 18 since August 14, 1915, but forbids the sending abroad of men under 19.

May 29. Announced that in 44 **air attacks** upon England since the beginning of the war, 409 persons have been killed and 1,005 injured.

May 31. Sir Ernest Shackleton arrives at Falkland Islands after 17 months of Antarctic exploration, during which his ship *Endurance* was lost; 22 of his men are left behind in the Antarctic, but later are rescued.

June 5. **Earl Kitchener** is **lost** when the cruiser *Hampshire* strikes a mine off the Orkney Islands while *en route* to Russia.

June 23. Convention of Ulster Nationalists adopt proposals of exclusion from Home Rule Act.

July 6. Lloyd George becomes Secretary of State for War.

July 7. More than 3,500,000 workers, including 666,000 women, are engaged in war industries; 4,000 controlled firms are producing munitions.

July 18. Order in council blacklists a number of American firms (see UNITED STATES).

July 19. **Finance Act** continues previous taxes; increases tax on cocoa, coffee and substitutes, sugar, and gasoline; imposes a tax on mechanical lighters; increases the normal income tax rate and raises the excess war profits tax to 60%.

July 25. Tenth war credit of $2,250,000,000 (total war credits, $14,160,000,000). **War is costing** Great Britain $25,000,000 a day.

July 26. Protest of the United States on blacklisting (see July 18, above).

July 27. Charles Fryatt, captain of a British merchant steamer, is executed by Germany because of a previous attempt to ram a submarine; execution causes great indignation in Great Britain.

Aug. 8. Act temporarily restricts the output of beer.

Oct. 10. Reply to American protest on blacklisting (see UNITED STATES).

Oct. 12. Reply to American protest on mail seizures (see UNITED STATES).

Eleventh war credit of $1,500,000,000 voted (total war credits, $15,660,000,000).

1916 (*continued*).

Nov. 15. Commons adopt a resolution authorizing the government to take exceptional measures to conserve the nation's food supply.

Nov. 29. Sir John Jellicoe, commander of the Grand Fleet, is succeeded by Sir David Beatty and becomes First Sea Lord.

Dec. 1. Government takes control of the South Wales coal mines.

Dec. 5. Asquith resigns; Bonar Law failing, **Lloyd George** forms a **national ministry** on December 7. It contains a **war cabinet** of five members — the Prime Minister, Curzon (leader of the Lords), Bonar Law (Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader of the Commons), Viscount Milner, and Arthur Henderson (Laborite) without portfolios. Other members of the ministry are Balfour (foreign), Long (colonies), Derby (war), Austen Chamberlain (India), Carson (admiralty), Cecil (blockade), Addison (munitions), Cave (home).

Dec. 15. Twelfth war credit of $2,000,000,000 is voted (total war credits, $17,660,000,000). **The war is costing** Great Britain $28,500,000 a day.

Dec. 18. Reëlection of Ministers Act suspends the requirement, for Lloyd George's new ministry, of resignation and reëlection. This is done also with the new war ministries later created.

Dec. 22. Act authorizes **new ministries** of labor, pensions (separate act), food, shipping control, and air board, most of them to cease within a year after end of the war. Corresponding departments already exist in some cases.
Parliament is prorogued.

Dec. 31. For reply to German peace proposals, see WORLD WAR.

1917. For WORLD WAR, see that title.

Jan. 11. For reply to Wilson's peace note, see WORLD WAR.

Feb. 7. Parliament reconvenes.

Feb. 14. Thirteenth war credit of $2,750,000,000 is voted (total war credits, $20,410,000,000).

Feb. 16. Third war loan brings in about $4,866,000,000, with 8,000,000 subscribers.

Feb. 28. Naval estimate is for 400,000 men.

March 1. **Government** assumes **control** of all **coal mines**; controller of coal mines ministerial officer in charge.

March 7. Irish Nationalists demand immediate application of Home Rule Act.

March 16. Fourteenth war credit of $300,000,000 voted (total war credits, $20,710,000,000).

March 20. First meeting of **Imperial War Cabinet,** attended by representatives of governments of Canada, Newfoundland, South Africa, New Zealand, and India; Australia not represented. Fourteen meetings are held, and on May 17 Lloyd George announces that hereafter such meetings will be held annually or oftener.

March 28. Act for ministry of national service, to control the making of the "best use of all persons . . . in any industry, occupation, or service."

March 31. **Net debt** of United Kingdom, $19,620,836,000. [5,000,000 men.]

April 5. Annual Army Act calls for force of [Review-of-Exemptions Act calls for reëxamination of discharged and rejected men.

April 6. For entry of the United States into the war, see UNITED STATES.

April 27. War cabinet accepts the principle of an **imperial preference tariff** to be established after the war, but specifies that no taxes shall be laid on foodstuffs.

May 2. Chancellor of the Exchequer Bonar Law, in budget statement, says that during the fiscal year $2,970,000,000 have been advanced to allies and the dominions (total advances $24,250,000,000); total expenditures for year have been $10,990,565,000 and estimate of all expenditures for 1917–1918, $11,451,905,000.

May 7. Manifesto issued by 18 Irish prelates affirming "no partition and no coercion."

May 11. Fifteenth war credit of $2,500,000,000 voted (total war credits, $23,210,000,000).

May 16. Lloyd George proposes to put **Home Rule** in operation, but excluding six Ulster counties. Irish Nationalists object and scheme is dropped.

June. Gen. J. C. Smuts of South Africa (not a member of Parliament) sits in the war cabinet, but does not appear on the official list as a member until November.

June 15. Government decides to release all Dublin Rebellion prisoners.

July 12. Austen Chamberlain, secretary for India, and Lord Hardinge (former viceroy), undersecretary for foreign affairs, resign when the report on the Mesopotamian campaign holds them responsible for disaster.

July 16–20. In a reorganization of the ministry, Carson becomes a member of the war cabinet (now of seven members) without portfolio. Sir Eric Geddes becomes First Lord of the Admiralty, and Winston Churchill Minister of Munitions.

July 17. King George changes his family (house) name from "Saxe-Coburg and Gotha" to **"Windsor"**; all **German titles** of the royal family are **dropped,** and the connected Teck and Battenberg families are given English titles.
Report made by a royal commission on increase of labor unrest; finds it due to the high cost of living, restrictions on personal freedom and of occupation, lack of confidence in government promise to restore after the war the antebellum trade-union conditions, government delay in settling disputes, lack of housing, industrial fatigue, and inconsiderate treatment of women laborers.

July 25. Sixteenth war credit of $3,250,000,000 voted (total war credits, $26,460,000,000).
An **Irish convention** of 101 members, representing all shades of opinion and interest (5 seats reserved for Sinn Fein, which refuses to participate) assembles in Dublin under government sanction. Sir Horace Plunkett is president. It sits with closed doors, and later moves to Belfast. Attempts to draw up a constitution for Ireland.

Aug. 2. Finance Act increases tax on entertainments and tobacco and raises that on excess war profits to 80%.

Aug. 11. Henderson resigns from war cabinet and is succeeded by G. N. Barnes as Labor representative. Resignation is forced, the Labor party having decided, with Henderson's approval, to send delegates to the International Labor and Socialist Conference at Stockholm, although the government had refused consent. On September 4 the Trade-Union Congress overwhelmingly vetoes further consideration of the Conference.

Aug. 16. Lloyd George states that the loss of British vessels by submarine or mine has decreased from 560,000 tons in April and 320,000 tons in June to 170,000 tons (estimated) in August. Taking into consideration new tonnage, the average net loss since February has been 250,000 tons monthly.

Aug. 21. **Corn Production Act** fixes a guaranteed price for British-grown wheat and oats for 6 years, with a minimum wage for farm laborers. Ministry of reconstruction is enacted; to end two years after war closes.

Oct. 31. Seventeenth war credit of $2,000,000,000 voted (total war credits, $28,460,000,000).

Nov. 29. **Air Force** Constitution Act makes the air force a third service and substitutes a council (like those for army and navy) in place of the existing board.

Dec. 13. Eighteenth war credit of $2,750,000,000 voted (total war credits, $31,210,000,000).
Navy estimates call for 450,000 men.

Dec. 26. Sir Rosslyn Wemyss succeeds Jellicoe as First Sea Lord.

1918. For WORLD WAR, see that title.

January. **Labor party** conference states its **demands:** (1) universal enforcement of the national minimum (minimum wage) which is put at 30*s.* ($7.25) per week; (2) democratic control of industry, including the immediate nationalization of railways, canals, and great steamship lines; (3) taxation reform, dependence chiefly on graduated income tax and no encroachment on the national minimum; (4) sequestrating death dues to prevent the passing on of great fortunes. Socialistic tendencies in the party cause movement for a separate Trade-Union party.

Jan. 21. Carson resigns from the war cabinet in order to be free to act in Irish matters.

Feb. 6. **Representation of the People Act** (Reform Act) establishes virtual manhood suffrage (residence requirement only), gives **suffrage to women** of 30 years who are occupiers or wives of such, provides for absentee voting, gives suffrage to men of 19 who have been in active service, limits plural voting to two votes, safeguards rights of those in service during registration, disfranchises conscientious objectors for five years after peace, cost of elections to be a public charge and candidates' expenditures more strictly limited, uniform nomination and election days throughout the kingdom. Seats in Great Britain are redistributed and the membership in Commons increased from 607 to 707, including six more university constituencies (15 in all). A separate act provides for redistribution in Ireland. In Great Britain there is one member to 70,000 people; in Ireland, one to 43,000. Act gives parliamentary suffrage to about 2,000,000 men and 6,000,000 women. Lords vote for proportional representation, but this, as well as a Commons' measure for alternative vote in triangular contests, is thrown out finally. Military Service Act abolishes certain exemptions and gives authority to withdraw exemptions on occupational grounds ("combing out"). Parliament is prorogued, but reassembles on February 12.

Feb. 16. Controversy as to the degree of power which the Supreme War Council of the Allies at Versailles should possess leads to the resignation of Robertson, chief of the imperial staff, who opposes concentration of authority as against separate commands. Sir Henry Wilson succeeds him.

Feb. 24. Military reënforcements are sent to west and south of Ireland in view of disturbances which approximate open rebellion.

March 5. Sinn Fein revolutionists in Ireland capture Kiltamagh, County Mayo.

March 6. John **Redmond,** leader of the Irish Nationalists, **dies.**

March 11. Nineteenth war credit of $3,000,000,000 voted (total war credits, $34,210,000,000).

March 12. John **Dillon** elected **leader** of the **Irish** Nationalists.

March 26. Board of Trade, to save coal, issues a **"curfew order,"** reducing the ordinary consumption of gas and electricity, restricting the time of serving of hot meals or cooking in restaurants, clubs, etc., and the use of lights in theaters, dance halls, etc., and prohibiting the lighting of shop fronts at any time.

March 31. **Gross debt** of United Kingdom, $28,431,000,000.

April 5. Majority of **Irish Convention report** (Ulster delegates dissenting) in favor of a bicameral parliament for Ireland, Unionists to have 40% of the Commons; Commons to elect 42 members to British Parliament; lord lieutenant with an executive council responsible to the Irish Commons.

April 7. Scheme for compulsory rationing, started in London on February 28, is made general: Sugar, fats, and meat, also tea in places. To keep down price of bread the government subventionizes millers and bakers.

April 14. Since the outbreak of the war 1,426,000 women have entered employment.

April 18. Military Service (**Man Power**) **Act** raises the age to include 50 years, and in some cases 55. **Ireland is to be included** by order of council; but this is accompanied by the implied promise to put through a new Home Rule measure based on the convention's report. Government deciding this should not be done, and all factions in Ireland except Carson's followers denouncing conscription, no attempt is made to put it in operation in Ireland. Irish members absent themselves for three months (return on July 23).
Austen Chamberlain becomes a member of the war cabinet without portfolio, replacing Milner who becomes secretary for war, Derby going to Paris as ambassador.

April 22. Chancellor of the Exchequer Bonar Law in his budget statement says that the advances to allies and dominions during the fiscal year have been $2,525,000,000, and the advances of United States to Great Britain have been $2,500,000,000; total expenditures during 1917–1918, $13,480,000,000; estimate of expenses for 1918–1919, $14,860,000,000.

May 5. Field Marshal Lord **French** becomes **Lord Lieutenant of Ireland,** and Edward Shortt chief secretary.

May 18. Revolutionary movements in Ireland lead to the arrest of many **Sinn Fein** agitators, including four members of Parliament.

May 21. Scottish and Welsh congresses put forward idea of home rule for those countries.

June 3. Treaty is signed with United States by which citizens of each country, resident in the other, are liable to conscription, but have sixty days in which to enlist in army of own country. Irishmen in United States are excepted.

June 11. Second session of imperial war cabinet begins and continues for two and a half months. Australia is represented this time. A colonial conference, held at the same time, considers especially questions of reconstruction and emigration.

June 19. Twentieth war credit of $2,500,000,000 voted (total war credits, $36,710,000,000).

July 28. Several thousand munition workers, who struck for higher wages on July 24, return to work after the government declares that they must either work or fight and promises an investigation of their grievances.

July 30. Finance Act raises income tax, supertax, and tax on spirits, beer, tobacco, matches, sugar, and increases stamp duties and postage. Tax on luxuries is reserved for future enactment, but later withdrawn.

Aug. 2. Twenty-first war credit of $3,500,000,000 voted (total war credits, $40,210,000,000).

Aug. 7. Lloyd George announces that the United Kingdom has raised 6,250,000 men during the war for the army and navy, the dominions 1,000,000, and India 1,250,000.

Aug. 8. **Education Act** compels attendance at school until 14 (or 15 by local ordinance), compulsory attendance at continuation (liberal-education) schools from 14 to 16 until 1925, then 14 to 18, all day, or 8 hours a week if child is at work, the 8 hours to be counted in the working hours; no child under 12 is to work for wages, between 12 and 14 may work 2 hours a day on Sunday or school days; social centers are to be created, partly at national expense; all fees for public elementary schools abolished.
British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act permits revocation of **naturalization** and forbids naturalization of subjects of enemy nations (with certain exceptions) for 10 years after the war.

Oct. 25. **British navy,** including auxiliaries,

1918 (*continued*).
has increased from 2,500,000 tons displacement at the beginning of the war to 6,500,000 tons, and the personnel from 146,000 to 406,000. In the transportation of 21,500,000 soldiers by sea, only 4,391 have been lost.

Oct. 28. Food controller increases the retail price of meat and reduces the ration to three quarters of a pound weekly for each person.

Nov. 11. For the cessation of hostilities, see WORLD WAR.

Nov. 13. Final (twenty-second) war credit of $3,500,000,000 voted (total war credits, $43,710,000,000).

Nov. 21. Wages Act provides that war wages shall continue for six months of transition and reconstruction period.

Dec. 6. War cabinet concedes an eight-hour day to railway men to avert a strike; in force on February 1. **Labor unrest** spreads rapidly throughout the country. Dec. 7–16, strike of 100,000 cotton operatives in Lancashire.

Dec. 14. **General election,** first since 1910. Women are candidates in 14 constituencies; only one, a Sinn Feiner, is elected, and she does not take her seat. Coalition ministry wins 485 seats; Sinn Fein (Irish independence society) obtains 73 seats, but refuses to enter Parliament; Labor party with 61 members becomes the official opposition; while the Liberals have 26, Irish Nationalists 7, Independent Unionists 28, and Unionists (Ulster) 27.

Dec. 26–31. President Wilson is in England.

1919. For negotiations following the World War, see WORLD WAR.

Jan. 10. Lloyd George's **new coalition ministry** is announced. War cabinet is continued and consists of the prime minister, Bonar Law (Privy Seal and leader of the Commons), Curzon as leader of the Lords, Chamberlain (Chancellor of the Exchequer), and Barnes (without portfolio). Others in the ministry are Balfour, Milner, Churchill, Long, Montagu, Stanley, and Addison. The undersecretary for India is a native (Lord Sinha). First admission of an Indian to such a post.

Jan. 21. Constituent assembly of 29 of the **Sinn Fein** members of Parliament (rest are in confinement) meets at Dublin and issues a **Declaration of Independence** together with a demand for the withdrawal of "foreign" garrisons. De Valera, the "president of the Irish Republic," escapes from prison (February 3); goes to America.

February. Great **social unrest** following the war is reflected in strikes throughout the kingdom and dissatisfaction over progress of demobilization. Strike in Glasgow requires soldiers to guard the tramway, gas, and electric systems. Miners threaten a general strike for March 15, demanding a raise of 30% in addition to continuation of the war-time bonus, 6-hour day, and nationalization of mines and minerals, but agree to await a report by a royal commission, promised for March 20. War-time rationing of food is discontinued.

Feb. 3–9. **Strike** on "tubes" and trains **in London** over the 8-hour agreement; fails, as public supports the government. Other strikes prevented by operation of **Defense of the Realm Act** ("**Dora**"; from the initial letters).

Feb. 4. Thirty-first Parliament of United Kingdom meets.

Feb. 27. Reëlection of Ministers Act repeals, as regards the first nine months after a general election, the requirement that new ministers shall seek reëlection.
Aërial Navigation Act regulates civilian flying.
Princess Patricia, cousin of the king, is, with his approbation, married to a commoner.
British Industrial Parliament: Representatives of capital and labor meet to investigate social and economic conditions.

March 9. American and Canadian soldiers at London riot against the police.

March 20. **Coal Commission** makes preliminary reports; that of the independent members allows an advance of 2 shillings (50 cents) a day, a 7-hour day now, and a 6-hour day in July, 1921, if economic conditions permit; also, an allocation from coal revenue for miners' houses. Later report on nationalization is promised. Report strongly condemns existing system of ownership and working of mines. Government adopts this report and warns miners that a strike against it will be resisted. Miners adopt report, March 26.

March 31. **Gross debt** of United Kingdom $36,134,100,000.

April 2. Rent Restriction Act continues for a year, with modifications, the war act of December 23, 1915.

April 6–25. **Sinn Fein** demonstration in Limerick leads to a **general strike** and military occupation. Martial law is declared there and also at Cork and Tipperary during the month.

April 16. Naval, Military, and Air Force Service Act meets conditions of the period of transition between war and peace. Conscription acts continued for a year. Annual Army Act calls for 850,000 men, due to unrest at home, in Ireland, and in over-sea possessions.

April 30. Chancellor of Exchequer Chamberlain in budget statement says that total war advances to allies and dominions were $8,695,000,000; expenditures for 1918–1919, $12,896,505,000; estimates for 1919–1920, $7,174,550,000 with estimated revenue at $5,800,000,000, leaving a deficit to be made good by borrowing of $1,375,000,000.

May. Irish situation is aggravated by presence of Irish-American delegates seeking recognition at Peace Conference to present claim for **Irish Independence.**

May 6. Supreme Council at Paris gives Great Britain **mandate** for German East Africa and Nauru Island (in the Pacific) and jointly with France for Togo and Kamerun. British dominions get other mandates.

May 13. While American naval hydroplanes are attempting a stop flight across the Atlantic (see UNITED STATES), Harry Hawker (British aviator, born in Australia, 1888) and Mackenzie Grieve (born 1880) attempt a no-stop flight from Newfoundland to Ireland, but are forced to descend. Rescued by a steamer.

May 15. Body of **Edith Cavell** interred at Norwich after memorial services at Westminster Abbey.

June 3. Ministry of health established.

June 14–15. Capt., later Sir, John William Alcock (killed in accident, Dec. 20, 1919) and Arthur Whitten (now Sir Arthur) Brown, British aviators, fly from Newfoundland to Clifden, Ireland, in a little over 16 hours; **first no-stop flight across the Atlantic.** Both aviators are decorated for this flight.

June 20. Further reports by Coal Commission. Chairman and Labor members recommend immediate national acquisition of coal royalties and complete nationalization of mines after 3 years. Mine-owners' representatives declare nationalization will not lower prices. Another report favors nationalization of all mineral rights.

June 28. **Anglo-Franco-American treaty** of alliance signed; Great Britain and United States to assist France at once in case of an unprovoked attack by Germany. Not ratified by United States Senate.

July. Requirement of food cards for meat, butter, and sugar renewed. Select parliamentary commission to investigate profiteering.

July 2–6. Transatlantic flight of the R34, a British airship (see UNITED STATES).

July 31. Great Britain ratifies **Treaty of Versailles,** also the French alliance treaty; but ratification is not deposited until October 10, when all the dominions have acquiesced.
Housing and Town Planning Act makes it the duty of a local authority to see that people are properly housed; government subventionizes the activity. General **deficiency in housing** reported; dwellings for 3,000,000, including 758,000 in London, are needed.
Finance Act raises death duties on estates of $15,000, reduces excess-profits tax to 40%, and increases tax on spirits and beer.

August. Agreement with Belgium over German East Africa (see BELGIUM).

Aug. 1–6. **Police strike** in London, Liverpool, and elsewhere for right to maintain connection with outside organizations. At **Liverpool riots** break out, suppressed by military charges. Some sympathetic strikes by other public laborers. Pending bill, forbidding outside affiliation, enacted, August 15. Strikers dismissed.

Aug. 5. Prince of Wales departs for his tour of Canada.

Aug. 9. Anglo-Persian agreement (see PERSIA).

Aug. 15. Ministry of transport (ways and communications) established.
Act restoring right of prewar trade-unions practices.

Aug. 18. **Profiteering Act;** Board of Trade empowered to investigate complaints and take proceedings.

Sept. 10. Trade-Union Congress votes for **nationalization of the coal mines** by political action, but is against direct action.

Sept. 27–Oct. 6. **General railway strike** on wage demand, stopping traffic all over Great Britain; settled by continuance of war wages for a year and, also, after that unless cost of living drops 15%. Strike costs government $50,000,000

Oct. 27. Small war cabinet replaced by a larger one of 20 members.

Oct. 29. Supplementary financial statement by Chamberlain places expected deficit for the year at $2,350,000,000.

Oct. 30. Defeat in Commons by vote of 405 to 50 of a Labor amendment advocating a **levy on capital** to meet the deficit.

Nov. 15. At a by-election, Lady Astor, Unionist, elected to **Parliament. First woman** to be sworn in.

Nov. 12–Dec. 10. First **England-Australia flight** accomplished by Ross Smith, stopping at various points *en route*.

Nov. 25. Lord Lieutenant of Ireland issues a proclamation of suppression against the Sinn Fein throughout the island.

Dec. 1. Prince of Wales returns from American tour.

Dec. 19. Attempt to assassinate Lord Lieutenant French at Dublin.

Dec. 22. Lloyd George explains the new **Home Rule Bill:** Two parliaments, one for the whole of Ulster, other for the rest of Ireland; a council as a connecting link between them, elected equally by the two parliaments and having private-bill legislation and such other powers as the Irish parliaments confer upon it; self-government for Ireland in all domestic concerns, with full constituent power within that field, but no separation from the United Kingdom. Bill, formally introduced February 25, 1920, not satisfactory to Ireland, where the smoldering revolt becomes so pronounced that **martial law** is virtually in effect.

Dec. 23. Government of India Act (see INDIA).

1920. *Jan. 15.* Government offer on the wage question is finally accepted by the National Union of Railwaymen.
Sinn Fein makes gains in the Irish municipal elections.

Jan. 27. Barnes, last of the Laborites, retires from the cabinet.

Jan. 30. Organization of local boards, following the Sinn Fein success in the municipal elections in Ireland, results in seditious acts by new officials, many of whom are arrested the next day.

February. The Mad Mullah is finally defeated in Somaliland and control over the interior resumed.

Feb. 4. Pound sterling reaches a minimum of $3.18 (normal exchange value, $4.86) in New York for demand bills of exchange, and then rises somewhat.

Feb. 11. In the Commons, a Laborite amendment to the address demanding nationalization of the coal mines is defeated, 329 to 64.

Feb. 14. Former Premier Asquith returned to Parliament at a by-election; indication of waning of the coalition rather than of revival of the Liberal party.

Feb. 15. Jowett, a nonconformist clergyman, preaches in Durham cathedral.

March. **Situation in Ireland** becomes a reign of terror; repeated attacks on police barracks, raids on tax officers, cattle drives. British forces largely augmented and cordons drawn around the chief cities.
Movement for a British Middle-class Union of salaried persons.

March 10. National Conference of Coal Miners votes for a strike and direct action to compel nationalization of the mines; but on March 11 the Trade-Union Congress rejects this by a majority of 2,820,000.

March 16. Prince of Wales departs for Australia and New Zealand.

March 20. Lord Mayor MacCurtin of Cork, a member of Sinn Fein, assassinated.

March 26. Alan Bell, resident magistrate in Dublin, assassinated.

April 4. **Sinn Fein** prisoners at Mountjoy go on a **hunger strike.** Irish laborers inaugurate a general strike on April 13 and the government releases the hunger strikers the next day.

BRITISH DOMINIONS, COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, POSSESSIONS, AND DEPENDENCIES.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE includes an area of 12,780,380 square miles and a population estimated in 1919 at 441,410,000. The subdivisions are here arranged under the six great divisions of the world: Europe, Asia, Africa, America, Australasia, and Oceania.

In form of government the colonies are divided into three classes: (1) The "crown colonies" over which the home government exercises complete control; (2) Possessions having representative institutions, in which the home government has a veto on legislation, and retains appointments and control of the principal public officers; (3) "Responsible governments," in which all the officials except the nominal ones are appointed by the colonial governments; the home government retaining a seldom-used veto on legislation. These include the great "self-governing dominions" of South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. A special merit of British colonial government is its elasticity; it seeks no uniformity, and allows liberty as to details, so far as such liberty does not weaken or infringe upon the central home authority, which is always paramount and which keeps control of all foreign relations and treaties.

The colonies are administered by a colonial office in three departments: (1) The Dominions Department deals with business connected with the self-

governing colonies and is joined with the secretariat of the Imperial Conference. (2) The Crown Colonies Department deals with the administrative and political work of the crown colonies and protectorates. (3) The General Department, which is also the legal department, deals with matters common to all crown colonies, such as education, telegraphs, post office, banking, and currency. Connected with this department are standing committees which deal with promotion, pensions, finance, concessions, and railways.

Great Britain expends in connection with the colonies and protectorates (exclusive of India) over $4,860,000 annually.

EUROPEAN DEPENDENCIES.

ISLE OF MAN.

The Isle of Man is a small island in the Irish Sea, which is administered in accordance with its own laws by a governor and legislative council appointed by the crown. The representative assembly, known as the House of Keys, consists of 24 members chosen for seven years. The island is not bound by acts of Parliament unless specially mentioned in them.

The principal **products** of the island are oats, barley, turnips, and potatoes. There are small deposits of lead, zinc, and salt.

The **area** of the island is 227 square miles, and the **population** is 52,016 (1911).

CHANNEL ISLANDS.

The Channel Islands are a group of small islands off the coast of France, of which Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark are the most important. They are administered according to their own laws, and acts of Parliament are not effective unless the islands are specially mentioned. They are governed by officials appointed by the crown and representative assemblies.

The **chief industry** is agriculture and cattle raising, for which the islands are famous.

The **area** is 75 square miles and the **population** 96,899 (1911).

MALTA.

Malta, an island south of Sicily, was held by the Knights of St. John after their expulsion from Rhodes in 1565, and successfully withstood a long siege by the Turks. It surrendered to Napoleon in 1798, passed to the British in 1800, and was formally annexed to the British crown in 1814. It is one of the most important ports of call in the world and is the naval base for the British Mediterranean fleet. Valletta is the chief town and port.

The governor is assisted by an executive council and a council of government of nine official members and eight elective members. The **chief products** are potatoes, lemons, mandarins, oranges, onions, and grain.

The **area** is 92 square miles (with the neighboring islands, 118 square miles) and in 1918 the **population** was 224,000.

GIBRALTAR.

Gibraltar is a rocky area of nearly two square miles at the extreme southern point of Spain with a civil population (1919) of 16,096, and about 1,867 aliens. It was seized by the British in 1704 and though enduring many sieges since, notably in 1782, it has never been retaken. Nature and the most persistent care and skill have rendered it one of the strongest fortresses in the world. It is also a naval base with a harbor of 260 acres. It is administered as a crown colony under a governor who is at the same time military commander in chief.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

ADEN.

Aden, "the Gibraltar of the East," is a peninsular rock, city, and harbor on the extreme southern coast of Arabia, one hundred and five miles east of Cape Bab el Mandeb. The area is 75 square miles. (For population, etc., see under Perim.) It first came into British possession in 1839, when the East India Company occupied it. Great Britain now holds a protectorate of Aden, embracing 9,000 square miles. Great sums have been expended on the fortifications and harbor. A political "Resident" administers affairs and also commands the troops of Perim, Aden, and the protectorate. Directly opposite in Africa is the British Somaliland protectorate.

PERIM.

Perim is a strongly fortified island rock in the strait of Bab el Mandeb at the entrance of the Red Sea. The strait is 15 miles wide, and its deep channel is divided by Perim. The island was occupied by the British in 1857, because of the proposed cutting of the Suez Canal. The area is 5 square miles.

The population of Aden and Perim was 46,000 in 1911. Aden produces little, its chief industries being the manufacture of salt and cigarettes. The chief exports are coffee, gums, hides, skins, tobacco, and sugar.

SOKOTRA.

Sokotra is an island farther east, at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden. It was acquired by Great Britain in 1876. The inhabitants were Christians until the close of the seventeenth century, when they were converted to Islam. The chief products are dates and various gums. The area is 1,382 square miles and the population about 12,000.

KURIA MURIA ISLANDS.

The Kuria Muria Islands, a group of five rocky islets off the southern coast of Oman, were obtained from the Sultan of Maskat as a landing place of the Red Sea cable.

BAHREIN ISLANDS.

The Bahrein Islands are in the Persian Gulf and have a population of about 103,000 and an area of about 230 square miles. The chief industry is the pearl fisheries. Dates are also produced; and the islands are noted for a remarkably fine breed of white donkeys. Sailcloth and reed mats are manufactured.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.

British North Borneo comprises the northern part of the island of Borneo, which lies southeast of the Malay Peninsula and southwest of the Philippines. It has an area of about 31,106 square miles and a population (1911) of 208,000, and is under the jurisdiction of the British North Borneo Company. The chief products are lumber (the greatest natural resource of the country), sago, rice, coffee, spices of all sorts, rubber, and tobacco. In 1888 the British government proclaimed a protectorate over North Borneo.

BRUNEI.

Brunei, on the northwest coast of Borneo, was made a protectorate in 1888 and in 1906 the administration was handed over to the British Resident. The area is about 4,000 square miles and the population is estimated at 32,000.

SARAWAK.

Sarawak has an area of 42,000 square miles and an estimated population of 600,000. The government of part of the present territory was obtained in 1842 by Sir James Brooke and the present rajah, Charles Vyner Brooke, is a descendant. Coal exists in large quantities, as well as gold, silver, diamonds, quicksilver, and antimony. The most valuable exports are rubber and pepper.

CEYLON.

Ceylon is an island in the Indian Ocean, southeast of the southern extremity of India. Because of its marvelous fertility and luxuriant vegetation it is called the "pearl garden of the world." Coast settlements which were founded by the Portuguese in 1505 were captured by the Dutch in the seventeenth century and lost by them to the British in 1796. Two years later Ceylon was made a British colony. The governor is assisted by an executive council of seven high British officers and by a legislative council of 21 members, among whom are ten persons, six of whom are named by the governor, to represent the various races of the country. The island often serves as a place of confinement for prisoners of war. Arabi Pasha and many of the Boer captives were exiled here. The **area** is 25,481 square miles and the estimated **population** (1918) was 4,686,383.

THE MALDIVE ISLANDS.

This group of thirteen coral islands, four hundred miles west of Ceylon, has a population of 70,000 and an area of about 115 square miles. The inhabitants are Mohammedans. The Maldives are a dependency of Ceylon. They abound in coconut palms, and yield millet, fruit, and edible nuts. The people are civilized and are great navigators and traders.

CYPRUS.

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean. It has had a varied history for 2,500 years. From 1878 to 1914, it was administered by Great Britain under a convention with the Sultan of Turkey. On November 5, 1914, it was annexed and given a representative form of government. The system of education provides that each race shall have its own schools, and in 1917 there were thus 479 Greek Christian, 212 Moslem, four Armenian, and four Maronite elementary schools. Cyprus is essentially agricultural and its chief products are barley, wheat, vetches, and oats, as well as olives and cotton. Grapes are produced in large quantities and sponge fishing is carried on. The people speak Greek and incline to union with Greece. The **area** is 3,584 square miles and the **population** (1919) 311,108.

HONGKONG.

Hongkong was ceded to the British in 1842, by the Treaty of Nanking, at the conclusion of the Opium War. It is an island off the southeastern coast of China about 90 miles from Canton. In 1898 Great Britain obtained a lease for 99 years of 376 additional square miles, including the port of Kowloon and the territory on the mainland in the immediate vichity; these together with the island now constitute the crown colony of Hongkong. Hongkong is a first-class military and naval station and a free port. A larger tonnage enters and clears there than at any other port in the world.

The **area** of Hongkong island is 32 square miles and of the colony 391 square miles; the **population** of the city of Victoria on Hongkong island is estimated (1918) at 299,450 and that of the colony at 561,500.

INDIA.

Historical Outline.

India almost deserves to be called a continent by itself. Its political history has no unity, but is the story of various races and creeds acting and reacting upon each other. The India of prehistoric ages was apparently populated by three distinct stocks when it was invaded by a branch of the great Aryan family in the second millennium B. C. The intermixture of Aryans and aborigines constitutes the bulk of the population there to-day. During 2,000 years, invasions of barbarous Turanians from across the Himalayas have added vigorous strains to the blood of the population. To this essentially foreign element from the North was due the extension of Buddhism which arose in the Ganges valley as a protest against decadent Brahmanism. For generations it was a great unifying influence, but declined in the place of its birth, while its sway reached eventually the uttermost regions of Asia.

The quarrels between the creeds and races of India were interrupted in the eleventh century A. D., by successive invasions of Moslem Tatars and Afghans from the Northwest. The invaders had learned to act together and were therefore superior to the native population. By the thirteenth century they had conquered nearly the whole of India, which remained more or less under Moslem rule until the scepter passed to Great Britain. The most powerful and effective of these Moslem dynasties was that of the Moguls, or Mongols, descendants of Tamerlane (Timour the Great), who established themselves in Delhi in 1556 and reigned with splendor until 1707. The family of Bahadur Shah, sultan, continued nominal rulers till the suppression of the Sepoy Mutiny in 1857.

The Portuguese found their way around the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, and began to trade with India. They made no attempt to secure anything more than trading stations, or factories. The French and the English aimed at small territorial bases, which enlarged steadily. In 1757, at the battle of Plassey, the French enterprise was crushed. Meantime the British East India Company was making itself master, taking advantage of the decline of the Mogul supremacy. Its extent and power grew till the Mutiny of 1857, a desperate and almost successful effort to shake off the British rule.

The relations between England and India are unprecedented in history. No previous instance is to be found of the acquisition and successful government of a dependency so immense in extent and so populous, at such a distance from the central power. This magnificent conquest was made piecemeal. Englishmen at home hesitated to seize the prize, while it was impossible to arrest the gravitation of the whole country toward British rule as one state after another crumbled and fell from anarchy or sheer inanition.

Since 1857 there has been a steady pressure in India for enlarged rights for the natives, and a share in the government. The country has increased in population and wealth under the "Pax Britannica"; but even the extension of native influence by the reform of 1919 fails to satisfy the aspirations of native agitators and leaders.

Organization.

Government. An account of the government of India practically involves a history of its gradual acquisition by Great Britain. From the three early factories of the East India Company there arose the three vast presidencies of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras, each with a governor, councils, and civil service of its own. Since 1858, the East India Company has been replaced by a Secretary of State for India, who is a member of the British cabinet, assisted by a council of from ten to fourteen members, of whom a majority must have lived in India, appointed for seven years by the Secretary of State for India. The Secretary of State and Council control the expenditure of the revenues of India, both in India and elsewhere, and conduct the business transacted in the United Kingdom in relation to the government of India. In 1919 the undersecretary of state for India was Lord Sinha of Raipur, the first Indian to hold this office.

In India the supreme executive authority is vested in a governor-general or viceroy, who is appointed by the crown and usually holds office for five years. The council of the governor-general is

composed of the commander in chief of the British forces and six ordinary members, who usually hold office for five years. In 1909 the council was expanded into a legislative council by the addition of other members nominated by the viceroy or elected under the Indian Councils Act. The legislative council consists of 68 members, including the governor-general, 36 of whom are officials and 32 nonofficials. Special provision is made for the representation of Mohammedans.

This council, under certain restrictions, has power to make laws for all persons within British India and for all British subjects in the native states and for native subjects of the king in any part of the world. In 1912 India was divided into fifteen administrations: Madras, Bombay, Bengal, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Punjab, Burma, Bihar and Orissa, Central Provinces and Berar, Assam, North-West Frontier Province, Ajmer-Merwara, Coorg, Baluchistan, Delhi, Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

In three of these provinces (Madras, Bombay, and Bengal) the executive power is vested in a governor; elsewhere in a lieutenant governor or chief commissioner. The administrative officers of the more important provinces are assisted by executive councils. There are also legislative councils consisting of the executive councils and nominated and elected members; the provinces, therefore, though under the control of the government of India, have some administrative independence. The provinces are divided into divisions under commissioners, and then into districts at the head of each of which is an executive officer who has entire supervision of the district and is responsible to the governor of the province.

The control which the government of India exercises over the native states varies in degree. They are all governed by Indian princes, ministers, or councils, but are under the political supervision of a British Resident, who is the actual governing power. The chiefs have no right to make war or peace or to have relations with each other or external states. The size of the military forces is also limited. The total number of Indian states is about 700, varying from Hyderabad with an area of over 82,000 square miles and a population of over 13,000,000 to small states consisting of only a few villages.

721 municipalities exist in India, with a total population (1917) of over 17,000,000. These municipalities have charge of their own roads, water supply, drainage, sanitation, medical relief, vaccination, and primary education. Under the supervision of the provincial government, they may impose taxes, enact by-laws, and expend money. Since 1884, the elective principle has been extended in different degrees over all India, the majority of the members of committees in the larger towns and in many smaller towns being elected by the taxpayers.

Religion. The creeds of India have been important in the political as well as the spiritual life of its people. The prehistoric cults were crude and gross. In contrast to these the Aryans brought into the country a worship of singular purity and elevation, without shrines or images or offensive rites. The gradual intermixture of the two races resulted in a deteriorated form of the higher religion known as Hinduism, the creed of three fourths of the inhabitants of India to-day. This has not been evolved, however, without some marked influences from Buddhism, which arose in the sixth century B. C., was made the state religion in Hindustan by Asoka, about 228 B. C., and flourished for about a thousand years side by side with Brahmanism.

As a protest against the emptiness of the older creed, Buddhism was at first extremely effective, but finally declined and practically disappeared from the land. It still survives in Burma, where there are over 10,000,000 adherents of this faith. Jainism, an analogous but not an allied cult, still survives, notably in Bombay and Rajputana. Next to the Hindus (217,587,000), the Moslems are most numerous (66,647,299), the great majority of them Sunnites. Adherents of other faiths found in India are the Sikhs (numbering 3,000,000), Parsis (about 100,000), and Christians of all churches (3,876,203). Few regions of the earth have shown such an aptitude and passionate concern for diverse religions as has India. The government permits and protects all forms of religion, except such practices and rites as thuggee and suttee.

Industry and Labor. Because of the favorable climate and abundant rainfall, India has some of the most productive land in the world. The mainstay is agriculture, which by scientific methods, irrigation, and systematic rotation of crops, now yields more than at any past period. Its chief crops are wheat and other food grains, rice, cotton, opium, tea, sugar cane, tobacco, and indigo. Forests and mines are productive, while manufacture with modern machinery, relying on the abundant labor supply, is bound to become a great industrial factor in the future. In 1913, the total sea-borne import and export commerce of India was worth $1,381,581,330, of which $897,115,878 was exports. During the World War, this trade was much reduced, since it was hard to reach markets.

Education. The problem of the education of the native population is tremendous and has never been fairly faced. According to the census of 1911, out of the 313,417,081 inhabitants, 18,539,431 were able to read and write. Fewer than 2,000,000 natives have a knowledge of English. The educational institutions are of two classes: (1) Public or private schools, including mission schools which conform to the standards prescribed by the department of public instruction or by the universities and which undergo inspection. (2) Private institutions which do not fulfill the conditions prescribed by government.

Public education provides for: (1) Primary Schools in which are taught reading and writing in the vernacular and other elementary knowledge; (2) Secondary Schools where instruction is brought up to a fixed standard of graduation. These schools are divided into English or vernacular and also into high and middle schools; (3) Colleges, where the students are studying for a degree. All the public colleges are affiliated with the five great universities of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, and Allahabad. New universities have been established at Benares and Patna and for Mysore. In all, there are 192,755 institutions of education, with 7,851,946 students, besides numerous special schools. About four fifths of the children of school age are left unregarded.

Defense. The military forces of India consist of the British troops stationed there, the Indian army, and the imperial-service troops. The army as a whole is divided into a Northern and a Southern army. At the outbreak of the World War (August, 1914) the total of British troops in all India was 79,953, but these were mostly withdrawn and their place taken by native units.

The Indian army in 1914 consisted of 2,751 officers, 159,134 other ranks, 45,660 noncombatants and 36,767 reservists. These numbers were largely increased during the war, and on September 30, 1918, the Indian army was 1,161,789. Service in the ranks is voluntary and enlistment is for four years with the option of extending it to 32 years. About a third of the men are Mohammedans and nearly two thirds Hindus. Imperial-service troops are also raised and maintained by the native states, but trained by British officers. In 1914 they numbered about 20,000 with a cavalry force of 6,600.

The military forces in India are administered under the supreme control of the commander in chief by a headquarters staff. From August, 1914, to September 30, 1918, 1,172,908 troops of all ranks were sent to the various fronts, exclusive of 42,430 British troops.

Area and Population. The area of British India is 1,093,074 square miles and its population in 1911 was 244,267,542. The Indian states, which are all under the control of the Indian government, have an area of 709,555 square miles and a population of 70,888,854, making a total for all India of an area of 1,802,629 with a population of 315,156,396.

Chronology — India.

1498. Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese, **reaches Calicut** by sea; the beginning of direct contact of India with western Europe. Mohammedan kingdoms occupy most of India, but a Hindu power is paramount in the South.

1500. Cabral establishes **Portuguese** factories at Calicut and Cochin.

1510. Albuquerque, as viceroy, **captures Goa** and makes it capital of **Portuguese India.**

1511. He captures **Malacca** and the **Portuguese are firmly established,** in spite of repeated native attacks, until Portugal becomes a part of Spain, when that nation's enemies, the Dutch and English, invade the East.

1526. Invasion of **India** by Baber, founder of the **Mogul** (Mohammedan) **Empire.**

1556–1605. Reign of Akbar, who extends the empire over all of India north of the Deccan.

1600. *Dec. 31.* First charter of **English East India Company,** which gradually becomes a ruler of large areas, keeps up a fleet and army, makes war and peace, and annexes territory.

1609. Dutch build a fort **at Palghat** (Pulicat); strife between Dutch, Portuguese, and English over East Indian trade continues.

1611. English East India Company establishes a factory at Masulipatam on eastern coast; reëstablished in 1622.

1612. *March 12.* Emperor permits **English** factories **at Surat** and elsewhere on gulf of Cambay; Surat becomes headquarters of the English Company. Portuguese attempts to expel English fail.

1633. English begin a factory in Bengal.

1640. *April.* Completion by English Company of Fort St. George; beginning of **Madras.**

1641. *Jan. 14.* **Dutch take Malacca** from Portuguese. Power of Portugal in India steadily wanes and is finally crushed by the Marathas; Goa, Diu, and Daman are now their only possessions there.

1658–1707. Reign of **Aurangzeb,** who completes Mogul conquest of India, but witnesses rise of Hindu **Maratha power** and presages of rapid **decline of empire,** which is accomplished in next 60 years by Hindu risings, Afghan and Persian invasions, and growth of European occupation.

1660. *July.* Dutch complete **expulsion of Portuguese from Ceylon.**

1661. *June 23.* **Bombay is ceded** by Portugal **to England** as part of dowry of bride of Charles II.

1674. *Sept. 5.* French purchase Pondicherry; established, as a possession, 1687.

1686. Headquarters of Bengal agency moved from Hooghly to Sutanati (later called **Calcutta**); abandoned, but reoccupied in 1690.

1687. Seat of English Company's government in India is moved from Surat to **Bombay.** Surat, Madras, and Bengal are subordinate agencies or presidencies.

1688. Chandernagore, on the Hooghly, granted to French by emperor.

1696. Fort William built at Calcutta.

1702. *July 22.* On union of two rival English companies, 27 factories and forts are mentioned.

1739. French at Pondicherry begin to **intervene in politics** of southern India and gain great prestige, especially through activities of Bussy at Hyderabad. Franco-British contests during European wars (1746–1783); restorations by treaties, but French lose race for ascendancy.

1756. *June 19.* Surrender of Calcutta to Nawab of Bengal; **Black Hole of Calcutta.**

1757. *Jan. 4.* **Clive** reoccupies Calcutta.

June 23. **Battle of Plassey;** Clive defeats the Nawab and sets up a rival, from whom he demands an enormous payment. Marks downfall of French power in India.

1758. *June 27.* **Clive governor** in Bengal.

1759. *August.* Clive defeats a Dutch fleet and force sent against English Company's advancing power in Bengal.

1764. *Oct. 23.* Battle of Buxar leaves **English masters of Bengal.**

1765. *Feb. 20.* Clive's treaty with the Nawab commits entire **military defense of Bengal** to the Company. On August 12 the emperor grants to the Company the **financial administration** of Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, and northern portion of Madras. Clive institutes a double (English and native) government, and also reforms the Company, stopping private trading.

1769. *March 27.* Treaty with **Haidar Ali,** ending first **Mysore War,** which has lasted two years. Mutual restorations.

1772. Maratha (Hindu) **Confederacy** (five branches) has become **the paramount power in India.** The emperor on surrender of Delhi (December 22) passes under their control, while a group of independent Mohammedan states have been established by the former governors of the empire. These lie as weak buffer states between the Marathas and Bengal.

April 13. **Warren Hastings governor** in Bengal.

May 14. Company decides to abolish dual government, and administer revenues through own servants instead of natives.

1773. *June 21.* **Regulating Act of** Parliament; governor-general and council of four for Bengal, with power over the other presidencies; Warren **Hastings** named first **governor-general** (assumes office October 20, 1774); crown to establish a supreme court at Calcutta.

1778–1782. First Maratha War, in Bombay; treaty May 17, 1782, makes no changes.

1780–1784. Second (First) **Mysore War;** begun by Haidar Ali against Madras presidency, finished by his son **Tippoo.** French assist Haidar. Treaty makes mutual restitutions.

1783. Fox's India Bill to deprive Company of exclusive power and reform abuses; defeated by king's personal antagonism to coalition ministry (see GREAT BRITAIN).

1784. *Aug. 13.* **Pitt's India Act;** board of control appointed by crown with superintendence over the Company; royal approval of appointment of governor-general and other officials in India.

1785. *Feb. 8.* Sir John **Macpherson governor-general.**

1786. *Sept. 12.* Earl (Marquis) **Cornwallis governor-general.**

1788. *Feb. 13.* **Trial of Warren Hastings** before House of Lords begins; impeached by Commons for alleged oppressive measures in connection with strengthening British position in the Ganges valley against advance of Marathas. Lasts until April 23, 1795, when acquitted.

1790–1792. Third (Second) **Mysore War.** Cornwallis with the Nizam of Hyderabad and Maratha troops defeats Tippoo, who on March 19, 1792, cedes half of his territory to the allies.

1793. Cornwallis continues Hastings's policy by establishment of European criminal jurisdiction and other judicial reforms; also, the permanent settlement of law assessment, based on agricultural capacity.

September. On outbreak of Franco-British war, Pondicherry and other French establishments taken for third time; but **French intrigue** and influence over native princes continues a men-

1793 (*continued*).
ace to British advancement, especially while French are in Egypt. **French possessions restored** by Treaty of Amiens, 1802, again seized; restored by Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814. Still continue; five scattered establishments of about 196 square miles; Pondicherry seat of government.
Oct. 28. Sir John **Shore** (Lord Teignmouth) **governor-general.**

1796. **Ceylon captured from the Dutch,** coast possession only; first attached to Madras, but soon made **crown colony.** Interior taken over in 1815 on deposing of king of Ceylon. Possession sanctioned by Dutch at Treaty of Amiens, 1802.

1798. *May 18.* Marquis **Wellesley** (Earl of Mornington) **governor-general.** He inaugurates policy of British control over all India through dependent native states.
Sept. 1. Wellesley's treaty with the Nizam (Hyderabad), making him a subservient ally.

1799. Fourth (Third) **Mysore War.** Tippoo killed in storming of Seringapatam (May 4). Treaty, June 22, divides kingdom between Company, the Nizam, and a dependent kingdom of Mysore. Nizam cedes his portion to Company Oct. 12, 1800.

1801. *July.* Government of the Carnatic is taken over by the Company. This with Tanjore (ceded October 25, 1799) about completes present Madras presidency.
Nov. 14. **Treaty of Lucknow** extends British rule farther up the Ganges valley.

1802. *Dec. 31.* **Treaty of Bassein;** the peshwa (nominal head of Maratha Confederacy) extends British influence in Bombay.

1803–1805. **Second Maratha War,** due to resentment of peshwa's action. Sir Arthur Wellesley (Wellington) and Lake operate in Deccan and Hindustan; **Ahmadnagar captured** August 12, 1803; **battle of Aligarh** August 28; **Delhi captured** September 14; **battle of Assaye** September 23; **Agra captured** October 18; battles of **Laswari** November 1 and **Argaon** November 29. Later warfare, against Holkar, less successful. By treaties British acquire western part of present United Provinces, and Orissa; Berar goes to the Nizam as ally.

1805. *July 30.* **Cornwallis** again **governor-general,** but dies, October 5. Sir George **Barlow acting governor-general** from October 10.

1807. Earl of **Minto governor-general.**

1813. Marquis of **Hastings** (Earl of Moira) governor-general.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1814–1816. **Nepal War.** By **Treaty of Segauli,** March 3, 1816, Gurkhas withdraw from Sikkim and elsewhere (Simla), receive a Resident, but remain independent as regards internal affairs.

1817–1818. **Final Maratha War** with crushing of predatory Pindaris. Peshwa's dominions annexed to Bombay presidency, nucleus of present Central Provinces formed; Rajputana states become feudatories.

1823. *Aug. 1.* Lord **Amherst governor-general.**

1824. *March 17.* By Treaty of London **Netherlands cedes all India establishments to Great Britain.**

1824–1826. **First Burmese War.** By **Treaty of Yandabu,** February 24, 1826, Assam, Arakan, and Tenasserim ceded by the king, and claim to Manipur (native state) renounced.

1828. *July 4.* Lord William **Bentinck governor-general;** reforms and advancement of condition of natives; **widow-burning (suttee) abolished** (1829); suppression of thugs.

1833. *Aug. 28.* New charter for Company; "governor-general in council" authorized to make laws for whole of British India.

1835. *March 20.* Sir Charles **Metcalfe acting governor-general.** [general.]

1836. *March 4.* Earl of **Auckland governor-**

1838–1842. **First Afghan War** begun, to install a more subservient ameer and counteract Russian advance (see AFGHANISTAN). After two years of British occupation, army forced to **retreat from Kabul,** and is overwhelmed in **Khyber Pass** (January, 1842). Later an advance reoccupies Kabul, but **British withdraw** from Afghanistan in October, and former ameer resumes throne.

1842. *Feb. 28.* Lord **Ellenborough governor-general.**

1843. **Sind War;** battle of Miani, February 17. Country is annexed. [governor-general.]

1844. *July 23.* Sir Henry (Lord) **Hardinge**

1845. *Feb. 22.* Danish possessions in India ceded to the Company.

1845–1846. **First Sikh War.** Sikhs (Hindus of a certain religious sect) control the Punjab; but on death of Ranjit Singh (1839) dissensions occur, and leaders invade British territory. **Battle of Sobraon,** February 10, 1846; Sikhs driven back and **Lahore occupied** (February 22). By treaty, March 9, some territory is ceded; **Kashmir** made a separate native state; protectorate for Punjab.

1848. *Jan. 12.* Earl of **Dalhousie governor-general;** administrative reforms and public works.

1848–1849. **Second Sikh War;** general rising against British. In battle of Gujarat (February 12, 1849) Sikh army destroyed. **Punjab annexed,** March 29, as British province.

1852. **Second Burmese War;** Pegu annexed on December 20.

1853. *April 16.* **First railway opened;** Bombay to Thana.
May 21. The Nizam cedes Berar to the Company on release of certain obligations.
Aug. 20. New charter for Company, "until Parliament shall otherwise provide"; one third of directors appointed by crown; appointments in service to be on examination.
Dec. 11. Nagpur lapses to the Company on death of rajah without heir (**right of adoption question**); becomes Central Provinces. Other minor states taken over on same grounds.

1854. *May 14.* Treaty with khan of Kalat (Baluchistan); alliance and subsidy.

1856. *Feb. 13.* Oudh (United Provinces) put under direct British administration because of native misgovernment. [eral.]
Feb. 29. Viscount **Canning governor-gen-**

1856–1857. War on Persia for her attack on Herat. Persians defeated and renounce claim to Herat or any Afghan province (March 4, 1857).

1857–1859. **Sepoy Mutiny;** nationalistic spirit of disaffection played upon by deprived princes; political and army advancement closed to ambitious natives; army reduced and drained of best men. Outbreak begins at Meerut, May 10, whence rebels march to Delhi, and mutiny becomes general throughout Ganges valley; but Sikhs and troops of Madras and Bombay remain loyal. States of central India disaffected, except Hyderabad. June 6–27: Siege and surrender of **Cawnpore** to Nana Sahib; massacre on July 15. July 1–September 25: **Siege of Lucknow;** relieved by Havelock and Outram. September 14–20 Recapture of Delhi by Nicholson; **last Mogul emperor** is sent to Rangoon. Campaign of Campbell for reduction of Oudh, where whole people have revolted, lasts until January, 1859. Rose subdues central India during same period. Peace proclaimed, July 8, 1859.

1858. *Aug. 2.* **Act** for the better government of India **transfers entire administration from Company to the crown;** secretary for India and council to constitute home government. New government proclaimed November 1; **Canning** first **viceroy.**

1861. *Aug. 1.* **Indian Councils Act** authorizes "additional" (nonofficial) members to councils of viceroy and provinces for purposes of legislation. Policy to select some of these from among natives.

1862. *March 12.* Earl of **Elgin viceroy.**

1864. *Jan. 12.* Sir John **Lawrence viceroy.**

1865. *Nov. 13.* Treaty with **Bhutan,** after a punitive expedition; subsidy during good behavior.

1869. *Jan. 12.* Lord **Mayo viceroy; assassinated** February 8, 1872.

1872. *May 3.* Earl of **Northbrook viceroy.**

1875. *Nov. 8.* Prince of Wales (Edward VII.) lands at Bombay; visit lasts until March 3, 1876.

1876. *April 12.* Earl of **Lytton viceroy.**
April 27. Act authorizing an Indian addition to queen's titles; queen proclaimed **Empress of India** at Delhi on January 1, 1877.
July. New **Baluchistan treaty;** subordination to British rule and troops to keep order. Beginning of gradual development into a province under British Indian rule of direct, administered, and feudatory territory. [India.]

1877–1878. **Great famine,** especially in southern

1878–1881. **Second Afghan War** (see AFGHANISTAN), rising out of Russian intrigue, a British embassy being barred from the capital (September 22, 1878). War is declared on November 22. On December 2, **Roberts defeats Afghans** at Peiwar Pass. May 26, 1879, treaty is signed; **British frontier advanced** to farther side of passes and British resident at Kabul. But on murder of resident, September 3, 1879, **war is renewed,** and **Roberts** enters Kabul on October 12, and **routs the Afghans** on September 1, 1880. A new ameer is installed and subsidized, and British troops gradually withdraw.

1880. *June 8.* Marquis of **Ripon viceroy.** Local self-government, judicial and revenue reforms, with promotion of agriculture and education features of administration.

1884. *Dec. 13.* Earl of **Dufferin viceroy.**

1885. Russia and Herat (see AFGHANISTAN). In expectation of war, native princes for the first time offer money and troops to the British.
November. **Third Burmese War.** King Thebau is deposed (December 1) and rest of **Burma annexed** to India January 1, 1886.
December. First of the annual meetings of National Congress (of Hindus) to discuss political matters. Tolerated but not recognized by government.

1888. *Dec. 10.* Marquis of **Lansdowne viceroy.** Development of the **imperial-servlee contingents,** troops kept up by feudatory states for British service in case of war; efforts to reform child marriage and forced celibacy of widows.

1890. *March 17.* Chinese-British convention; boundary between Sikkim and Tibet; British protectorate over Sikkim recognized.

1892. *June 20.* **Indian Councils Act;** additional members increased, appointments based on local recommendations; **right** of legislative councils **to discuss budgets** and make **interpellations.**

1893. *Dec. 5.* Chinese-British convention on trade across Sikkim-Tibet frontier.

1894. *Jan. 27.* Earl of **Elgin viceroy.**
March 1. Chinese-British agreement on Burmese-Tibetan boundary.

1895. Frontier **campaign against tribesmen,** centering at **Chitral;** region comes within boundary of later North-West Frontier Province.
March 17. Russo-British agreement on spheres of influence in the **Pamir** supplements Afghanistan agreement. Russia's advances had involved Afghan, Chinese, and Kashmirian rights.

1896. **Bubonic plague** violent for several years; native opposition to sanitary measures develops into rioting at times. **Famine** also in 1897 and 1900, leading to extensive irrigation projects, especially in the Punjab.

1897. Tirah campaign against frontier tribes about Khyber Pass; Mad Mullah
Feb. 4. Modified Chinese-British agreement on Burmese-Tibetan boundary.

1899. **Gold standard adopted;** value of rupee fixed at about 32 cents. Effort to check falling of value by closing mints to free silver coinage in 1892 had failed.
Jan. 6. Lord **Curzon** of Kedleston **viceroy;** period of unusual material development and improved relations with native princes, but also increase of demonstrations of political unrest.

1901. North-West Frontier Province erected; roughly between the Indus and Afghanistan boundary.

1902. *Jan. 30.* Anglo-Japanese defensive alliance (see GREAT BRITAIN) involves India.

1903. *Jan. 1.* Coronation **durbar at Delhi;** Edward VII. proclaimed emperor.

1904. Military **advance into Tibet** by Younghusband, following refusal of Lama to treat; Russian intrigues, and prevention of trade and settlement of boundary question. Lhasa occupied, August 3. Treaty, September 7; boundaries and commerce. Chinese ratification delayed until April 27, 1906.
March 21. Universities Act, unifying **higher education** and reforming its administration; opposition of native politicians on ground that it "officialized" universities.

1905. *Aug. 12.* New Anglo-Japanese alliance (see GREAT BRITAIN).
Resignation of Curzon due to disagreement with Commander in Chief Kitchener and home government over army administration; remains until November 18.
Oct. 16. Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam set off from Bengal; Bengali opposition and Eastern Bengal restored to Bengal on April 1, 1912, when that presidency, having previously had the viceroy as governor, is given a separate governor.
Nov. 9. Visit of Prince of Wales (later George V.) and the Princess; ends March 17, 1906.
Nov. 18. Earl of **Minto viceroy.**
Political and anarchistic discontent increases; small but dangerous minority responsible for it; measures to suppress it through deportations and restrictions on freedom of utterance.

1906. All-India **Moslem League** is established; annual meetings. Similar to the (Hindu) National Congress.

1907. *Aug. 31.* Anglo-Russian Convention; Afghanistan outside Russian sphere; British-Tibetan convention recognized.
Nov. 11. First Indian member of **council of India** (in England) takes his seat.

1909. First native member of viceroy's (executive) council takes his seat.
May 25. **Indian Councils Act** of Parliament provides for election of portion of members of legislative councils hitherto only nominated by certain bodies. In 1919, 27 elected and 32 nominated (additional) members; all but 2 of elected members natives; 5 nominated members also natives. One of undersecretaries for India is a native, as are 3 of council of India.

1910. *January.* Treaty with Bhutan; British assumption of foreign relations; increased subsidy.
Nov. 23. Baron **Hardinge** of Penshurst **viceroy.**

1911. *May 8.* British-Chinese **agreement on opium traffic,** after long contest; **prohibition of export** from India to China, cessation of cultivation in China.
Dec. 12. Coronation **durbar at Delhi,** held personally by the emperor (George V.) and empress. **Change of capital to Delhi** announced, also administrative changes in Bengal.

1912. *Dec. 23.* Attempt to assassinate viceroy on his state entry into Delhi to proclaim city as capital of empire.

NORTH AMERICA
AND
SOUTH AMERICA
SHOWING
COUNTRIES AND COLONIES
Scale of English Statute Miles at different Latitudes
On the Equator
On the 20th Parallel
On the 40th Parallel
On the 60th Parallel
60 Nautical Miles = 1° at the Equator 69.16 English Statute Miles = 1° at the Equator
The distances on the land are in English Statute Miles
The distances on the water are in Nautical Miles
Principal Capitals: Other Cities:
Canals:
Principal Railroad Lines:
With Trans-Continental distances in English Statute Miles
Principal Steamship Lines.
With distances between ports in Nautical Miles
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THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS, BUFFALO, N. Y.
ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
BAFFIN BAY
BAFFIN ISLAND
Hudson Bay
CANADA
ALASKA
UNITED STATES
MEXICO
CENTRAL AMERICA
WEST INDIES
BRITISH ISLES
IRELAND
NEWFOUNDLAND
ICELAND
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
COLOMBIA
VENEZUELA
ECUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
URUGUAY
ARGENTINA
CHILE
FALKLAND IS. (Brit.)
Longitude from Greenwich

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA AND AUSTRALIA
SHOWING
COUNTRIES AND COLONIES IN 1921
Principal Capitals: ⊙ Other Cities: • Canals.
Principal Railroad Lines:
With Trans-Continental distances in English Statute Miles.
Principal Steamship Lines:
With distances between ports in Nautical Miles
Scale of English Statute Miles at different Latitudes
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Longitude 80 East from 100 Greenwich
ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
RUSSIA
SIBERIA
Central Asia
Mongolia
Manchuria
CHINESE REPUBLIC
Tibet
China
INDIA
PERSIA
ARABIA
AUSTRALIA
BRITISH ISLES
SCANDINAVIA
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
GERMANY
POLAND
TURKEY
JAPAN
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
FRENCH TERRITORY
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
BELGIAN CONGO
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
NEW ZEALAND
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WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. Question of **rights of Hindus** as British subjects **in South Africa and Canada** (see SOUTH AFRICA, p. 67 (1913), and CANADA, p. 72).

August. Enthusiastic support of the **World War** by people and native princes; large **offers of men and contributions;** princes seek service personally. Aga Khan, head of Indian Moslems, supports empire; deprecates later Turkish action.

Sept. 25. Landing of **first Indian contingent** of 70,000 at Marseilles. At end of 1915 Indian troops are withdrawn from Europe for service nearer home. [loyal support of the war.]

1915. Renewal of unrest accompanies continued

1916. *April 4.* Baron **Chelmsford viceroy.**

December. National Congress joins in demand for home rule; elects **Mrs. Besant** president. All-India Moslem League elects as president a man in prison for sedition. Rapprochement of the two antagonistic bodies.

1917. *March–April.* India is first represented at Imperial War Conference; a maharaja, another native, and an Englishman are delegates.

March 2. **India Defense Force Act** makes military service compulsory to all British subjects of European origin from 16 to 50 years of age.

1918. *March 12.* **War expenditures** of India, $640,000,000. 1,161,789 men have enlisted, besides 239,561 available at outbreak of war; 953,374 sent overseas, more than half to Mesopotamia; 33,031 killed, 52,296 wounded, 9,092 prisoners.

Aug. 6. **Montagu** (secretary)-**Chelmsford** (viceroy) **scheme** for Indian government presented in Parliament. Compromise measure for **gradual development of home rule** and responsible government, beginning with local affairs; plan for imperial bicameral legislative council and connection therewith of native princes.

1919. *Jan. 18.* India represented at Peace Conference by Sec. Montagu and Maharaja of Bikaner.

April–May. Serious **home-rule disturbances** occur in the Punjab and elsewhere, especially as a demonstration against an antisedition act. Severe suppression, especially at Amritsar.

May. Outbreak of **frontier war** through invasion by Afghan tribesmen, who are defeated and their strongholds bombarded by airplanes.

Aug. 8. Treaty of peace with Afghanistan, Afghans; placed on probation. [on British troops.]

November. Frontier Afghan tribes reopen attack

Nov. 19. Joint parliamentary committee at London reports on the Government of India Bill.

Dec. 23. **Government of India Act** becomes law. Dual provincial governments, with division of duties, consisting of governor and executive council, with governor and ministry appointed from the elected legislature; ministry to be partly responsible, but, subject to higher veto, legislation may be made by the governor on "reserved subjects" without approval of legislature; increase in financial power of legislature. All-India government to have a larger, more representative, and more powerful Assembly, while in the Council, which becomes more truly a second chamber, only a third of the members are to be officials.

1920. *January.* Frontier fighting continues with increased severity.

Jan. 2. All-India Moslem Conference calls for a Mohammedan **boycott of British goods** if Turkish treaty is not satisfactory to Islam and leaves the sultan as caliph at Constantinople.

DEPENDENCIES UPON INDIA.

CERTAIN states or territories are reckoned as dependent upon India. Such are Baluchistan, Sikkim, the Andaman, Nicobar, and Laccadive Islands.

Baluchistan (area 134,638 square miles, population about 834,000) is a wild region west of India and south of Afghanistan. Since 1876 the British have been extending their rule over this country.

Sikkim (area 2,818 square miles, population about 88,000) is a little state in the Himalayas, south of Tibet. Formerly under nominal vassalage to China, the British protectorate was recognized by the Chinese government in 1890.

The **Andaman Islands** (area 2,260 square miles, population in 1919, 16,786) are a group of five large and about 200 smaller islands in the Bay of Bengal, nearly 120 miles from Burma. They contain forests of great value. The Andamans now serve as penal settlements for about 13,000 convicts. The native population of 1,317 is made up of savages of a low Negritoid type.

The **Nicobars** (area 635 square miles, population in 1911, about 8,818) are a group of nineteen islands, south of the Andamans. The main occupation of the natives was formerly piracy and shipwrecking. Also, they have plied the coconut trade for 1,500 years. About 15,000,000 nuts are produced annually. Since the British occupation in 1872, the islands have become orderly.

The **Laccadives,** the "Hundred Thousand Islands" (population about 10,000), are a group of uncounted coral islands and islets in the Arabian Sea, west of the Malabar coast.

Chronology — Baluchistan.

1739. **Nasir Khan,** of Kalat, made head prince of all Baluchistan by the Persian ruler.

1795. *June.* Nasir dies; thenceforward dominion decreases. [retire in 1841.]

1839. **British** Indian troops **capture Kalat,** but

1854. *May 14.* **British treaty** of offensive and defensive alliance with the khan of Kalat (see INDIA).

1857. British agent begins residence at Kalat.

1876. Following a period of anarchy, a new **British treaty** is signed (see INDIA). Country becomes virtually a **British dependency.**

1881. Certain districts in neighborhood of Quetta assigned to Great Britain.

1884–1885. Boundary with Afghanistan established.

1887. *November.* Enlarged area becomes **British Baluchistan,** a province of India. Other districts and native states under a protectorate.

1896. Boundary with Persia established by an Anglo-Persian commission.

1918. British forces operating across Baluchistan to eastern Persia complete the **railway** from Quetta to Persian frontier at Mirjawa, giving continuous line from India.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES occupy a large part of the Malay Peninsula. They are: **Perak, Selangor, Pahang,** and **Negri Sembilan.** Since 1896, when these states came under the administration of a British Resident-general, there has been a marked decrease in crime. The area is 27,506 square miles. The total population (1911) was 1,036,999, of whom 725,000 were males and 311,000 females. The disproportion of the sexes was due mainly to the influx of Chinese, of whom there are over 433,000. The staple products are coconuts, rice, rubber, tapioca, and pepper.

MALAY STATES NOT INCLUDED IN THE FEDERATION.

THE Malay states of Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, and Trengganu, are not included in the federation. Johore is governed by a sultan, assisted by a state council on which there are two European members. The area of the five states is 23,486 square miles and the population was 930,000 in 1911.

The rights of protection and control of the other four states were acquired by Great Britain from Siam, March 10, 1909. In all these states the native rulers are assisted in the administration by British advisors or agents.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS are a crown colony occupying the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula and including the settlements of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca. The area is 1,600 square miles and the estimated population in 1919 was 846,083. **Singapore** (area 217 square miles, population (1919) 387,336) is an island strongly fortified as a naval station, and is a port of entry. **Penang,** hardly less important, is an island and a strip of mainland, with a total area of 280 square miles and a population of 305,739. **Malacca** has an area of 659 square miles and in 1919 the population was estimated at 153,008. These settlements have a large trade and the chief exports are gums, gin, spices, and copra.

The following are under the administration of the settlement of Singapore.

Cocos, or **Keeling, Islands** are a group of about 20 small coral islands 1200 miles southwest of Singapore. The estimated population (1917) was 819.

Christmas Island is 700 miles east of Cocos Islands and is nine miles long by nine miles wide, with an estimated population (1917) of 2,040. The sole source of wealth to the island is phosphated lime, which is the article of export.

The **island of Labuan** lies about six miles off the northwest coast of Borneo, and was incorporated with Singapore in 1907. The area is 28 square miles and the estimated population (1917) was 6,864.

WEIHAIWEI.

WEIHAIWEI is a fortified seaport and district in the Chinese province of Shantung. It was leased to Great Britain in 1898 as a balance to the German occupation of Kiaochow and the Russian in Port Arthur. With all the islands in the bay it has an area of about 285 square miles and a population (1911) of about 147,000. Within a further additional area of 1,500 square miles Great Britain has the right to take such military measures as she deems expedient. Weihaiwei is a free port. There has been great increase of prosperity since the British took possession.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

ASCENSION ISLAND.

ASCENSION ISLAND is a volcanic island situated 800 miles northwest of St. Helena. It is entirely under the control of the British admiralty. It is famous for its large sea turtles, which weigh between five hundred and eight hundred pounds. The **area** is 34 square miles and the **population** 250.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA comprises a large area of the continent including the East Africa Protectorate and the Uganda Protectorate, together with the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. It lies between what was formerly German East Africa and Abyssinia. It is controlled directly by the British colonial office. The **area** is about 358,000 square miles and the **population** 6,322,000.

East Africa Protectorate is crossed by the equator and possesses immense tropical resources. Various Protestant and Catholic missions are working with success. It is traversed for a distance of 618 miles by the railway from the port of Mombasa to the Victoria Nyanza. This protectorate touches the frontier of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Thus from Mombasa, four degrees south of the equator, British control extends unbroken across the continent to Alexandria on the Mediterranean Sea. The **area** is 246,822 square miles and the **population** 2,807,000.

Uganda Protectorate is situated far inland, north of the Victoria Nyanza. The natural wealth is prodigious. It is said that here are found the richest flora and fauna in all Africa. Protestant and Catholic missions have accomplished wonders. About 600,000 natives have been converted to Christianity by British and French missionaries. The **area** is 110,300 square miles and the **population** (1919) is 3,318,271.

Zanzibar Protectorate comprises the two islands of Zanzibar (area 640 square miles) and Pemba (380 square miles). Their united population in 1910 was 196,000. Nominally the Sultan of Zanzibar still rules through a British prime minister. Nothing important can be done without the consent of the British agent and consul general. Cloves are the chief product. Protestant and Roman Catholic missions are maintained.

MAURITIUS.

MAURITIUS, formerly Île de France, is an island in the Indian Ocean, 500 miles east of Madagascar. Discovered by the Portuguese in 1508, it passed under the Dutch in 1598, who named it in honor of Prince Maurice of Nassau. The French held it for nearly a century, losing it to the British in 1810. This is the scene of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre's *Paul et Virginie.* It is a colony with representative government under a British governor, assisted by councils. The Chinese and East Indians are rapidly gaining control of the agricultural and business interests. Sugar, aloe fiber, molasses, coconut oil, and vanilla are the chief exports. The **area** is 720 square miles and the estimated **population** (1917) about 385,000.

Several islands are dependent upon Mauritius: Rodriguez, with an area of forty square miles and a population (1911) of 4,829. The Cargados Islands, mostly sandbanks; the Eagle Islands; and the Chagos Islands, of which Diego Garcia is the largest, with 517 inhabitants.

NYASALAND.

THE NYASALAND PROTECTORATE was known as British Central Africa until 1907. It lies west and south of Lake Nyasa. Under British control the natives seem orderly, prosperous, and contented. Much is hoped from the attempted cultivation of cotton, and many agricultural experiments are being carried on. The **area** is 39,573 square miles and the native **population** (1918) about 1,208,000.

ST. HELENA.

ST. HELENA is a volcanic island, in the South Atlantic, distant about 1,200 miles from Africa and 800 miles from Ascension Island, the nearest land. It is memorable as the place of exile of Napoleon from 1815 until his death May 5, 1821. Five thousand Boer prisoners of war were confined here in 1900. The **area** is 47 square miles and the estimated **population** in 1918 was 3,654.

TRISTAN DA CUNHA.

TRISTAN DA CUNHA is a small group of islands in the South Atlantic, midway between Africa and South America, with 105 inhabitants in 1916. A garrison was maintained here until the death of Napoleon at St. Helena. They are without government, being left entirely to themselves, except that a British ship visits the group once a year.

THE SEYCHELLES.

THE SEYCHELLES are a group of about 90 islands northeast of Madagascar. First settled by the French, Great Britain has held them since 1794. They were formerly dependent on Mauritius, but since 1888 have constituted a separate administration under a governor and council. They are well supplied with schools, and local examinations are held for Cambridge. The **area** is about 156 square miles and the **population** in 1917 was 24,000.

BRITISH SOMALILAND.

British Somaliland (area about 68,000 square miles, population about 300,000, mostly Moslem nomads) lies south of the Gulf of Aden and north of Italian Somaliland. Armed resistance to British rule ceased in 1905. With the introduction of order, settlements on the coast are springing up and trade is increasing. The exports are ostrich feathers, gums, skins, and hides. The country is administered by a commissioner, assisted by British army officers.

BASUTOLAND.

Basutoland is inclosed by the Orange Free State, Natal, and Cape of Good Hope Province. It is a native reservation. A resident commissioner administers affairs under the high commissioner for South Africa. It is better adapted for grain raising than any other region of South Africa. The **area** is 11,716 miles and the **population** in 1911 consisted of 403,111 natives and 1,396 Europeans.

BECHUANALAND.

Bechuanaland is a protectorate, lying between the Transvaal Province and the former German Southwest Africa. The Cape-to-Cairo Railway passes through it. A resident commissioner administers affairs under the high commissioner for South Africa. The **area** is 275,000 square miles and the **population** in 1911 was 125,350, including 1,692 Europeans.

RHODESIA.

Rhodesia perpetuates the name of the British financier and statesman, Cecil Rhodes. The region extends from the Transvaal Province northwards. Its neighbors are Portuguese East Africa, Nyasaland, the former German East Africa, Belgian Congo, Angola, and Bechuanaland. The British South Africa Company, chartered in 1889, administers the whole territory. It is divided by the Zambezi into Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia. Rhodesia is governed by an administrator, appointed by the Company, and an executive council. There is also a legislative council, partly appointed and partly elected by the registered voters.

Southern Rhodesia has an **area** of 149,000 square miles, and the estimated **population** (1918) was 770,000 natives and 37,000 Europeans. The country is rich in gold and other minerals; the total output in 1917 being valued at over $19,440,000; gold alone being in 1918 $12,791,500. The Rhodesian railway system extends from Cape of Good Hope Province northwards to the Belgian Congo.

Northern Rhodesia has an **area** of about 291,000 square miles and an estimated **population** (1918) of 890,000 natives and 2,400 Europeans. The government is vested in a resident commissioner and an advisory council of five members. Timber is plentiful and the agricultural products are corn, cotton, tobacco, and wheat. Rubber is also produced.

SWAZILAND.

Swaziland is situated at the southeastern corner of the Transvaal. It is under the control of the British government, which is exercised by the high commissioner for South Africa. Its agricultural crops are corn and tobacco. The territory is rich in minerals and in 1917–18 the output of tin was valued at $291,600. The **area** is 6,678 square miles and the **population** (1911) 99,959, of whom 98,000 are Zulus.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

The Union of South Africa, established by act of Parliament, September 20, 1909 (actually united May 31, 1910), consists of the four self-governing colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange Free State. The British government appoints a governor-general, who in turn designates an executive council of ministers responsible to the South African Parliament.

The legislative power is vested in a Parliament consisting of a Senate and a House of Assembly, which may be summoned or prorogued by the governor-general; and the Assembly may be dissolved and new elections called for.

The Senate consists of 40 members, of whom, until 1920, eight were nominated by the governor-general and 32 elected, eight for each province. The senators must be British subjects of European descent, of thirty years of age, and possessing property to the value of $2,500. The House of Assembly consists of 130 members, 51 for the Cape of Good Hope, 17 for Natal, 45 for Transvaal, 17 for Orange Free State. Members must be British subjects of European descent, and resident five years in the Union.

Each province is governed by an administrator appointed nominally by the governor-general of South Africa, actually by a ministry for the time being, and by a provincial council, elected for three years, which has authority to deal with finance, education, charity, municipal institutions, local works, and other matters delegated to them.

Religion and Education. The majority of the white people (693,898) are adherents of the Dutch Protestant churches. There are over 250,000 Anglicans, 80,000 Wesleyans, 58,000 Presbyterians, 53,000 Roman Catholics. Education other than higher education is in the control of the provinces, but the federal department of education is concerned with nine universities and colleges, at which are 2,077 students.

Industry and Production. In agriculture, wheat has been increasingly cultivated and the crop of 1917 was estimated at five and a half million bushels. The corn crop for the same year was estimated at 36,000,000 bushels. The production of cheese and butter is also important and there are vast herds of cattle and flocks of sheep and goats. The production of wool for 1917 was 117,000,000 lbs., and of mohair 3,000,000 lbs. The growth of cotton is being undertaken with great success. Tobacco and tea are also produced.

The chief source of the country's wealth, however, is gold and diamond mining. In 1917 the output of the gold mines was valued at $184,680,000 and of diamonds at $34,020,000. The total production of diamonds in South Africa up to the end of 1917 is given as $889,380,000 and of gold $2,687,580,000. It is estimated that the Union contains 56 billion tons of coal and in 1917, 10,000,000 tons were mined. Other valuable mineral products are copper, silver, and tin.

Defense. The defense forces consist of the permanent force — South African mounted riflemen of five regiments. There is also a coast garrison force, a citizen force, the royal naval volunteer reserve, and special reserves. South Africa furnished 150,000 troops to the British forces in the World War.

The **area** of the Union is 473,100 square miles; the **population** (1911) was 5,973,394, of whom 4,697,152 were native or colored and 1,276,242 European.

PROVINCES OF THE UNION.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The colony of the **Cape of Good Hope** was originally founded by the Dutch in 1652. Great Britain occupied it from 1795 to 1803 and again from 1806 until 1814, when it was formally ceded to Great Britain. It had a responsible government from 1872 to 1910 when it formed one of the original provinces of the South African Union. It is divided into 119 administrative districts, and there are 126 municipalities and 78 village-management boards. The area is 276,966 sq. miles; the population (1911) was 2,564,965, of whom 619,319 were Europeans. There were 1,437,688 Christians, and 1,047,233 natives of no religion. Education is compulsory for children of European extraction, and there were 121,000 European pupils and 148,000 non-Europeans.

Production and Industry. The majority of the diamonds produced in South Africa come from Cape of Good Hope Province.

NATAL.

Natal was annexed to Cape Colony (now Cape of Good Hope Province) in 1844, given a separate government in 1845, and responsible government in 1893. The province of Zululand was annexed to Natal in 1897. In 1910 Natal became one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa. It has a seaboard of about 360 miles. The climate is well suited to Europeans, being semitropical on the coast and somewhat colder inland.

Education. The province maintains 169 primary schools, seven intermediate schools, and seven secondary schools, with various special schools. In 1917 there were over 21,000 Europeans attending the government and inspected schools, and over 28,000 colored children receiving education. About 1,000 children attend private, unaided schools.

Production and Industry. There are vast sugar plantations on the coast of Zululand, which in 1917–18 produced 130,000 tons, while tea and cereals of all kinds grow abundantly. Natal has a small gold production. Its coal production in 1917 was over 2,000,000 tons. The whaling industry is also important.

The **area** of Natal (including Zululand, which is 10,424 square miles) is 35,291 square miles. The **population** (1911) was 1,194,043, of whom 98,000 were Europeans. The European population has more than doubled since 1891.

TRANSVAAL.

The Transvaal was colonized by the Boers in 1836–37, and its independence was recognized by Great Britain in 1852. In 1877 it was annexed by the British government, but after the rebellion of 1880 its independence was recognized under certain conditions. The discovery of gold in "the Rand" (see rand, in the *Dict.*) and the consequent influx of foreigners produced friction leading to the South African War (1899–1902), which resulted, in 1900, in the annexation of the Transvaal. In 1906 it received responsible government, and in 1910 became one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa.

Religion and Education. The Dutch Protestant churches are the strongest religious denomination.

The primary and elementary schools are maintained by the province and consist of 900 primary schools, with 85,000 pupils; 19 intermediate, and 11 secondary, schools, with over 3,000 pupils; 350 state and state-aided schools for colored, native, and Indian children, with 28,000 pupils.

Industry and Production. Transvaal is a great stock-raising country, with vast flocks of sheep and goats. Large areas are adapted for agriculture, and the corn and tobacco crops are important. The greatest resources, however, are gold (1917) $184,680,000, diamonds $8,103,000, and coal $7,708,000.

Transvaal has an **area** of 110,450 square miles, and is divided into twenty-four districts. The **population** (1911) was 1,686,212, of whom 420,562 were Europeans or whites. The European population is increasing.

ORANGE FREE STATE.

Europeans first crossed the Orange River in the middle of the eighteenth century, and made settlements in 1810 and 1820. In 1848 the whole territory, including the Vaal, was proclaimed a British possession, but in 1854 British sovereignty was withdrawn. In the South African War the Orange Free State sided with the South African Republic (now Transvaal Province), and as a result was annexed, in 1900, as the Orange River Colony. It was governed as a crown colony until 1907, when it received responsible government, and in 1910 it became a part of the Union of South Africa.

Religion and Education. The principal religious denomination is the Dutch Reformed Church, with 175,000 adherents.

Primary and secondary education are controlled by the province, which is divided into school districts, for each of which there is a school board. In 1917 there were 731 public, and 137 aided private, schools, with 36,938 pupils. Attendance is compulsory, but fees are charged at all the schools. Both Dutch and English are taught to all children unless objected to by the parents. There are several institutions of higher instruction: a normal school, a polytechnic college, and an industrial school.

Industry and Production. The province is well adapted for grazing, and stock farming is the chief industry, although an increasing quantity of grain is being produced. The province produced in 1917, $4,551,800 worth of diamonds and $1,056,000 worth of coal.

The province has an **area** of 50,389 square miles, and is divided into 24 districts. The **population** (1911) was 175,189 whites, 352,985 colored.

Chronology.

Union of South Africa.

1487. Dias rounds Cape of Good Hope.

1652. *April.* **Dutch East India Company** starts a station **at Cape Town** (Table Bay).

1795. *Sept. 16.* First English occupation of **Cape Colony.** Though restored by Treaty of Amiens (1802), colony is again captured in 1806.

1814. *Aug. 13.* British possession is confirmed by treaty with Netherlands. Colony then had about 30,000 inhabitants (Boers).

1820. Beginning of British assisted immigration; about 5,000 arrive within a year, and are located on new land in Albany.

1824. Beginning of Natal; settlement at Durban of a few Englishmen.

1825. *Jan. 1.* **English** made the official **language.**

1834. *Dec. 1.* **Slavery abolished** under British act of August 28, 1833. Colonists resent it and suffer from lack of reasonable equivalent; instrumental in changing country from agricultural to pastoral.

1836. Beginning of the **emigration** (trek) **of the Boers** to the region beyond the Orange River and British sphere (see *great trek*, under great, in the *Dict.*), where they formed what became later the **Orange Free State** and **South African Republic.** Some go to Natal.

1842. British military force sent against Boers in Natal, and on May 12, 1843, the **colony of Natal is proclaimed.** Attached to Cape Colony, but made separate colony July 12, 1856, and given a constitution; in 1893 responsible government.

1852. *Jan. 17.* **Sand River Convention** acknowledges independence of Boers north of Vaal River (**South African Republic**).

1854. *Feb. 23.* Following a defeat by Basutos and conferences with Boer settlers, British acknowledge **independence of Orange River territory** (Free State).

June 30. **First parliament** of Cape Colony meets; representative government having been authorized by British government May 23, 1850.

1859. Beginning of railroad construction.

1868. *March 12.* **Basutoland** proclaimed British territory; for a while annexed to Cape Colony (1871–1883), but later directly governed.

1869–1871. Discovery and development of the **diamond fields,** especially at **Kimberley.** Jurisdiction over the field contested by Orange Free State, but most of it put under British control (Griqualand West) and the Free State given a pecuniary indemnity. Field incorporated in Cape Colony in 1877. [**Cape Colony.**]

1872. Responsible government introduced in

1875. *Dec. 11.* Treaty on boundaries of Portuguese East Africa and South African Republic.

1877. *April 12.* Proclamation declaring South African Republic to be British territory, a phase of Disraeli's imperialistic policy. State of republic then so low people unable to resist the action beyond a formal protest. British commission assumes government. Plans for confederation of South African colonies fail.

1879. Zulu War; ends with **defeat of Cetewayo,** the Zulu king, at Ulundi by Wolseley (July 4), and capture later of the king. [He begins.]

1880. *Dec. 16.* **Revolt of South African Republic.**

1881. *Feb. 27.* Defeat of British at **Majuba Hill.**

March 6. Armistice followed by the Convention of Pretoria, August 3, by which the Republic secures self-government under British suzerainty.

1884. *Feb. 27.* **Convention of London;** practical **independence** for South African Republic, except for British veto on treaties with other nations.

1885. *Sept. 30.* British jurisdiction proclaimed over (British) Bechuanaland; annexed to Cape Colony, October 3, 1895.

1886. Discovery of gold in the Rand, S. A. R., followed by development of **Johannesburg,** and **great influx** of outside capital and **foreigners,** to whose demands for equitable political and other rights and treatment the Boer government steadily refuses to yield, being determined to hold political power. ("*Uitlander*" [foreigner] controversy.)

1887. *May 14.* Zululand declared a British possession; added to Natal, December 1, 1897.

1889. *March 28.* Convention for customs union between Cape Colony and Orange Free State. Union extends also later to Natal and Bechuanaland protectorate, Basutoland, Swaziland, and Rhodesia.

Oct. 29. Incorporation of the **British South Africa Company** (Cecil Rhodes guiding spirit), to operate north of British Bechuanaland and south of the Zambezi; but administration over Bechuanaland protectorate never exercised.

1890. *June 30.* Order in council for Bechuanaland protectorate; further order on May 9, 1891.

July 1. Treaty delimiting **German** and **British spheres** in Africa; defines British spheres as to Cape Colony, Bechuanaland protectorate, present Rhodesia, and Nyasaland.

1891. *February.* Field of the British South Africa Company extended north of the Zambezi; not to include Nyasaland. [over Nyasaland.]

May 14. Notification of British protectorate.

June 11. Treaty delimiting **Portuguese and British spheres;** including Angola and Portuguese East Africa on one part, and present Rhodesia, Nyasaland, and Natal on the other part.

1893. War with the Matabele.
Cape Town and Port Elizabeth connected by railroad with Johannesburg and Pretoria.

1894. *May 12.* Treaty delimiting British and Belgian Congo spheres, including present Rhodesia.

July 18. Matabeleland, Southern Rhodesia, placed under British South Africa Company.

Oct. 3. **Railroad** from Cape Town north (**Cape to Cairo**) opened to Mafeking.

1895. Railroads from Lourenço Marques to Pretoria and from Durban to Pretoria, via Johannesburg, opened.

Dec. 29. **Jameson Raid;** premature march into South African Republic of 500 horsemen of British South Africa Company with artillery, in connection with **conspiracy of Rhodes** and foreigners at Johannesburg to rise against Boer government; raiders defeated and captured (January 2, 1896). Sixty-four of reform committee at Johannesburg arrested. Fruitless negotiations between Transvaal and British government ensue; question of British suzerainty and rights of foreigners (**uitlanders**); both sides making military preparations. [**missioner** for South Africa.]

1897–1905. Sir Alfred (Lord) **Milner high com-**

1897. Cape-to-Cairo Railroad opened to Bulawayo, in Southern Rhodesia.

1899. *May 1.* Salisbury in Southern Rhodesia (Mashonaland) connected by railroad with coast at Beira in Portuguese East Africa.

Oct. 12. **Boers issue ultimatum** demanding withdrawal of British troops from frontier; refused, and the two republics, South African Republic and Orange Free State (in alliance) begin **South African War** by besieging Mafeking and Kimberley, and invading Cape Colony, and Natal, where siege is laid to **Ladysmith. British defeated in series of battles** for relief of Ladysmith (Colenso, December 15; **Spion Kop,** January 23, 1900; and **Vaal Krantz,** February 5); also at **Magersfontein** (December 10–11) and **Stormberg** (Dec. 10).

Nov. 28. Northwestern Rhodesia put under administration of British South Africa Company.

Dec. 18. **Lord Roberts** made commander in chief of British forces; **Kitchener,** chief of staff.

1900. *Jan. 29.* Northeastern Rhodesia put under the British South Africa Company.

Feb. 15. Relief of Kimberley. February 27, Cronje, Boer commander, surrenders to Roberts at Paardeberg. February 28, Ladysmith relieved; May 17, Mafeking relieved.

May 24. **Orange Free State annexed** as Orange River Colony, later again known as Orange Free State.

May 31. **Johannesburg** occupied. On June 5, Roberts enters **Pretoria.**

Sept. 1. **South African Republic annexed** as Transvaal. Roberts goes home, leaving Kitchener in charge. **Boers** resort to **guerilla warfare,** conducted under Botha and De Wet, compelling large British force to keep the field.

1902. *May 31.* **Peace of Vereeniging;** honorable terms received by the Boers, but independence surrendered. British employ about 450,000 men in the war; Boers (including Cape Colony rebels), about 95,000. British **casualties:** 5,774 killed, 22,829 wounded; Boers had about 3,700 killed. **War cost** Great Britain $1,000,000,000.

1903. Chamberlain, colonial secretary, visits South Africa on matters of reconstruction; chief problems are labor, the war contributions of the conquered republics, and the language question. Boers also demand responsible government.
Salisbury, Southern Rhodesia, connected with the **Cape-to-Cairo Railroad,** giving a continuous line between Beira and Cape Town.

August. Convention for customs union, with preference of 25% to United Kingdom.

1904. *Feb. 18.* **Jameson becomes premier** of Cape Colony; his conservative ministry finds Dutch support.

April 25. **Cape-to-Cairo Railroad** reaches Victoria Falls on the Zambezi.

June 22. Arrival of **first** shipment of **Chinese** contract **coolies** to work in mines. Deemed temporarily necessary by Lord Milner, governor of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, sufficient number of blacks not being available, and whites unwilling to work with blacks. Popular opposition. Number of coolies reaches 50,000 next year, but policy is then reversed and in 1910 last of them sent back to Hongkong.

1905–1910. Lord Selbourne high commissioner.

1905. *Dec. 6.* **Responsible government in Transvaal;** idea of a war contribution has been dropped. **Language question** (Taal and English) ultimately **compromised;** higher education to be entirely in English, lower education bilingual.

1906. *Dec. 1.* Order in council transfers Swaziland from Transvaal to crown administration, as in Basutoland; this leaves Zululand alone of the great native reservations under colonial (Natal) control.

1907. *July 1.* Responsible government proclaimed for Orange Free State.

1908. *Oct. 12.* National Convention meets at Durban, later at Cape Town; forms a **constitution for Union of South Africa** composed of Cape Colony, Transvaal, Orange Free State, and Natal, which is promulgated February 9, but later amended, and finally approved by the British Parliament on September 20, 1909. Suffrage problem; Dutch, having a majority in the Union, require that it be limited to men of European origin; native suffrage continues in Cape Colony but can be abrogated by a two-thirds vote of Union Parliament. Other portions of South Africa may be admitted to Union.

1910. *May 31.* **Union of South Africa proclaimed.** Lord **Gladstone** sworn in as **governor-general. Botha,** a Boer general, heads first **ministry.**

July 1. New customs union formed; includes Union of South Africa and all the other British possessions in South Africa.

Nov. 4. Duke of Connaught opens **first parliament** of Union.

1911. Cape-to-Cairo Railroad crosses Congo border and is completed to Elizabethville in that colony.

May 7. Population of Union of South Africa 5 973,394, of whom 1,276,242 are whites.

1912. *June 18.* **South Africa Defense Act;** includes a permanent force, coast-garrison force, active and general-citizen force, and naval reserve. Peace training for all men between 21 and 25.

1913. *June–July.* **Strike** of white miners **in Rand** under syndicalist propaganda; rioting at Johannesburg on July 4; martial law next day.

November. Strike of Indian workers in Natal, due to race discrimination; sporadic rioting, also passive resistance. In 1914 a parliamentary Indians Relief Act accepted as sufficient settlement of grievances.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Jan. 8–22.* **Railway strike,** followed by syndicalist call for a general strike.
Martial law is proclaimed and leaders arrested. January 24, nine of **strike leaders deported** to London. Indemnity Act, March 19, protects government officials against punishment for illegal acts. Other legislation aimed against labor agitation, but a Workmen's Compensation Act also passed.

August. Outbreak of World War involves South Africa as part of British Empire. Forces raised. Part of the Dutch seize opportunity to rise.

September. Sydney (Lord) **Buxton governor-general.**

October. Several parties of **Boers** under Maritz, De Wet, Beyers, and Kemp **revolt** through German intrigue; speedily **suppressed by Botha** with force of 20,000 Dutch and 10,000 British. **De Wet captured** December 1, later convicted of high treason but released; Kemp also captured February 1, 1915; Beyers killed; and Maritz, escaping into German Southwest Africa, executed by Germans for treachery.

1915. *February.* Botha begins **invasion of German Southwest Africa;** some 27,500 British and 22,500 Boer troops participate; Windhuk, the capital, occupied on May 12, and formal **surrender of territory** made on July 8.

Oct. 20. **General election;** bitter contest; **Botha** and war policy **sustained** by 54 seats for his party (South African) and 40 for Unionists; Nationalists, Dutch, led by Hertzog, who keep up a steady opposition to the war and British connection, get 27 seats; Independents, 6; and Laborites, 3.

December. First contingent of **South African troops for overseas** reaches England; about 70,000 are sent out during the war.

1916. South African troops participate in **campaign against German East Africa;** Jan Christiaan Smuts commands. Daressalam, the capital, occupied on September 4.

1917. Campaign continues in German East Africa; Van Deventer succeeds Smuts, who goes to England and becomes a member of the war cabinet there. At end of year territory is cleared; German troops driven into Portuguese territory.

1918. Population of Union 6,872,164, including 1,467,457 whites. [Congo at Bukama.]

May 22. **Cape-to-Cairo railway** reaches the

Nov. 14. After armistice, German force of **East Africa surrenders.** Total S. African force in war about 150,000; casualties: 6,533 killed, 11,661 wounded, 1,637 prisoners and missing.

Dec. 2. Botha leaves to attend Peace Conference, to which Smuts is also a delegate. Smuts draws up a plan for a League of Nations.

1919. *March.* **Strike at Johannesburg** with revolutionary tendencies. Strikers take possession of public service and set up a board of control. Dies out. [**ceeds.**]

Aug. 28. Premier **Botha dies; Smuts suc-**

Sept. 12. **Treaty of Versailles ratified** by South Africa.

1920. *March 10.* **General elections.** Laborites gain, Nationalists (Dutch) do not. Ministry retains majority by help of Unionists and Independents.

BRITISH WEST AFRICA.

British West Africa includes the colony and protectorate of Nigeria, the Gambia colony and protectorate, the Gold Coast colony with Ashanti and the Northern Territories, and the Sierra Leone colony and protectorate.

Nigeria lies between Dahomey and Kamerun. The colonies and protectorates in this region were amalgamated, January 1, 1914, into the colony and protectorate of Nigeria, with the capital at Lagos. It is a crown colony under the control of a governor-general and executive council. Slavery was not completely abolished until 1917. In 1917 there were in the northern province over 24,000 Mohammedan schools, with 200,000 pupils, and in the southern province there were over a thousand government and private schools, with an attendance of 53,000. The chief products are palm oil, rubber, groundnuts, ivory, ostrich feathers, hides, and cotton. There are rich deposits of tin in the northern province and of coal in the southern province. The **area** is about 332,000 square miles and the **population** (1918) about 16,750,000.

Gambia is at the mouth of the river Gambia and has an area of four square miles with a population of 8,000. The protectorate has an area of 4,500 sqnare miles and a population of 200,000. The chief exports are groundnnts, hides, palm kernels, and gold.

The Gold Coast extends 334 miles along the Gulf of Guinea between the French Ivory Coast and Togoland. It is a crown colony, and with Ashanti and the protectorate of the Northern Territories, has an area of about 80,000 square miles. The population in 1911 was 1,500,000. The chief exports are cocoa, gold and gold dust, kola nuts, lumber, palm kernels, palm oil, and rubber.

Ashanti has been under British protection since 1896, and was annexed by Great Britain in 1901. The population (1911) was 287,814. The chief products are cocoa, rubber, and gold. Ashanti is rich in forests, rubber-producing plants, and trees yielding fruits rich in oil.

The Northern territories lie between the French possessions and Togoland and were placed under British protection in 1901. They are said to contain wide gold areas.

Sierra Leone (colony) is between French Guinea and the republic of Liberia. The original colony was founded in 1787 for the purpose of making a

home for free negroes. Freetown, the capital, has an excellent harbor and ranks as the chief seaport of West Africa. The chief exports are palm kernels, kola nuts, and palm oil. The area is approximately 4,000 square miles and population (1911) 75,572, of whom 702 were whites.

The protectorate of **Sierra Leone**, with an area of 27,000 square miles and a population (1911) of 1,327,560, was established in 1896. The chief exports are palm kernels, kola nuts, and palm oil.

EGYPT.

Historical Outline.

Egypt was conquered by the Romans in 46 A. D., and its national existence ended with the establishment of the Arabian dominion in 641 A. D. For the next six centuries the country was one of the caliphates of Islam. In 1250, Egypt was conquered by the Mamelukes, originally Tatars and Turks, who from being a race of slaves, rose by insurrection to become the dominant people of the country. This line of sovereigns continued until 1382, when a new line, the Circassian Mamelukes took their place. In 1517 the Sultan Selim I. invaded and subdued Egypt. In the two centuries following, this dependency lost vitality, though it was never destroyed and the Mamelukes were still a power in Lower Egypt.

In 1798 Napoleon Bonaparte invaded Egypt and almost destroyed the Mamelukes in the battle of the Pyramids. Napoleon took Egypt as a station on the conqueror's road to Asia. After the unsuccessful siege of Acre he was obliged to give way, and in 1801 the French army evacuated the country.

In 1805 Mehemet Ali, the first viceroy of the country, gained virtual independence. He affected European methods and became a powerful ruler. In 1830 he made a successful invasion of Syria, and challenged the sultan to open war. In 1839 the Turks were defeated in the battle of Nizib. The Western powers came on the scene and obliged Mehemet Ali to resume his relation as a viceroy of the Ottoman Empire. The sultan, in 1848, appointed Ibrahim, son of Mehemet, as regent of Egypt. Thereafter, a succession of weak princes ruled Egypt till, in 1863, Ismail succeeded to the pashalic. Four years later he was designated by the sultan as khedive of Egypt.

Ismail tried to westernize his realm by lavish expenditure, subsidized the opera, and contracted large foreign debts. The completion of the canal across the Isthmus of Suez in 1869 gave Ismail great prestige in European countries and enabled him, in the name of the government, to borrow enormous sums of money for his personal use. In 1879 the reign broke down, he was expelled, and his son, Tewfik, was established in his stead. Tewfik was obliged to appeal to Western powers for aid. Not even the interest on the public debt could be paid.

In this emergency, Great Britain and France intervened, and from 1879 to 1883 Egyptian affairs were under the supervision of two controllers general, appointed by France and England. This humiliating condition of the Egyptians led to an insurrection in 1882; in a nationalistic movement Arabi Pasha, the minister of war, took the lead and raised a little army. England intervened and bombarded Alexandria, defeated Arabi Pasha, and restored Tewfik. In this intervention France had taken no part and as a result, in 1883, a single English financial advisor was appointed without whose concurrence no important financial decision could be made. France rather unwillingly acquiesced, but in the Anglo-French convention of 1904 gave her approval to the system.

Under Ismail and Tewfik the authority of Egypt was pushed up the Nile. In that distant region appeared the Mahdi (see in the *Dictionary*), one of the fanatical prophets who from time to time became leaders in the Sudan. He all but annihilated an Egyptian army under English officers, and the rule of the British was shaken.

In 1884 General Charles George Gordon (" Chinese Gordon ") was sent with a small British force into the Sudan. Left without support, he was cooped up in Khartum, and on January 26, 1885, the town was stormed and Gordon was killed, just as a British relief force was nearing. The British abandoned the Sudan until 1898, when General Kitchener defeated the dervishes at Omdurman and reoccupied Khartum.

In 1892 Abbas Hilmi Pasha succeeded his father, Tewfik, and showed considerable independence of, and irritation at, British control. For some of his acts he was forced to apologize publicly in the official gazette. The British were obliged to recognize the desire of the Egyptians for a share in their own government.

In 1913 a legislative assembly of 89 members (only 66 elected) was set up. In the first year of the World War, the khedive was deposed and Egypt became substantially an imperial colony, though nominally Hussein Kamil was recognized as sultan of Egypt. He died in 1917 and was succeeded by Fuad I.

During 1915 the Suez Canal was threatened by a Turkish force organized by the Germans. Egypt then became a base for a successful movement on Palestine, which was occupied in 1918. Pressure of the Egyptians for self-government was at once renewed.

Organization.

Production and Industry. In the region watered by the Nile the soil is extremely fertile and produces three crops each year. The chief exports are textiles and yarns, cereals, colonial produce (cotton seed, sugar, beans, cigarettes, etc.), hides, tobacco, animals, and animal food products.

Education and Religion. In 1919, there were about 200 schools under the immediate direction of the Egyptian government, at which there were nearly 35,000 pupils. In addition there were over 3,700 provincial schools, with nominally more than 228,000 pupils. Nine tenths of the population are Moslems and seven per cent Christian, including Copts, who are the lineal descendants of the ancient Egyptians.

Defense. The organization of the Egyptian army is in the hands of a British general with the title of sirdar. Service is compulsory, but only four per cent of the men liable are called upon. The total strength of the army was (1919) about 17,000. Before 1914, Great Britain kept an army of occupation of about 6,000.

The **area** of Egypt, excluding the Sudan, is about 350,000 square miles and the **population** (1917) 12,750,918.

ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN.

Sudan extends from the frontier of Egypt to Uganda and the Belgian Congo, and from the Red Sea to Wadai, in Central Africa. At various times a nominal authority was exerted over it by Egypt, but from 1882 until the victories of Kitchener in 1898 and 1899 there was no Egyptian influence there.

It is governed by a governor-general appointed by Egypt with the assent of Great Britain, assisted by a council. The Sudan is divided into fifteen provinces, over which are British officers.

In 1918 there were 63 elementary schools, with over 5,000 pupils, and Gordon College where pupils are trained for government positions and for teachers. A beginning has been made in the establishment of girls' schools.

Sudan is the chief source of the world's supply of gum arabic and ivory. Other important products are cotton, ostrich feathers, doom palm nuts, dates, hides, skins, and gold.

The **area** is 1,014,400 square miles and the estimated **population** (1917) 3,400,000.

Chronology.

Egypt and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

1517. Ottoman conquest ends rule of Mamelukes. A pasha is nominal ruler; much trouble with the army, and in the eighteenth century with the Mameluke **beys.**

1769. Ali Bey declares Egypt independent. He **gains control of Arabia and Syria,** but is betrayed by his general (1772) and nominal Turkish rule is resumed.

1798. Bonaparte defeats the Mamelukes at the **battle of the Pyramids,** July 21, and **occupies Lower Egypt,** the " road to India "; but defeat of French fleet at **battle of the Nile,** August 1, makes ultimate success impossible.

1799. Bonaparte's unsuccessful Syrian campaign is followed by his return to France without his army in October.

1801. Under compulsion of Turkish and British forces **French evacuate Egypt.**

1803. Rise of **Mehemet Ali,** head of Albanian troops in Egypt, who, after conquests for and against both pasha and beys, is made **pasha** himself (May, 1805).

1811. Mehemet Ali finally crushes the beys, and rules, practically independent, until 1847; economic progress and order, but severe repression of the people. [Hejaz).]

1811–1819. War in Arabia (see *Arabia*, under

1821–1833. Contest between Mehemet Ali and Turkey **over Syria;** former is recognized by convention of Kutaia, May 14, 1833, as pasha over Syria, Aleppo, and Adana.

1839–1841. Renewal of contest. **Powers** (France excluded) covenant, July 15, 1840, to **save Turkey.** Ibrahim, Mehemet Ali's son and general, driven out of Syria; but France saves Egypt for the pasha. Pashalic of Egypt is made hereditary in his family, February 13, 1841; later changed, May 27, 1866, to primogeniture.

1854. *Nov. 30.* Concession for the **Suez Canal** granted to De Lesseps; amplified on January 5, 1856; **construction begins** April 25, 1859.

1867. Title of **khedive** conferred on the pasha.

1869. *Nov. 16.* Formal **opening of Suez Canal.**

1875. Ismail's extravagances compel him to sell his **canal stock,** which **Great Britain purchases.** Subsequent foreign investigation shows impending national bankruptcy. A **dual control of the finances** by France and Great Britain, and international protection of foreign bondholders (*Caisse de la Dette*) are instituted.

1879. *June 26.* **Ismail is deposed** by Turkey at wishes of France and Great Britain; **Tewfik succeeds.** Evelyn **Baring** (Lord Cromer) becomes English agent in the dual control.

1882. Antiforeign anti-Christian party under Arabi gains control; **massacre at Alexandria,** June 11. **British fleet bombards city,** July 11. Turkey declining to suppress a Mussulmanic movement and France and Italy refusing to participate, **Great Britain** lands an army under Wolseley, and **suppresses the revolt** at the **battle of Tel el Kebir,** September 13. Army continues in occupation. Arabi Pasha sent to Ceylon as a state prisoner.

1883. *Jan. 18.* **Dual control ends;** English financial advisor or agent (Baring) instituted; virtual power behind the throne. **Baring reorganizes the nation;** great enonomic and social improvements.

Nov. 5. Annihilation of army of Hicks Pasha in the **Sudan,** where there is a **revolt** under a religious fanatic who proclaims himself the **Mahdi.**

1884. British government orders Egypt to abandon the Sudan; **Gordon,** former governor-general of region, arrives at **Khartum,** February 18, to plan evacuation. He is environed. British relief expedition under Wolseley starts up the Nile, but **Khartum is captured** and **Gordon killed** on January 26, 1885.

1885. Troops withdrawn from Sudan, May 11. Mahdi dies June 22. British public opinion much aroused over vacillation and delay of expedition.

1888. *Oct. 29.* **Suez Canal Convention** at Constantinople for neutralization of the waterway; Great Britain makes reservations which prevent ratification till April 8, 1904, when free passage in peace and war is affirmed for vessels of all nations.

1892. *Jan. 8.* **Tewfik dies; Abbas Hilmi** succeeds.

1896–1898. Renewal of **Sudan campaign** by **Kitchener,** sirdar of Egyptian army. By end of 1897 advance has occupied Berber (September 5), and railway is constructed from Wadi Halfa across Nubian Desert to that place. British troops are added to sirdar's army in 1898. On September 2, khalifa's (caliph's) army defeated before Omdurman, and **Khartum reoccupied** September 4. Power of rebels entirely destroyed.

1898. Fashoda Incident. French flag raised on White Nile, July 10, as part of plan to form a French belt across Africa at that latitude. Kitchener's advance frustrates it. War threatens, but by agreement of March 21, 1899, France renounces the Nile valley and British sphere is extended over Libyan Desert.

1899. *Jan. 19.* Agreement for **joint administration of Sudan** by Egypt and Great Britain.

Dec. 12. **Railway** between Wadi Halfa and Khartum (**Cape to Cairo**) **opened** to traffic.

1902. *Dec. 10.* Formal opening of the **Assuan Dam** on the Nile; a great irrigation project.

1904. *April 8.* **Anglo-French declaration** recognizes **dominance** of France in Morocco and of Great Britain **in Egypt.** Other powers recognize British control later.

Nov. 28. Powers approve of a decree restoring Egyptian financial independence; *Caisse de la Dette* abolished. [becomes prominent.]

1905. Nationalist and **Pan-Islamic movement**

October. Khartum is connected by railway with Port Sudan on Red Sea.

1906. *May 14.* Turkish-Egyptian agreement assigns Sinai Peninsula to Egypt.

1907. *April 11.* **Cromer resigns;** Gorst succeeds as British agent.

1910. *Feb. 21.* Egyptian premier killed by a Nationalist, because of his British sympathy.

1911. *July 15.* **Kitchener** is appointed British **agent.**

1912. *February.* Railway opened between Khartum and El Obeid; Cairo-El Obeid line completes northern portion of **Cape-to-Cairo project.**

1913. *July 21.* **Changes in parliamentary system;** one legislative assembly, with a majority of indirectly elected members, displaces two former consultative bodies. It possesses some right of **initiating legislation,** but final legislative power remains in the government.

July 25. Khedive is wounded by a Nationalist.

1914. *Dec. 18.* **British protectorate over Egypt** is proclaimed and Turkish suzerainty abolished, following war with Turkey. Abbas is deposed, December 20, and **Hussein Kamil** elevated, with title of **sultan.** Protectorate recognized by allied and neutral powers. Vessels of Germany and her allies not allowed to use the canal for commerce or passage of warships.

1915. *January.* March of 40,000 **Turkish troops** under Djemal by three routes across Sinai to **invade Egypt.** Force defending canal consists of Egyptians, British, Anzacs, and Indians. Attempt to pass canal on Febrnary 3 fails, and **Turks retreat.**

1915 (*continued*).

November. **Invasion of western Egypt** by 30,000 Moslems under a Senussi leader; beaten back after a campaign of five months.

1916. *August.* Attack of 18,000 Turks under Kressenstein against British force at Romani at the head of the railway being established across Sinai. Turks defeated and retire, being finally driven from Rafa on January 9, 1917, and **Sinai cleared.** Railway pushed forward in preparation for Allenby's campaign in Syria.

1917. *Oct. 9.* **Ahmed Fuad becomes sultan** as Fuad I. on death of Hussein.

1918. *May.* Cairo is joined by railway bridge across the canal with the Sinai–Palestine system, giving rail connection from Central Africa with Constantinople and Europe.

1919. *March.* **Revolt** at Cairo, Alexandria, and elsewhere by Nationalists, predatory element, and Bedouins; soldiers off duty are special object of attack. Further **rioting** occurs later in month when Allenby releases imprisoned Nationalists. Some 2,000 natives sentenced for participation.

April 21. General strike and resignation of the president of the council. Following a warning proclamation by Allenby, the civil officials return to their duties.

June 28. In the Treaty of Versailles, Germany recognizes the British protectorate over Egypt and renounces all special privileges and rights in the region, including exterritoriality.

Nov. 24. Nationalist **rioting** and a ministerial crisis occur; **Moslem unrest** over future of Turkey is an element in the trouble.

Dec. 14. Attempted assassination of the premier by a student.

1920. *Jan. 2.* **Milner mission,** sent to study the situation on the basis of autonomy under British protection, is told by head of the Egyptian Moslems that the **people demand independence.**

May 11. **Treaty of peace** is handed to **Turkish delegates;** by it Turkey relinquishes all claim to Egypt, recognizes the British protectorate, and surrenders to Great Britain all Suez Canal rights.

BRITISH COLONIES AND POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.

CANADA.

Historical Outline.

England began to colonize America as early as 1567; and at one time held as colonies the whole area of the present United States east of the Mississippi. That possession was lost in the American Revolution, and in 1846 Great Britain gave up claim to the Oregon country south of 49°. Otherwise, nearly every island and continental area that Great Britain has ever occupied in the two Americas is still British.

The Dominion of Canada is a fine example of the colonizing ability of Great Britain. The difficulty of organizing the provinces of Canada into a federation, leaving to the crown the central authority, was great. The whole region reaching from Nova Scotia far into the interior was once possessed and colonized by the French. This Gallic foundation had to be taken into account, but English institutions have fixed themselves alike in old French Canada and in those parts colonized by Great Britain herself.

Old Canada, often called Quebec, included that country between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Lakes Superior and Huron. The modern Dominion of Canada embraces Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island as well as the great region of the Northwest — Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, and the Northwest Territories. The total area, excluding the water surfaces, is 3,603,910 square miles, which is greater than that of the United States inclusive of Alaska and Hawaii. The Hudson's Bay Company's claims to the western half of this domain were in 1869 purchased for $1,460,000.

The French who penetrated the valley of the St. Lawrence set up a mild feudalism, which had no permanent effect. The last traces disappeared in 1854. In the latter part of the 17th century the city of Quebec became the seat of administration for Montreal, Quebec, and Three Rivers. The governing body was the governor, the bishop of Quebec, five associate judges, and the king's attorney. To this period also belong the discoveries and explorations of La Salle. He explored the Great Lakes and the river systems and reached the Mississippi, which he descended to its mouth. His great and rational plans of colonization drew the attention of France to the possibilities of an empire in the New World.

In the struggle between the British and French nations for colonial empire, the first weakening of the French was shown in the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, by which Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, and Acadia were relinquished to Great Britain. The American possessions of France were restricted thenceforth to the valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. The contest was renewed in 1744, and again in 1754. After seven years' conflict, England was victorious. New France was conquered. Canada was transferred to Great Britain; Louisiana, to Britain and Spain.

At the time of the Treaty of Paris (1763), the total population of Canada was scarcely more than 65,000. Primitive manners still prevailed. The chief interests of the people were in the fur trade, and hardy and adventurous trappers traversed the forests far into the interior. Nevertheless the Canadians were an agricultural people easily supporting themselves.

The transfer to England brought great changes in the social and industrial as well as the political condition of the country. Within ten years exports increased threefold and amounted to $1,775,000, and the import trade amounted to $1,367,000.

Just before the outbreak of the American Revolution, the British government passed the Quebec Act (1774), by which the province of Quebec was governed by a legislative council appointed by the crown and the Roman Catholic Church was established by law. Moreover, the limits of Quebec Province were extended to include the territory lying between the Great Lakes and the Ohio River.

This act greatly aroused the Thirteen Colonies, who expected to share in the founding of "back colonies," beyond the Alleghenies. At the outbreak of the American Revolution, the Thirteen Colonies vainly solicited the Canadians to make common cause against the mother country. A disastrous campaign of invasion was conducted by Montgomery and Arnold in the winter of 1775. Thenceforth, during the great conflict with Great Britain, Canada was a refuge for the American loyalists, who were welcomed and received lands.

Great Britain, after the Treaty of 1783, closed the ports of her colonies to the trade of the United States while granting Canada a valuable privilege in supplying the British West Indies with her principal exports. In 1822, the importation of wheat and lumber from the United States was conceded. From the beginning of her history, the question of trade and of the economic laws by which trade is governed has been one of the leading political questions in Canada.

After 1783, Canada remained a royal government. In 1791, however, a constitution was granted conceding to the Canadians the right to establish a government of their own with an elective legislature. The old French colony was designated henceforth as Lower Canada. Upper Canada, with an English-speaking population, was made a separate province. The civil and religious rights of the French Canadians were so well guaranteed by the constitution that the revolution in France did not react upon them or arouse them.

In the War of 1812 the Canadian frontier was the scene of the principal hostilities. Little battles were fought on the line of Niagara, and the St. Lawrence, but the Canadians with some British troops held their own. Later, jealousy grew up between Quebec and Ontario out of conflict of commercial and financial interests. An effort was made in 1822 for the union of Upper and Lower Canada, but this was not effected until 1840. In the year 1849 the free-trade policy of Great Britain was extended to the colonies, and the old restrictive navigation laws were finally abrogated.

At the same time the coal beds of Vancouver and the gold deposits of the British mainland were discovered. The organization of British Columbia, the first British province on the Pacific, followed. Efforts were made to do away with ecclesiastical endowments and other special interests. In 1854, the reserve privileges of the established clergy and the seigniorial tenures in property were annulled in Upper and Lower Canada. In the same year the Great Western Railway was undertaken — a work of the greatest importance in promoting the international relations and interests of Canada and the United States.

The American Civil War showed the strength of federation and, also, brought out the possibility of annexation by the great neighbor. After long discussions and controversies, the people of all the provinces came to an understanding. In 1867, the British North American Act was passed, by which all the eastern continental colonies were united, including Quebec and Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

In 1869, the possessions of the Hudson's Bay Company were purchased by Great Britain, and in 1870, what was then the vast territory of Manitoba became an independent province of the Dominion. In 1871, British Columbia was admitted as a member of the federation. In 1873, Prince Edward Island was admitted. Then, in 1882, came the organization of several northwestern territories. The territorial organization was completed by an order in council in 1895. By this decree the remaining portions of the Northwest Territories were divided into four districts, to which were given the names Ungava, Franklin, Mackenzie, and Yukon. In 1898, the Yukon Territory was made a separate political unit, and in 1905 Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabaska were reorganized as the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta and admitted to the Union. Ungava was annexed to Quebec Province in 1912. The Dominion now consists of nine provinces, the Yukon Territory, and the Northwest Territories, which last in 1920 were redivided into the provisional districts of Franklin, Mackenzie, and Keewatin.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of Canada depends upon the British North America Act of 1867, which provides that the constitution of the Dominion shall be "similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom." The executive authority is vested in the crown of Great Britain and Ireland, but carried on by a governor-general and a privy council (King's Privy Council) which is virtually the ministry for the time being. The ministers are designated by the governor-general and are responsible to the party having a majority in the lower house of Parliament, that is, to the House of Commons. Thus parliamentary responsibility is established.

The King's Privy Council consists of the prime minister, usually called the premier, the president of the Council, the secretary of state and minister of mines, the ministers for the departments of Trade and Commerce; Justice; Marine, Fisheries and Naval Service; Militia and Defense; Militia and Defense (overseas); postmaster-general; ministers of Agriculture; Public Works; Finance; Railways and Canals; Interior; Customs and Inland Revenue; Labor; Immigration and Colonization; Soldiers' Civil Reëstablishment; and two members without portfolios. These ministers form the responsible cabinet; and their chief, the prime minister, is the head of the government.

The legislature consists of a Senate nominated for life by the governor-general. It now consists of 96 members. The total number must never exceed 104. Senators must be at least thirty years of age and possess property, either real or personal, to the value of $4,000, within the province from which they are appointed.

The House of Commons is elected by the people for a term of five years, unless sooner dissolved, one representative for every 30,819 persons. The Province of Quebec chooses 65 members and the other provinces proportionally according to their populations. In 1919, the House of Commons consisted of 234 members — 82 for Ontario, 65 for Quebec, 16 for Nova Scotia, 11 for New Brunswick, 15 for Manitoba, 13 for British Columbia, 3 for Prince Edward Island, 16 for Saskatchewan, 12 for Alberta, and one for Yukon Territory. At the election held in 1917, the Unionist party obtained 151 seats against 81 for all other parties.

Under the constitution, the Dominion government, unlike that of the United States, is endowed with all the powers not assigned exclusively by this document to the provincial legislatures. Each of the nine provinces has a separate Parliament and administration, with a lieutenant governor designated by the governor-general. The provincial prime minister corresponds to the governor of a State, with large legislative powers added. The provincial prime ministers have full powers to manage local affairs and dispose of their revenue, provided they do not interfere with the action and policy of the Dominion administration. They may amend their provincial constitutions (except as regards the office of lieutenant governor), levy taxes, borrow money, manage the sale of crown lands within the province, and exercise general police power except over lines of ships, railways, canals, and telegraphs which extend beyond the province or connect with other provinces. The federal Parliament, however, may declare certain public works for the general good and thus withdraw them from the control of the provincial Parliaments.

Production and Industry. Canada is a great agricultural country, providing enormous quantities of field crops, the value of which in 1917 was estimated at $1,145,000,000. In 1918, the wheat crop was estimated at 210,000,000 bushels; barley, 83,000,000; oats, 456,000,000; potatoes, 105,000,000; flax, 7,695,000; and hay and clover, 14,495,000 tons. There are enormous ranches in Canada and a large amount of live stock. According to the returns for 1918, there were 3,000,000 horses, 3,000,000 milch cows, 6,000,000 other cattle, 3,000,000 sheep, 4,000,000 swine. For 1917, the important dairy products were creamery butter to the value of $34,000,000, factory cheese valued at $41,000,000, evaporated condensed milk and cream valued at $6,000,000, and other dairy products valued at nearly $12,000,000.

It is officially estimated that there are between 500 and 600 million acres of timber land, and the forest products for 1916 were valued at $190,000,000.

The Atlantic provinces have a coast line of over 5,000 miles, and on the Pacific coast the meandering line of British Columbia is 7,000 miles. In addition there are 220,000 square miles of fresh water, abundantly stocked with fish. In 1917, the total value of the produce of the fisheries of Canada was $52,000,000. The principal kinds of fish caught were salmon, codfish, lobsters, herring, halibut, haddock, sardines, and whitefish, and the exports in fish were valued at $32,000,000.

Canada has great mineral resources, and in 1917 its mineral products were valued at $192,982,837. The principal products in order of value were coal, nickel, copper, pig iron, and silver.

With the consent of the British government, Canada maintains a protective tariff with a differential of about 15% on values in favor of the mother country. The tariff and the growth of business caused by the war resulted in a threefold increase of manufactures in the two years between 1915 and 1917. The following are the largest industries: food products, valued at $388,000,000; textiles, $144,000,000; timber, $123,000,000; iron and steel, $120,000,000.

On December 31, 1917, there were 4,925 sailing vessels and 4,264 steamers registered, with a total net tonnage of 971,438. The canal, river, and lake navigation of Canada covers over 2,700 miles and 28,000 trips aggregating 20,000,000 in tonnage were made through Canadian canals in 1917.

In 1917, the total length of the railways was 38,604 miles; an increase of 1,170 miles over the previous year. The government railways in operation are 3,944 miles in length. The Canadian Pacific railway extends from Montreal to Vancouver, and is 2,902 miles in length. This railway and a line of Pacific steamers bring Liverpool and Yokohama within twenty-five days of each other by "The All-Red Line." The Grand Trunk Pacific Railway was completed in 1914, from Moncton, New Brunswick, by way of Quebec, Winnipeg, Saskatoon, and Edmonton to the Pacific coast at Prince Rupert, British Columbia. It has a length of about 3,600 miles, is entirely within British territory, and forms a link in the shortest route between Europe and Asia.

Education is controlled by the provincial authorities on systems based upon the principle of free education; although education is more or less compulsory, the law is not strictly enforced. In Quebec the public schools are partly Catholic and partly Protestant. In Alberta, Ontario, Quebec, and Saskatchewan there are separate schools for Roman Catholics. Elsewhere the schools are nonsectarian.

Each province has at least one university — 22 in all, with about 16,000 students. The most important of these are McGill University, Montreal, the University of Toronto, and the French Canadian University of Laval. In the school year 1916–17 there were more than 1,300,000 pupils in attendance on 27,000 schools.

Defense. By the Militia Act of 1904, the land forces are divided into the active and reserve militia. Service in the active militia is voluntary for three-year enlistments. In case of need it is compulsory. The permanent force consisted of two regiments of cavalry, a brigade of horse artillery, a battalion of infantry, and other troops. British subjects between the ages of 18 and 60 who are not exempt or disqualified by law are liable for service in the militia.

The operation of the Militia Act and the organization of the military forces in Canada were suspended as a result of the World War, during which conscription was employed. There were, however, in 1919 about 12,000 troops for home defense. 418,052 troops of all ranks were sent to France up to October 31, 1918, and the total casualties amounted to 213,586.

Area and Population. The area of Canada (in part estimated, owing to lack of definite topographical information with reference especially to the northern stretches of the new provisional district of Franklin) is 3,729,665 square miles, including the water surfaces, and the population by the census of 1911 was 7,206,643 (1917, estimated, 8,361,000). Between 1914 and 1918, 347,774 immigrants arrived in Canada, of whom 188,030 were from the United States.

CANADIAN PROVINCES.

ALBERTA.

The district of Alberta was organized as part of the Northwest Territory in 1875, and admitted as a province of the Dominion in 1905. Alberta is preeminently an agricultural province, the area of arable land being 100,000,000 acres, about a twelfth of which is under cultivation at the present time. In 1917, the total value of the crops was $177,000,000, of which wheat, oats, barley, and flax were the most important. From 1880 to 1900 Alberta was the greatest ranching country in America, but farming has superseded cattle raising. Nevertheless, in 1918 there were over 300,000 milch cows, 1,362,000 other horned cattle, and the wool clip was estimated at 2,400,000 pounds, net. There are valuable coal deposits, and 11,000,000 acres of forest reserve. The **area** is 255,285 square miles and the **population** (1916) 496,525.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

British Columbia, first coasted by Spanish navigators, and more completely explored by Cook in 1778 and Vancouver in 1792, was for a time known as New Caledonia, and formed a portion of the Hudson's Bay Company's concession, but in 1858 was made a crown colony. In 1866 it was united with Vancouver Island, and in 1871 entered the Canadian confederation. British Columbia has vast mineral deposits and the value of the output in 1916 was $42,290,462; gold $5,000,000, copper $17,000,000, coal $7,000,000, lead $3,000,000, silver $4,000,000. It contains more than half the standing timber in Canada and it is estimated that there are about 50 billion feet board measure under the control of the Dominion. The **area** is 355,855 square miles and the **population** in 1919 was estimated at 400,000.

MANITOBA.

Manitoba, for two centuries the center of the Hudson's Bay Company's activities, then known as the Red River Settlement, entered the Dominion in 1870. Manitoba is the great grain-producing province of Canada, the value of its crops in 1917 being $137,471,000. In 1918, it produced over 55,000,000 bushels of wheat, 63,000,000 bushels of oats, 31,000,000 bushels of barley, 8,000,000 bushels of potatoes, and 5,000,000 bushels of rye. The province is believed to be rich in gold deposits and the value of the minerals, chiefly coal, produced in 1917 was $2,539,000. Manufacturing is prosperous and the value of the products in 1918 was over $61,000,000. The **area** is 251,832 square miles and the **population** (in 1916) was 553,860, more than double that of 1901. The capital, Winnipeg, has a population of 163,000.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Settlements were made in New Brunswick as early as 1762, and in 1784 it separated from Nova Scotia. It is one of the original provinces of the Dominion. The value of New Brunswick's agricultural crops in 1917 was over $24,000,000, and the timber products were valued at more than $20,000,000. Nearly $4,000,000 is invested in the fishing industry and the value of the products for 1917 was over $5,000,000. There are deposits of minerals, but active mining is confined to coal and gypsum. The **area** is 27,985 square miles and the **population** in 1911, 351,889.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Settlements were made in Nova Scotia, then called Acadia, by the French at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Port Royal was taken by the New Englanders in 1690, but restored. In 1713, the province was ceded to the British by the Treaty of Utrecht and the name was changed to Nova Scotia. It was one of the original provinces of the Dominion. The chief industries of Nova Scotia are agriculture and fishing. Fruit growing is extremely important and on an average a million barrels of apples are raised yearly. The climate is well adapted for the growth of fodder and pasturage, and the annual wool clip is over a million pounds. There is considerable mineral wealth of coal, iron, gypsum, building stone, limestone, manganese, and tungsten. Nova Scotia has the most extensive fisheries of any of the Canadian provinces. More than $8,000,000 is invested in this industry and the value of the product in 1916–17 was over $10,000,000. The **area** is 21,428 square miles and the **population** (1911) was 492,338.

ONTARIO.

Ontario, known as Upper Canada from 1791 to 1867, was one of the original provinces of the Dominion. The province contains great agricultural and mineral resources, extensive forests, great water power, and valuable fisheries. The chief industry is agriculture and the value of the crops in 1917 was over $333,000,000, which included more than 14,000,000 bushels of wheat, 23,000,000 bushels of barley, 116,000,000 bushels of rye, 2,000,000 bushels of peas, 4,000,000 bushels of buckwheat, 2,000,000 bushels of potatoes. The tobacco crop for 1918 was estimated at 10,000,000 pounds. The mineral production of 1917 included nickel $20,943,000, silver $8,698,000, copper $7,824,000, pig iron $14,201,000. The total value of the minerals produced was over $72,000,000. In 1915, there were nearly 10,000 industrial establishments, the products of which were valued at $715,000,000. The **area** is 407,262 square miles and the **population** in 1911 was 2,523,274. The largest cities are Toronto, the capital of the province, with 470,000; Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, with 102,000; and Hamilton with 101,000 inhabitants.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Prince Edward Island, once known as the Isle St. Jean, was discovered by Cartier in 1534. It was occupied by the British in 1758 and received its present name in 1798. It was admitted to the confederation in 1873. Prince Edward Island is the smallest of the Dominion provinces and lies at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Its chief industries are agriculture and fishing. In recent years the provincial government has acquired the oyster beds from the Dominion government, and is rapidly developing them. A unique industry is the raising of silver foxes. The province has an **area** of 2,184 square miles and a **population** in 1911 of 93,728, which shows a decrease of about 10 per cent from 1901.

QUEBEC.

Quebec, formerly called New France or Canada (1608–1763), Province of Quebec (1763–1790), Lower Canada (1791–1840), Canada East (1841–1867), and again the Province of Quebec from 1867, was first occupied by the French in 1608; taken by the British in 1629 but restored till 1763, when it was surrendered finally by the French. It became one of the original provinces of the Dominion in 1867. The population is sharply divided into two racial elements, 1,605,000 inhabitants being of French origin and 316,000 of British origin, according to the census of 1911. In order to protect this French majority from oppression by the English majority of the whole Dominion, the province is guaranteed 65 members in the Dominion Parliament. The Roman Catholics are nearly ten times as numerous as all other denominations together. All public schools in Quebec are either Catholic or Protestant.

The value of the field crops in 1917 was over $153,000,000. There are over 174,000 square miles of forest reserve and Quebec furnishes more than half of all the pulp wood produced in Canada. The mineral resources of the province are extremely varied; in 1917, the product amounted to over $16,000,000 and included asbestos $7,198,000, copper and sulphur ore $1,205,342, and many rare minerals. In 1916, there were 7,158 industrial establishments whose total products were valued at $387,000,000.

The **area** of Quebec is 706,834 square miles and the **population** in 1911 was 2,003,232, showing an increase of 21.45% since 1901. The principal city is Montreal with a population of 700,000 (1917).

SASKATCHEWAN.

Saskatchewan was admitted to the Dominion in 1905. It is preeminently an agricultural province and the principal crops in 1918 were oats 134,000,000 bushels, wheat 106,000,000, barley 161,000,000, potatoes 6,951,000. Its mineral productions in 1917 were valued at $832,000, being mainly coal. The **area** is 251,700 square miles and the **population** in 1911 was 492,432, having quadrupled in ten years.

YUKON.

After gold was discovered in the Klondike district on tributaries of the Yukon River in 1896, Yukon Territory was constituted a separate unit (1898), governed by a commissioner and a Legislative Council of ten members. The chief occupation is mining, coal, gold, copper, and silver being the chief minerals. The total mineral production in 1917 was $4,380,000. Between 1885 and 1918, $196,000,000 worth of gold was produced. The **area** of the Territory is 207,076 square miles. After the gold ran out, the **population** in 1911 was 8,512, showing a decrease of about two thirds since 1901.

The **Northwest Territories** comprise the three provisional districts of Franklin, Mackenzie, and Keewatin and have an area of approximately 2,843,900 square miles, but a large part of the area for Franklin is estimated without any definite topographical data, especially with reference to the northern stretches. The population in 1911 was 18,481, showing a decrease of about 8 per cent since 1901. The government is in the hands of a Commissioner and a Council of Four and the administration is carried on by the officers of the Royal Northwest Mounted Police.

Chronology — Canada.

1497–1498. Cabot's voyages (see United States).
1534–1541. Cartier's voyages (see United States).
1604. Sieur de Monts under French letters patent settles **Acadia** (**Nova Scotia**) on the Sainte Croix River, but next year removes to **Port Royal** (**Annapolis**). Samuel de Champlain explores the coast to Cape Cod. [company extends to 45°.
1606. *April 10.* English grant to the Plymouth
1608. **Quebec founded** by Champlain.
1609. Champlain invades the Iroquois country and begins the interminable warfare between the Iroquois and New France which so greatly influenced the development of the colony.
1610. **Henry Hudson** seeking for England the "northwest passage" explores **Hudson Bay.** He is followed on the same quest by Button (1612), Fox (1631), and James (1631). Possession is taken for England.
1613. Argall, from Virginia, destroys French settlements on Mt. Desert Island and at Port Royal. **Champlain** ascends the Ottawa River.
1615. Champlain crosses from Ottawa River by way of Lake Nipissing to Georgian Bay (Lake Huron) and also crosses Lake Huron. The Ottawa–Huron route becomes the main one for French exploration and trade, as Iroquois control the lower lake passage.
1621. English grant of **Nova Scotia** (so called in the grant) to Sir Wm. Alexander (Lord Stirling). His settlement is **absorbed by the French.**
1627. *April 29.* **Company of the Hundred Associates** (or Company of New France) is organized by Richelieu to control New France. Settlement is very slow; fur trading the main interest; Jesuits influential in control; government paternal; Protestants not permitted to take part in settlement.

1629. *July 22.* English **capture of Quebec** by the Kirkes; Port Royal also taken; possession held until Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye (March 29, 1632) **restores** the country **to France.**

1634. Nicolet crosses Lake Huron to Sault Ste. Marie; he reaches the shore of Lake Michigan near Green Bay and ascends the Fox River (Wis.).
Fort built at Trois-Rivières (Three Rivers).

1642. Montreal founded.

1658–1662. Radisson and Groseilliers are in Lake Superior region; probably cross to Hudson Bay.

1663. Charter of One Hundred Associates surrendered; **crown assumes** direct **control** of colony.

1665. Allouez explores Lake Superior.

1668. Mission station founded at Sault Ste. Marie.

1669. Dollier de Casson and Galinée traverse Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron.

1670. *May 2.* English charter of **Hudson's Bay Company.** Fur-trading posts established on the Bay; control over the whole basin claimed.

1672–1682. Frontenac governor of New France.

1673. Marquette and Joliet on the Mississippi (see UNITED STATES).
Fort Frontenac (Kingston) built.

1678. Du Lhut begins his exploration of the region around Lake Superior.

1682–1687. La Salle and **Louisiana** (see UNITED STATES).

1684. French post on Hudson Bay taken by English.

1686. French, traveling overland, capture Hudson's Bay Company posts. Struggle for possession continues during **King William's War.** Later, Treaty of Ryswick (Rijswijk) (1697) leaves control mainly with French.

1687. Fort Niagara built.

1688. Noyon gets as far west as Lake of the Woods.

1689–1697. King William's War (see UNITED STATES).

1689–1698. Frontenac again governor.

1690. *May 21.* **Port Royal captured** by the English; restored.
Attempt to capture Quebec fails.

1697. *Sept. 20.* Treaty of Ryswick. See EARLY MODERN PERIOD.

1699. French settlement of **Louisiana.**

1701. Detroit and chain of posts founded (see UNITED STATES).

1703–1713. Queen Anne's War (see UNITED STATES).

1710. *Oct. 6.* **Port Royal** (Annapolis) again captured.

1713. *March 31 (April 11 New Style).* **Treaty of Utrecht; France cedes Acadia** (Nova Scotia) **to England** and relinquishes claim to Hudson Bay region and Newfoundland.

1720. Hudson's Bay Company builds Henley House on Albany River; first inland post.

1731–1748. La Verendrye and his sons, seeking for the "Western Sea," explore the region of Lake Winnipeg and lower Saskatchewan River, penetrate to the Missouri in Dakota, and see a range of the Rocky Mountains. They build various posts.

1744–1748. King George's War (see UNITED STATES).

1745. *June 17.* Louisburg captured by New Englanders and British navy, but restored by Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1748. *Oct. 18.* Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See EARLY MODERN PERIOD.

1749. Halifax founded.
Céleron de Bienville on the Ohio (see UNITED STATES).

1754. Hendry for Hudson's Bay Company penetrates the Saskatchewan region.

1754–1763. French and Indian War (see UNITED STATES).

1763. *Feb. 10.* **Treaty of Paris; France cedes all of Canada** to Great Britain, as well as **Louisiana** east of the Mississippi.

Oct. 7. **Proclamation of 1763** establishes the English province of Quebec with restricted boundaries and the promise of a representative government; but adaptation of British principles of government to a French-Catholic population mostly under seigniories is difficult. Nova Scotia and Newfoundland have separate governments; the first has had an assembly since 1757.

1770. Prince Edward (St. Jean) **Island** made a separate colony and granted an assembly three years later.

1770–1772. Hearne for the Hudson's Bay Company explores the region to the Arctic at the mouth of the Coppermine River, and discovers Great Slave Lake.

1774. Cumberland House near the Saskatchewan River; first Hudson's Bay Company post in that region.

June 22. **Quebec Act;** province extended over the region between the Ohio and the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi, the watershed of the Great Lakes on the north, and Labrador; French civil law recognized, English law to govern in criminal cases; Catholic Church recognized; and an assembly declared inexpedient. Act reverses earlier attempt to Anglicize colony.

Oct. 26. First Continental Congress addresses the Canadians, inviting them to the "fellowship."

1775. Henry, for what later becomes the **North-West Fur Company** (organized 1783), builds a post on Churchill River. Rivalry between the two companies becomes great; their explorers push farther west, followed by the founding of posts.

March. John Brown reaches Montreal as agent of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress; influence counteracted by French-Canadian satisfaction with Quebec Act.

May 10, 12. Capture by Americans of **Ticonderoga and Crown Point** opens way for invasion of Canada.

Nov. 12. American army under **Montgomery captures Montreal.** Another force, under Arnold, is advancing through Maine; they unite before **Quebec.** [Montgomery killed.

Dec. 31. **Assault on Quebec repulsed;**

1776. *March 17.* **British** evacuate Boston and **sail for Halifax,** taking with them many **loyalists.** During and following the war, settlement of loyalists in Nova Scotia and Canada adds a strong element to these colonies.

April 29. Delegation from American Congress — Franklin, Samuel Chase, Charles and John Carroll (a priest) — reaches Montreal, but accomplishes nothing.

June. **Americans driven out of Canada.**

1777. Burgoyne's invasion of New York from Canada (see UNITED STATES).

1778. Pond for the North-West Company, crosses the Methye portage into the Athabaska Basin and builds a post near the lake.
James Cook explores the Pacific coast from Oregon northward; beginning of British claim.

1783. *Sept. 3.* **Peace of Paris** defines boundary between Canada and United States; continues American "liberty" to fish on Canadian coast.

1784. New Brunswick and Cape Breton made separate provinces, latter later returned to Nova Scotia (1820).

1789. Mackenzie descends the Great Slave River and Mackenzie River to its mouth.

1791. *June 10.* **Constitutional Act;** Quebec divided into Lower Canada and Upper Canada (settled by loyalists), each with a council and assembly; return to principle of Anglicization.

1792–1793. Mackenzie for the North-West Company ascends the Peace and Parsnip rivers, reaches the Pacific Ocean by way of the Bella Coola River, and returns. First transcontinental journey north of California.

1792–1794. Vancouver voyages along the Pacific coast from Oregon to Alaska.

1793 Toronto (York) **founded.**

1794. *Nov. 19.* **Jay Treaty** calls for the relinquishment by the British of posts within United States boundaries and for settlement of disputed boundary line.

1805. Lewis and Clark cross continent and descend Columbia River in advance of Hudson's Bay Company.

1807–1811. Thompson for North-West Company explores whole length of Columbia River

1808. Fraser of the North-West Company descends the Fraser River to Puget Sound.

1812. Red River Settlement (Rupert's Land) founded by Lord Selkirk under grant from Hudson's Bay Company.

1812–1814. War of 1812 (see UNITED STATES).

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1814. *Dec. 24.* **Peace of Ghent;** commissions to settle disputed boundaries between Canada and United States, right of fishing not restored to United States.

1815. North-West Company destroys Red River Settlement. Hostilities continue for several years.

1818. *Oct. 20.* **Treaty between Great Britain and United States:** Fisheries, Oregon country, boundaries (see UNITED STATES).

1818–1830. Controversy with United States over trade in American bottoms.

1821. Absorption of North-West Company by Hudson's Bay Company.

1822. *June 24.* **British Trade Acts** repeal Navigation Acts to extent of permitting trade in scheduled articles between British possessions in America and other places in America in ships of the other places, and direct trade between American possessions and Europe in British ships.

Aug. 5. British act permits limited overland and inland water **trade between Canada and United States,** and regulates apportionment of duties on imports to Upper Canada through Lower Canada.

1824. Canada Company formed; most ambitious of several projects for settlement, especially of Upper Canada, after War of 1812, resulting in extensive immigration, assisted also by government, of English, Scotch, and Irish.

1825. Fort Vancouver, Hudson's Bay Company post on lower Columbia River, founded.

Feb. 28. Anglo-Russian Treaty fixes **boundaries of Alaska.**

June 27. Further Trade Act extends Acts of 1822 to all goods not especially prohibited by the act and permits trade with Europe in vessels of country of goods imported.

1826. Ottawa (Bytown) **laid out.**

1829. Welland Canal opened.

1836. Champlain and St. Lawrence Railroad; **first railroad in Canada.**

1837. *Feb. 11.* Howe moves his Twelve Resolutions in Nova Scotia Assembly, demanding **responsible government.** Maladministration and much legislative conflict have resulted throughout the provinces through the irresponsibility of the council and executive, especially in Upper Canada (**"Family Compact"**). In Lower Canada the movement is a French-Canadian one, involving nationalism.

November. Outbreak of **rebellion in Lower Canada,** led by Papineau; quickly suppressed.

December. **Rebellion in Upper Canada,** led by Mackenzie; defeated. *Caroline* affair.

1838. Earl of Durham reaches Quebec as governor-general.

1839. *Jan. 31.* **Durham's report on Canadian conditions;** masterly analysis of troubles, recommendation of responsible government in purely colonial affairs, and reunion to submerge French-Canadian nationality.

1840. Act of Union; compromise between the demands of the rebels and position of oligarchical loyalists and "British-connection" men. Upper and Lower **Canada reunited;** elected assembly with equal representation of two provinces; council appointed for life; fixed civil list, but other expenditures under control of Assembly; taxes only with consent of Canadian Parliament. **Responsible government** not in act, but Lord John Russell instructs governor-general that wishes of Assembly must not be opposed unless "honor of the crown or interests of the empire are deeply concerned." Principle of **responsible government** wins recognition within the decade in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, as well as in Canada.

1842. Hudson's Bay Company starts a post on Vancouver Island, at present Victoria; it succeeds Fort Vancouver on Columbia River as western headquarters. [STATES).

Aug. 9. **Ashburton Treaty** (see UNITED

1846. *June 15.* **Oregon Treaty** (see UNITED STATES).

1847–1854. Earl of Elgin governor-general of Canada; important services in economic and political development of province.

1849. Vancouver Island is granted to the Hudson's Bay Company; on July 28 British Parliament authorizes a colonial government for the island; in 1856 legislature meets.

April. Passage by Canadian Parliament of Rebellion Losses Bill leads to **riots** by loyalist partisans **in Montreal,** burning of Parliament buildings, and insults to Elgin. Later in the year **capital is removed from Montreal.**

June 26. Repeal of last vestiges of Navigation Acts (see GREAT BRITAIN).

July 28. British act permitting colonial inland posts; under this in 1851 the Canadian provinces take over the post office.

1851. Population, 1,842,265. [STATES).

1854. *June 5.* **Reciprocity Treaty** (see UNITED

Aug. 11. British act authorizes alteration of constitution of council under Act of Union; in 1856 Canadian Parliament makes council elective.

Dec. 18. Act abolishing seigniorial tenure.

1858. Decimal coinage system goes into effect in Canada.
Ottawa is selected as **capital of Canada;** Parliament meets there on June 8, 1866.
Hudson's Bay Company surrenders Vancouver Island to the crown. [**Columbia.**

Aug. 2. British act for province of **British**

1860. Winnipeg begins to develop around Fort Garry of Hudson's Bay Company.
Prince of Wales (later Edward VII.) visits Canada.
Joint occupation of San Juan Islands by British and American troops.

1861. Population, 3,090,561.

1866. Vancouver is founded. [terminates.

March 17. Reciprocity with United States

June. **Fenian invasion** of Canada from Buffalo; defeated and turned back.

Aug. 6. British act uniting colonies of British Columbia and Vancouver Island.

1867. *March 29.* Under the **British North America Act,** in force on July 1, Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick are united as the **Dominion of Canada.** The Dominion comprises four provinces, Canada being redivided into Quebec and Ontario. The act also provides for: A governor-general with a council; a Parliament of two houses, senators being appointed for life, house elected on population basis; provinces each with an appointed lieutenant-governor and an assembly; enumerated powers of provinces, rest lodged in Dominion.

July 1. Lord **Monck** sworn in as **first governor-general** of the Dominion; **Macdonald** coalition **ministry.** [sembles.

Nov. 6. **First Parliament** of Dominion as-

1869. **Red River Rebellion** of French half-breeds under Louis Riel against transfer of region from Hudson's Bay Company to Canada; Riel flees before force under Wolseley; reaches Fort Garry (August, 1870). [ernor-general.

Feb. 2. **Sir John Young** (Lord Lisgar) gov-

March 9. Agreement for cession to Canada by **Hudson's Bay Company** of latter's governmental and property rights; about 2,300,000 square miles of territory given for $1,500,000 and certain land grants.

June 22. **"Better-Terms Act"** ends opposition of Nova Scotia to the confederation; leader of opposition, Joseph Howe, has entered Macdonald ministry. [fails.

1870. **Second Fenian Invasion** from Vermont

July 15. **Manitoba** admitted to the confederation (act of May 12).

1871. Population, 3,635,024.

April 14. **General Bank Act** establishes Canadian system. [States).

May 8. **Treaty of Washington** (see United

July 20. **British Columbia admitted** to the confederation; agreement that continental railway be built within 10 years.

1872. *June 14.* First charter of **Canadian Pacific Railway**; land grants and subsidy by Dominion; but plan under charter not carried out.

June 25. Earl of **Dufferin governor-general.**

Oct. 21. **San Juan award** (see United States). Ends Pacific boundary controversy.

1873. *May 23.* Act for establishment of **Northwest Mounted Police.**

July 1. **Prince Edward Island** enters the confederation (act of May 23).

Nov. 5. Macdonald ministry resigns, anticipating vote of censure on **Pacific scandal** of charter of **Canadian Pacific Railway.** Alexander **Mackenzie** forms Liberal **ministry**; sustained in general election (January, 1874). Government decides to construct transcontinental railway.

1874. *April 26.* Parliamentary **Election Act** prescribes vote by ballot, elections throughout Dominion on one day, expenses limited, corrupt practices forbidden.

Nov. 17. Proposed terms for settling controversy between the Dominion and British Columbia over conditions of union, especially as to railroad. Not carried out. Controversy continues and leads to a separation movement.

1875. *April 8.* Act to establish **Supreme Court of Canada.**

1876. Railroad between Halifax and Quebec opened. [States).

1877. *Nov. 23.* **Halifax award** (see United

1878. *Sept. 17.* General election; Conservatives succeed on **protective** (National or "Canada first") **policy.** Government resigns (October 16) and second **Macdonald ministry** is formed.

Nov. 25. Marquis of **Lorne governor-general.**

1879. *May 15.* **Protective Tariff Law.**

1880. Canadian high commissioner to United Kingdom first appointed.

1881. Population, 4,324,810.

Feb. 15. Act for construction of **transcontinental railway**; Canadian Pacific Railway company to construct, receiving cash and land donations and portions of road already built by government. [general.

1883. *Oct. 23.* Marquis of **Lansdowne governor-**

1884. *July 22.* Decision of judicial committee of British privy council on **Manitoba-Ontario boundary,** confirming award of 1878 and settling long-standing dispute.

1885. *March–May.* Riel leads another half-breed rebellion on the Saskatchewan; captured and hanged.

June 30. End of **fisheries** reciprocity; renewal of **controversy** (see United States).

July 20. **Dominion Franchise Act**; uniform suffrage and low property qualification. Repealed when Liberals get control.

Act putting **poll tax** of $50 **on Chinese immigrants**; British Columbia desires exclusion, and continues agitation as act has little effect. Tax is doubled by act of July 18, 1900, and made $500 by act of May 15, 1902. Meanwhile, issue complicated by **Japanese and East Indian laborers.**

1886. **Vancouver laid out** as terminus of transcontinental line.

June 28. **Canadian Pacific Railway** opened for through traffic. [United States).

1888. *Feb. 20.* Proposed **fisheries treaty** (see

June 11. Lord **Stanley** of Preston (Earl of Derby) **governor-general.**

1890–1897. **Manitoba school controversy**; provincial act (1890) abolishes public denominational schools; question becomes a Dominion political issue, finally settled by some concessions to Catholics. Problem of separate and bilingual schools continues here and elsewhere in Dominion.

1891. Population, 4,833,239.

Establishment of line of **transpacific steamships** by Canadian Pacific Railway Company.

June 6. Death of Premier Macdonald. Sir John **Abbott** succeeds as **premier.**

1892. *Feb. 29.* **Bering Sea Treaty** (see United States). [premier.

Dec. 5. Abbott resigns. Sir John **Thompson**

1893. *Aug. 15.* **Bering Sea award** (see United States). [eral.

Sept. 18. Earl of **Aberdeen governor-gen-**

1894. *June 28.* **Colonial Trade Conference** opens at Ottawa, attended also by delegates from Australia and Cape Colony; discussion of imperial trade preference.

Dec. 12. Sir John Thompson dies; Sir Mackenzie **Bowell** succeeds as **premier.**

1896. **Discovery of gold in Klondike**; great rush. Alaskan boundary question becomes important.

April 27. Following cabinet crisis, **ministry** reorganized by Sir Charles **Tupper.**

July 8. Ministry, defeated in general election, resigns and (Sir) Wilfrid **Laurier** forms Liberal **ministry** on July 13.

1897. **Preferential Tariff Act** chiefly affecting British imports, which pay only seven eighths of regular duties for a year, then three fourths. Germany deprives Canada (July 7, 1899) of most-favored-nation treatment. Canada denounces treaties with Germany and Belgium, and preference is confined to the empire, and increased to scale of two thirds of regular duty in 1900.

June 29. Act for responsible government in Northwest Territories.

1898. *June 13.* **Yukon Territory** set off from Northwest Territories.

Dominion Franchise Act repealed. [States).

Aug. 23. Joint High Commission (see United

Nov. 12. Earl of **Minto governor-general.**

1899–1902. Canada furnishes several contingents of troops (7,368 men) for the South African War; opposition is offered to the policy, especially in Quebec Province.

1901. Population, 5,371,315.

September–October. Visit of the Duke of Cornwall (Prince of Wales, now George V.) and Duchess of Cornwall.

Nov. 22. **Prohibition Act of Manitoba** (1900) declared constitutional by judicial committee of British privy council; act passed after referenda on July 23, 1892, and September 29, 1898. Further referendum on April 2, 1902, is adverse, so law is not proclaimed. **Local option** (under Scott Act) **makes steady progress** throughout the Dominion, already covering Prince Edward Island and most of Nova Scotia.

1902. *March 14.* **Prohibition Act in Ontario**; referendum (December 4) shows majority, but not that required.

Oct. 31. First message over **British Pacific cable,** completing the "all-red" (that is "all-British") line around the world.

1903. Limited tariff preference with New Zealand. Discovery of **silver** at Cobalt, Ontario.

Jan. 24, Oct. 20. **Alaskan boundary** (see United States).

Aug. 17–21. Meeting at Montreal of delegates from chambers of commerce throughout the British Empire to discuss imperial trade questions.

Oct. 24. Act for the **Grand Trunk Pacific Railway**; a second transcontinental line from Moncton, N. B., to Prince Rupert, B. C., to be built jointly by government and Grand Trunk.

1904. Limited tariff preference with South Africa.

June 14. Dismissal by Canadian government of Lord Dundonald, British general officer commanding the militia, for insubordination to the responsible government.

Aug. 10. **New Militia Act** makes possible a Canadian commander, and recognizes more complete Canadian control over defense.

Nov. 3. General election: Grand Trunk Pacific Railway main issue, with Dundonald (militarism) and race questions as minor ones. Government victory.

Dec. 10. Earl **Grey governor-general.**

1905. *Sept. 1.* **Alberta and Saskatchewan admitted** to the confederation (acts of July 5). Question of sectarian education met by privilege of limited religious instruction in public schools.

Dec. 7. Transfer of defenses at Halifax to Canadian control. Regulars also leave Esquimalt, B. C. (May 17, 1906), leaving defense entirely in Canadian hands.

1906. *July 13.* **Lord's Day Observance Act** limits Sunday labor, trade, and amusements. In force March 3, 1907.

Sept. 8. Serious **rioting** in Vancouver **against Japanese** and other Asiatics. Canada makes reparation.

1907. *March 22.* **Industrial Disputes Investigation Act** (Lemieux Act) makes **strikes or lockouts** in mines and public service companies illegal until the dispute has been investigated by board of conciliation; act applies permissively to other industries.

Aug. 29. **Collapse** of portion **of great bridge** being constructed across the St. Lawrence **at Quebec.** [northern **Ontario.**

1908. Discovery of **gold in** Porcupine region of

Jan. 1. Government of Manitoba takes over telephone system. Alberta does it on April 1, and Saskatchewan on May 1, 1909.

Jan. 21. Report is made in Parliament of a gentlemen's **agreement with Japan** for restriction of **immigration.**

July 20. Old Age Annuities Act becomes law.

July 20–31. **Tercentenary of Quebec;** Prince of Wales, Lord Roberts, Vice President Fairbanks, and other notables present.

Oct. 26. General election; government triumphs on general record rather than special issues.

1909. *Jan. 11.* Boundary-waters treaty (see United States). [States).

Jan. 27. Fisheries convention (see United

1910. *May 4.* **Naval Service Act,** following an Imperial Defense Conference in London in July, 1909, provides for a volunteer force, naval college, and fleet of 5 cruisers and 6 destroyers to be built in Canada; service at disposal of British Empire in case of emergency. Much opposition to act.

Act on combinations and monopolies, not directed against organizations, but against unfair exercise of power; board of 3 to investigate, tariff protection may be withdrawn or daily fine imposed.

May 21. Treaty on Passamaquoddy Bay boundary (see United States).

Sept. 7. Award on **fisheries** rights by Hague Tribunal (see United States).

1911. Population, 7,206,643.

July 7. **Fur-seal treaty** (see United States).

Sept. 21. General election: issue is reciprocity agreement with United States (see United States); Laurier's government is badly defeated and resigns, thus defeating reciprocity. (Sir) Robert L. **Borden** forms Conservative **ministry.** [eral.

Oct. 13. Duke of **Connaught governor-gen-**

1912. *April 1.* Manitoba extended north to 60° and Hudson Bay, Ontario to Hudson Bay, and **Ungava** (east of the bay) **added to Quebec.**

April 9. **Trade agreement** with some of **British West Indies** (not including Jamaica); preference of about 20 per cent.

July 22. Judicial committee of British privy council on appeal from stated judgment of Supreme Court, apropos of the Hebert case, decides Dominion has no power to pass a **uniform marriage law,** and that provincial laws may impose conditions affecting validity of contract. Does not decide directly whether marriage of two Catholics by other than a priest (forbidden by the church's **Ne Temere decree**) is binding if performed according to statute, but Supreme Court so declares, June 8, thus denying legal force of canon law.

1913. *April 24.* Closure rule is adopted in Commons in order to facilitate passage of government measure to build three dreadnoughts.

May 29. **Naval Bill** (which passes Commons on May 15) is rejected by the Senate.

Oct. 7. **Oil** is discovered **in Alberta.**

1914. *Feb. 2.* **Parcel-post system** is inaugurated.

April 7. Last spike is driven in **Grand Trunk Pacific Railway** between Winnipeg and Prince Rupert. Eastern (government) portion of the line finished by end of 1915; but the Grand Trunk does not assume operative control of this portion

May 2. Arrival at Vancouver of ship with 396 **Hindus.** Admission denied; courts sustain the government. Hindus resist attempt to return them, but finally yield, July 23, and start back. More rioting at Hongkong and seditious utterances on reaching India.

May 29. Empress of Ireland sinks in the St. Lawrence River after collision; 1,024 lives lost.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 4.* On outbreak of the World War **financial strain** is relieved by order in council making bank notes legal tender and temporarily irreclaimable in gold.

Aug. 22. **War Measure Act** puts the country on a war basis; authorizes censorship and espionage; control of transportation, trading, manufacturing, and property.

Increase in tariff rates and excise on liquor and tobacco, and power to increase amount of Dominion notes are **first financial measures.** First **war credit** is for $50,000,000. Great Britain also advances $60,000,000 up to March 31, 1915. Large voluntary contributions of money and supplies for many purposes: **Canadian Patriotic Fund,** established to care for soldiers and families, Belgian Relief Fund, Red Cross, etc.; work of women done largely through Imperial Order Daughters of the Empire.

Sept. 22–Oct. 1. **First Canadian contingent** of 33,000 men **embarks** at Quebec for England.

1915. *March 29.* Short-term **government loan** of $25,000,000 is oversubscribed. July 21, $45,000,000 on short-term notes borrowed in New York. Canadian credit continues excellent throughout war under financial management of Sir Thomas White.

April 8. **War Revenue Act:** tax on bank-note circulation, trust companies, insurance, telegrams, traveling tickets, wine; also, increase in postage and stamp duties, and in the tariff.

1915 (*continued*).

April 15. Second **war credit** for $100,000,000

June 9. **Dispensary liquor system** established in Saskatchewan; in force July 1.

July 21. **Prohibition approved** by referendum in Alberta; in force July 1, 1916.

Oct. 18. First through train on **Canadian Northern Railway** reaches Vancouver from Quebec; third transcontinental line, built up since 1896 by construction and absorption of existing lines; government has large interest.

Nov. 1. **Expeditionary force** raised to authorized limit of 250,000 men, and at end of year to 500,000 men; by end of the year 212,000 are under arms, of whom 118,922 have been sent overseas with loss of but one life in transport.

Nov. 22. **First domestic loan** for $50,000,000 (5%, 10 years); total subscription $114,000,000; allotment, $97,000,000.

1916. *Feb. 3.* Dominion **Parliament buildings** at Ottawa **burned**; possibly incendiary origin

March. **Loan** of $75,000,000 floated in New York (5%, 5–15 years).

March 8. **Manitoba act** prevents more **bilingual schools**, and promotes end of existing ones; considered by French Canadians and foreign elements as contrary to 1897 compromise on schools.

May 18. Act of Parliament prohibits importation of liquor into "dry" provinces. **War credit** of $250,000,000 voted. Revenue acts, except for a few tariff changes, chiefly notable for **war-profits tax** of 25%. Insurance companies to keep certain part of assets in Dominion currency, bonds, or debenture stock.

June 1. **Prohibition** in effect in **Manitoba**; law of January 28, and referendum on March 13.

July 1. **Prohibition** in effect **in Nova Scotia**; chiefly affects Halifax as most of province already subject to temperance laws. [accident]

Sept. 11. **Quebec bridge** drops span — second]

Sept. 12. **Second domestic loan** for $100,000,000 (5%, 15 years): total subscription, $195,000,000; allotment, $103,000,000.

Sept. 16. **Prohibition** goes into effect in **Ontario** (law of April) as war measure, with referendum in June, 1919.

Nov. 2. Judicial committee of British privy council upholds regulation in Ontario for requirement of instruction primarily in English.

Nov. 11. Duke of **Devonshire governor-general.**

Sir **Sam Hughes**, minister of militia and defense, resigns on request; friction with premier and others in ministry.

1917. *Jan. 20.* **War expenditures** to date $444,000,000; war costing about $1,000,000 a day.

Feb. 7. **War credit** of $500,000,000 voted.

March 12. **Third domestic loan** (first Victory Loan) for $150,000,000 (5%, 20 years); total subscription $237,000,000; allotment $166,000,000.

May 1. **Prohibition** in effect in **New Brunswick** (act of April 21, 1916). About 80% of province under local option before.

June 6. **Laurier** refuses to join a coalition government, being **opposed to conscription.**

July. $100,000,000 borrowed in New York.

July 1. **Prohibition** in effect in **British Columbia**; referendum of September 14, 1916.

July 14. **Prohibition** in effect in **Yukon Territory.** This leaves Quebec only province where sale of liquor at retail is permitted.

July 25. Increase is made in **war-profits tax** (one half of profits between 15% and 20%; three fourths beyond 20%).

Aug. 29. **Compulsory Military Service Act**; affects men between 20 and 45; first class—unmarried men of 20–34; French-Canadian opposition.

Sept. 20. **Income Tax Act**; graduated from 4% on over $1,500 for unmarried men to 25% on above $100,000; income tax of 4% on corporations (see also July 25, above).

Military Voters' Act provides for voting during the war by all British subjects ordinarily residents of Canada, male and female, in active service.

War-Times Election Act gives franchise temporarily to near female relatives of men overseas, and disfranchises all of alien enemy birth or tongue naturalized since 1901. As **women** have **suffrage** in Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia, this act disfranchises a portion of them for coming parliamentary election.

Act to acquire rest of stock of Canadian Northern Railway. [raised to position.]

Central span of **Quebec bridge** successfully

Oct. 13. **Union ministry** is formed with **Borden premier**; 13 Conservatives and 10 Liberals; inner war cabinet has 5 Liberals and 5 Conservatives.

Nov. 12. **Fourth domestic loan** (second Victory Loan) for $150,000,000 (5½%, 5–20 years); total subscription, $419,000,000; allotment, $398,000,000.

Dec. 6. **Explosion** of cargo of ammunition in **Halifax** Harbor destroys large part of city; 1,200 killed; suffering increased and rescue impeded by fire and blizzard.

Dec. 17. General election; Union government wins 153 seats on issue of conscription and "win the war"; opposition, led by Laurier, 82 seats.

Dec. 24. **Prohibition** placed **on importation of intoxicating liquor** into Canada; prohibition of manufacturing held in reserve. Prohibition of interprovincial transportation issued April 1, 1918.

1918. *March 28–April 2.* **Anti-draft riots** in Quebec, caused by taking of defaulters under Military Service Act; suppressed by troops.

May 1–23. **Strike in Winnipeg** of civic employees including firemen (unionized), sympathetic strikes of other laborers and threat, under I.W.W. and other **radical propaganda**, of general strike. Labor unrest during the year throughout the Dominion, under socialistic incitation; prominent question that of right of civic guardians to unionize.

May 24. **War Revenue acts**; increase in income, profits, excise, tariff, and other taxes; tax on matches, playing cards, moving-picture films, jewelry, automobiles, and mechanical musical instruments.

War credit of $500,000,000 voted

July. **Strike of postal employees** in Toronto

Nov. 18. **Fifth domestic loan** (third Victory Loan) for $300,000,000 (5½%, 5–15 years); total subscription, $687,000,000.

Dec. 10–14. **Strike of** Montreal **police and firemen**, accompanied by rioting; right to unionize demanded by strikers. Association permitted, but no affiliation with other unions. Toronto police strike on same question Dec. 13–20.

Dec. 31. Report (as revised December 3, 1919) that 595,411 **men** were **enlisted** or drafted in Canada **during the war**, of whom 418,052 sailed for England and 4,214 for Siberia.

Casualties: 63,786 deaths, 148,859 wounded.

1919. At request of Canadian government, British government ceases to confer **titles on Canadians.**

Jan. 18. Canada has two **delegates at the Peace Conference** at Paris.

Feb. 16. Laurier dies. August, **Mackenzie King** chosen his successor as leader of opposition.

March 19. Budget statement calls for unusually large expenditures for shipbuilding, roads, and railway equipment.

March 31. **Net debt** $1,438,000,000, an increase of $1,102,000,000 since March 31, 1914

May–June. **Strike at Winnipeg**, including police, firemen, and other official servants, made the basis for revolutionary propaganda; all public utilities idle. Volunteers man street cars; returned soldiers act as police. Strikes elsewhere, esp. at Toronto. No serious disorders anywhere.

June 6. **New immigration law** increases restrictions, developing new policy.

July 7. **Act to assist returned soldiers** in settling on the land provides for government acquisition, by purchase or expropriation, and resale to soldiers.

Aug 15. Prince of Wales lands in Canada for a tour which lasts until November.

Sept. 11. Parliament **ratifies the Treaty of Versailles**, including the League of Nations, of which Canada is a member.

Oct. 20. **Election** in **Ontario.** Prohibition retained. United Farmers party assisted by Laborites wins at polls and **United Farmers ministry** takes office November 1.

November. **Government takes over the Grand Trunk Railway**, making about 22,000 miles of government-controlled lines in Canada. Canadian Pacific the only important private line. **Victory Loan** for $300,000,000 oversubscribed.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is nearer Europe than is any other land in America. It was discovered by John Cabot in 1497. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert declared it a possession of Queen Elizabeth, and, though claimed by France, it has been held by England ever since. In 1869 the people of Newfoundland, then a separate island colony of Great Britain, voted against union with Canada. In 1918 it was made a dominion of the empire. Responsible government has existed since 1885. The governor, appointed by the crown, is assisted by an Executive Council of not more than 9 members. Parliament consists of a Legislative Council, of not more than 24 members, and an Assembly of 36 members.

The fisheries are the chief industry, producing about $10,000,000 annually. The forests are extensive and valuable. The mineral deposits include iron, coal, copper, silver, lead, and gold. In religion, the population is divided almost equally between Roman Catholics, Anglicans, and Methodists, while a few adhere to other communions. Schools and colleges are maintained by the leading religious bodies.

The **area** is 42,734 square miles. The **population** in 1918 was 254,587.

Labrador, lying farther east than any other part of the continent, is a dependency of Newfoundland. There are latent resources of value in its forests, fisheries, and mines. Its **area** is about 120,000 square miles, and known **population** (1918) 4,073.

Chronology — Newfoundland.

1497. Cabot's voyage (see UNITED STATES).

1500–1502. Cortereal's voyages (see UNITED STATES). These voyages followed by Portuguese, English, French, and Basque fishermen on the Banks. **St. John's** developed as a free port, frequented especially by English merchantmen.

1583. *Aug. 3.* **Sir Humphrey Gilbert** puts in at St. John's, refits, and **takes possession** of the colony. [island.]

1610–1621. Various English colonies started on the

1637. *Nov. 13.* Grant of island to Hamilton, Kirke, and others.

1638. Kirke comes as governor.

1662. French settlement at Placentia

1699. *May 4.* Act to encourage trade to Newfoundland; control by fishing admirals.

1713. *March 31 (April 11, N.S.).* **Treaty of Utrecht**; France relinquishes claim to island, retains right to fish and dry fish on coast from Cape Bonavista around northern end to Point Riche. Under this and later treaties grows up a French claim to exclusive rights on the "French Shore."

1729. Henry Osborne, first governor.

1783. *Sept. 3.* Treaties of Versailles and Paris; French fishing right shifted from Cape Bonavista to Cape St. John and down the western shore to Cape Ray; Americans retain right to fish and dry fish on the island; islands of Saint-Pierre and Miquelon ceded to France

1818. *Oct. 20.* American fishing rights on coast, which were lost by War of 1812, are restored by convention as to portions of Newfoundland and Labrador, with right to dry fish in unsettled sections.

1832. *Aug. 1.* Act of Parliament creating a **representative assembly** in Newfoundland.

1855. **Responsible government** inaugurated.

1867. Dominion of Canada formed; Newfoundland holds aloof, her interests being more directly with Great Britain and United States.

1877. *Nov. 23.* Newfoundland's share in the **Halifax award** (see UNITED STATES) is $1,000,000.

1890. *Nov. 15.* Bond-Blaine reciprocity treaty with United States drafted; imperial consent is withheld at suggestion of Canada.

1893. *May 16.* **Reid contract** for construction and operation of transinsular railway, with large land grant.

1895. *April.* Conference for union with Canada fails over debt question; island nearly insolvent.

1898. Further contract with **Reid** negotiated, giving him virtual control over development of the island, lands, minerals, telegraph, railway, local sea communications, docks, and postal service.

1900. *Nov. 8.* Government responsible for Reid contract defeated at election; (Sir) Robert Bond becomes premier, and Reid, for changes in form of his company, agrees (July 19, 1901) to return the telegraph, modify land grant, and permit final reclamation of railroad.

1902. *Nov. 8.* Bond-Hay reciprocity convention with United States. Rejected by U. S. Senate. Newfoundland enacts measures to hamper American fishing rights under treaty of 1818.

1904. *April 8.* **French-British treaty** puts end to "French Shore" controversy, which has been source of many reprisals (Bait Act of 1887); France abandons all rights in Newfoundland (except Saint-Pierre and Miquelon islands), receiving compensation in Africa, and money indemnity.

1909. *Jan. 27.* Fisheries convention (see UNITED STATES). [STATES).]

1910. *Sept. 7.* Fisheries award (see UNITED

1914. At outbreak of **World War** island raises a regiment, also contributes men to naval service. Regiment maintained during war; some 9,000 men serve in it and the navy. Others enlist in Canadian regiments.

1917. *Jan. 1.* **Prohibition** goes into effect under referendum of November 4, 1915. Most of island under local option previously.

1918. *Jan. 5.* Colony given title of **Dominion** by home government.

May. Compulsory Military Service Act makes possible maintenance of regiment at full strength.

1919. *Jan. 18.* Newfoundland is represented at the Peace Conference by the premier. Dominion not formally treated as party to Treaty of Versailles or as a separate member of League of Nations.

BERMUDAS.

THE BERMUDAS are a group of over 300 islands in the Atlantic, 580 miles southeast of Cape Hatteras. They are not strictly reckoned as a part of the West Indies and were once attached to Virginia. They constitute a crown colony, and are exceedingly important, both as a strongly fortified station of the British fleet and because of their commanding strategic position. The permanent military force comprises an average of 3,000 men of all branches. The chief exports are onions, potatoes, and other vegetables. Of late years these islands, with their delightful climate, have become a tourist's resort much visited from the United States. **Area** about 19 square miles, **population** (1918) 21,840.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Columbus on reaching Guanahani (now generally identified with Watling Island) supposed he had found the Indies. Thus arose the name West Indies applied to the great archipelago curving from Florida and Yucatan to South America. The group is geographically American, but the political and international relations of the West Indian islands until the end of the nineteenth century was chiefly European. The West Indies include thirty major islands and many groups of islands

Among these islands the Spaniards coasted and colonized until no other part of the New World was so well known and so fully occupied by colonists. The easy conditions of the climate, the gentleness of the aborigines, the richness of the islands, and the ease of conquest, made the Spaniards masters for a century. Then other European powers began to dispute these rich possessions. From 1600 to 1650 the French and English occupied several islands not colonized by Spain.

Most of the natives of the islands were killed out by Spanish officers; and Negro slaves were introduced by all the colonists, thus fixing this curse in one of the fairest parts of the globe. As the Spanish monarchy declined, the islands were detached from her empire. The British seized Jamaica in 1655. Denmark, France, and Holland took and held islands or groups. In 1898 the United States annexed Porto Rico. The island of Haiti has had an independent government since about 1795. Cuba — last remnant of the Spanish American empire — was made nominally independent, actually a protectorate of the United States, by the war of 1898. The greater number of islands have passed into the possession of Great Britain, but the United States is at present the most active and strongest power in the Caribbean region.

BAHAMAS.

The Baramas are a group of about 30 inhabited and over 600 uninhabited islands northeast of Cuba. Guanahani, one of the Bahamas, was the first land discovered by Columbus in his first voyage, 1492. It was named by him San Salvador. The islands were without civilized inhabitants until the arrival of English colonists in 1629. Then they were fought over until their final cession to Great Britain in 1783. Nassau, the capital, on New Providence island, has a fine harbor and was the headquarters of blockade runners during the Civil War. Fruits and vegetables are exported; also shells, pearls, and ambergris. There are sponge and turtle fisheries. The **area** of the group is 4,404 square miles. The **population** was estimated at 59,928 in 1918.

BARBADOS.

Barbados is the most eastern of the West Indian islands. Though geographically one of the Windward Islands it is administratively a colony by itself, having its own governor assisted by a Legislative Council of 9 members, all appointed by the crown, and its own Assembly of 24 members annually elected by the people. Most of the inhabitants belong to the Church of England. Sugar and cotton are the chief products. Also manjak, a kind of asphalt, is exported. Violent hurricanes are frequent and destructive. Barbados has been made very prosperous by the high price of sugar. The **area** is 166 square miles and the **population** (1918) 191,664.

JAMAICA.

Jamaica, one of the Greater Antilles, from its history, size, and relative situation, is the most important of the British West India islands. It was discovered by Columbus in May, 1494. Fifteen years later the first colony was planted by the Spaniards. Columbus called the island Santiago, but the name was soon replaced by the native "Jamaica," signifying the "country of springs." In the time of Cromwell, Admiral Penn at the head of an English fleet wrested Jamaica from the Spaniards. All subsequent efforts of Spain to reconquer it were failures.

The island soon became known for its sugar production. In 1673 the first pot of sugar was sent to England by the governor of the island. The slave trade furnished the means of developing the industry. The slaves multiplied and some escaped to the Blue Mountains. These so-called "maroons" made a descent upon the plantations in 1715 and a servile war continued for 23 years. The authorities were glad to make peace by many concessions.

The sugar industry increased in importance. During the first three quarters of the eighteenth century more than five hundred thousand slaves were imported. In 1795 the slaves revolted, but they were suppressed. The island was very prosperous; some wealthy Jamaican planters settled in New England and elsewhere. The trade between Jamaica and Great Britain was profitable.

In 1807 the British government totally abolished the slave trade with all its colonies. The antislavery reformers headed by Wilberforce next turned upon slaveholding, and in 1834 secured an act of Parliament for the abolition of slavery in all the British colonies. At that time there were 322,000 slaves in the island. These were first raised to apprenticeship for four years, and then to freedom. The masters were indemnified with a payment of $28,362,000 by the British Parliament. The victory for humanity was costly to Jamaica and the other sugar-producing British West India islands. The abolition of slavery and other changes in the trade relations of the West Indies caused a decline from which the island has never recovered.

In 1692 Port Royal, the old capital, was destroyed by earthquake and Kingston became the seat of government. Another earthquake destroyed the town of Savanna la Mar in 1740. Cholera ravaged Jamaica in 1846 and some of the principal settlements lost the greater part of their inhabitants. A Negro insurrection in 1865 was put down by Governor Eyre with a strong and brutal hand. Though cleared by an official inquiry, public opinion was against him. In 1907 an earthquake destroyed a great part of the town of Kingston and killed nearly 1,000 persons.

The island is ruled by a governor, assisted by a Privy Council and a Legislative Council of 29 members, 14 of whom are elected. Jamaica is divided into 15 parishes, in each of which an elected board administers local affairs. The government maintains elementary, secondary, and industrial schools; also colleges for training teachers. There is no state church. Anglicans, Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, Roman Catholics, Moravians, Congregationalists, are, as to numbers, in the order named.

The chief exports in 1917 were sugar, $3,421,500; logwood extract, $1,924,600; bananas, $1,105,500; coconuts, $721,000; cocoa, $572,800; coffee, $568,500.

The **area** is 4,207 square miles and the estimated **population** (1918) 891,040.

Dependent upon Jamaica are **Turks** and **Caicos Islands** (area 165½ square miles, population (1918) 5,615), two southern groups of the Bahamas. Their chief industry is salt making, 1,700,000 bushels being annually exported. The **Cayman Islands** also are attached to Jamaica. They export coconuts, rope, turtle shell, and cattle.

LEEWARD ISLANDS.

The Leeward Islands, so called from their relation to the trade winds, are the northern half of the prolonged group known as the Lesser Antilles. The principal British islands are Dominica, Antigua, St. Christopher (St. Kitts), Nevis, Anguilla, Montserrat, Barbuda, and Redonda. The British Virgin Islands, comprising all those not included in the Virgin Islands of the United States, are a part of the Leeward group. The Leewards have one governor, appointed by the crown, and one Federal Legislative Council of 16 members, one half appointed and the other half elected. Most of the schools are maintained by the various churches. Sugar, molasses, lime juice, cocoa, and onions are articles of export. The entire **area** is 715 square miles and the **population** (1911) about 127,000. Less than 5 per cent of the population are whites.

TRINIDAD.

Trinidad lies directly opposite the northern mouth of the Orinoco. Discovered by Columbus in 1498, it was held by Spain until its capture by Great Britain in 1797. Most of the inhabitants are of mixed race, descendants of Europeans and Africans, and it is estimated that one third of the population is composed of East Indians and their descendants. Three fourths of the people are Christians, nearly one half of whom are Anglicans and the other half Roman Catholics. From the large asphalt lake, 109,000 tons of asphalt valued at $677,500 were exported in 1917. Other exports were cocoa, $7,821,600; sugar, $7,093,800. The culture of rubber, cotton, and tobacco has been introduced into Tobago and the cacao industry is receiving increasing attention. Trinidad is ruled by a governor, aided by an Executive Council and a Legislative Council. The **area** is 1,860 square miles and the total estimated **population** (1918) of Trinidad and Tobago was 381,309.

Dependent upon Trinidad is **Tobago**, a popular resort of American and British pleasure seekers. Area, 114 sq. miles; estimated population (1917), 23,587.

WINDWARD ISLANDS.

The Windward Islands, so called from their supposed situation relative to the trade winds, are the southern half of the prolonged group known as the Lesser Antilles. The principal British islands are Grenada, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia. In connection are the group of the Grenadines All are under one governor, but otherwise each island conducts its own affairs. In St. Lucia most of the schools are under Roman Catholic control, aided by government grant; in the other islands they are maintained by the government. Cocoa, nutmegs, spices, and cotton are the chief products. The entire **area** is 520 square miles and the **population** (1918) about 179,650.

BRITISH GUIANA.

British Guiana is situated between Dutch Guiana, Brazil, and Venezuela. It was taken from the Dutch in 1803. A dispute with Venezuela as to the boundary threatened complications with the United States in 1895. The matter was afterward settled by direct arbitration with Venezuela. Gold mining and diamond mining are carried on. The chief exports (1917) are sugar, $12,150,000; diamonds, $188,000; rice, $1,440,600. Authority is in the hands of a British governor, who is assisted by an Executive Council and a Court of Policy.

The **area** is 89,480 square miles and the **population** (estimated 1918) is 311,000. The Immigration Department estimated (1917) that there were 138,140 East Indians in the colony, of whom over 105,000 were agricultural laborers, mostly employed on the sugar plantations.

BRITISH HONDURAS.

British Honduras was originally a settlement of British logwood cutters made about 1638. In reality it was fortified by England as a convenient point from which to attack Spanish commerce. By the treaty of 1763 it was agreed that Great Britain should remove her fortifications from the Bay of Honduras, and in 1783 Great Britain promised to give it up altogether. British sovereignty, however, was established by the defeat of the Spaniards in 1798. This settlement led to difficulties with the United States, which were enhanced by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850. This part of Central America was called "His Majesty's Settlement in the Bay of Honduras." It yields large quantities of mahogany and logwood. It is now a crown colony with an **area** of 8,592 square miles and a **population** (estimated Dec. 31, 1918) of 42,368. The birth rate (1917) per thousand was 40.3% and the death rate 31.3%.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

The Falkland Islands are a group of about 200 islands situated in the South Atlantic, 250 miles northeast of Tierra del Fuego, and constitute a crown colony. They were discovered in 1592, and have been claimed by the French, Spanish, and British. The latter have held them since 1833 The chief industries are sheep farming, raising of horses, and the whale fisheries. The leading exports (1917) were whale produce, $7,581,600; wool, $1,161,500; skins and hides, $103,000. A decisive naval battle was fought off these islands in 1915, resulting in the destruction of the German squadron The **area** of the islands is 6,500 square miles and the **population** (1918) 3,252.

BRITISH COLONIES AND POSSESSIONS IN THE PACIFIC.

COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

Historical Outline.

The continent of Australia became known to Europe through the captain of the Dutch ship **Duyfken** in 1606. In 1770 Captain James Cook, the great navigator, landed on the southeast coast, named many places, and hoisted the British flag at Port Jackson; and the country was accepted as a British possession. In 1788 a penal settlement was established at Botany Bay. Other such settlements were started at Sydney and elsewhere. Opportunities for sheep farming and the natural advantages of the country attracted many other settlers, who bitterly resented the importation of felons. Their resistance was effectual. Few convicts were sent out after 1837, and none after 1867.

The sentiment for autonomy grew strong during the administrations of Sir Thomas Brisbane and Sir Ralph Darling. The discovery of gold in 1851 was followed by a great influx of population. The colonies of Australia developed into flourishing states. Both the Commonwealth and the various states have tried many experiments in progressive legislation and have adopted invalid and old-age pensions, advanced land legislation, and labor laws.

Organization.

The Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed by Queen Victoria on September 17, 1900, on a constitution enacted by the British Parliament at the request of the colonies concerned. It was inaugurated at Sydney, January 1, 1901. The Australian federation is similar to that of the United States, and was accomplished only after much opposition and long discussion.

The Commonwealth is composed of the five continental states of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and the insular state of Tasmania. In 1911 South Australia transferred to the Commonwealth the Northern Territory, with an area of 523,620 square miles and a European population of 1,418. At the same time the Federal Capital Territory (Yass-Canberra) of 912 square miles, with a population of 1,714, was transferred to the Commonwealth by New South Wales. In 1917 this Federal area was increased to 940 square miles. It is planned to build a magnificent capitol there. Each state has its own local government, presided over by a governor appointed

by the crown, who is assisted by a council of ministers. Each has an upper and lower legislative house. In each state every man and woman over 21 years of age is entitled to vote, unless disqualified.

Government. By the constitution, approved by popular vote of each state and by the British Parliament, legislative power is exercised by a federal Parliament, consisting of the king, a Senate and a House of Representatives. The king is represented by a governor-general, appointed by the crown, and controlled in most of his executive functions through a Council of the state ministers, who constitute a cabinet. These ministers in 1918 were: Prime Minister and Attorney-General; Minister for the Navy; Public Works and Railways; Home and Territories; Minister of Customs; Treasurer; Postmaster-General; Minister of Defense; Minister for Repatriation; Vice President of the Executive Council, and three Honorary Ministers. The Senate is composed of 6 senators from each state, elected for 6 years, one half retiring every 3 years. The House is as nearly as possible twice as numerous as the Senate, and the members are chosen for three years by universal adult suffrage, the number from each state being proportioned to its population, save that no state shall ever be represented by less than five. The legislative powers of the Parliament are ample.

In operation the Australian government is carried on by ministers responsible to Parliament, the governor-general being a figurehead; a federal court exercises the power to annul statutes of the states and of the union without appeal to Great Britain unless it certifies the case itself for imperial decision.

Religion. There is no state church. The Church of England leads in number of communicants. Then come Roman Catholics, Methodists, Presbyterians, Lutherans, and Baptists in the order named.

Industry and Labor. Agriculture, cattle and sheep raising, dairy farming, and mining are the chief occupations. The chief exports 1917–18 were wool, $119,492,000; wheat, $29,112,800; flour, $21,482,900; butter, $23,835,500; beef, $17,975,600; copper, $15,140,000; lead, $15,612,700; tin, $5,321,700; skins and hides, $13,864,000.

Education is in the hands of the various states and is generally free and compulsory. In 1917 there were 9,197 state schools, with 782,504 pupils. In addition there are numerous private schools, largely denominational or technical, and schools giving special training. In each state there is also a university.

Defense. By the Defense Act of 1903, amended by the various acts since passed, compulsory military training is established, beginning with cadets of twelve to eighteen years of age. This is followed by two years in the citizen forces as recruits and six years as soldiers. Liability ends with the completion of the twenty-sixth year. The actual period of training, however, is very short, about sixteen days each year. When the system is under full operation it is estimated that there will be 150,000 cadets and 120,000 citizen soldiers. Before the World War the militia consisted of 50,000 and there were 90,000 undergoing compulsory training as senior cadets. It is estimated that the annual cost when this system is in full working order will somewhat exceed $14,580,000. The total military forces, June 30, 1917, amounted to 281,942, of whom 3,923 were permanent. During the World War, more than 750,000 men volunteered and 300,000 were sent overseas. Proposals to establish conscription were defeated.

The Commonwealth plans to make Australia self-defending, and in 1911 agreed to furnish an Australian fleet unit together with the necessary auxiliaries such as docks and depot ships. In time of peace this navy was to be under the control of the Commonwealth, but in time of war one of the units of the royal navy. A ship of this unit chased and destroyed the German commerce destroyer, *Emden*.

Area and Population. The area of the Australian Commonwealth (not including New Guinea) is 2,974,581 square miles and the population (estimated, 1919) 5,140,153.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

New South Wales was the earliest settled and is now the most populous of all the Australian states. In 1840 New Zealand was separated from it and organized as a separate colony. Responsible government was established in 1855. The general election of 1904 was the first in the state in which women were entitled to vote. The permanent capital of the Commonwealth will be located in New South Wales at Yass-Canberra. The state is entitled to 27 members in the Commonwealth House of Representatives. The **area** is 310,372 square miles. The estimated **population** in 1919 was 1,960,597.

VICTORIA.

Victoria is the most southern and, in territory, the smallest of the continental states. It was permanently colonized in 1835, when Melbourne was founded. Responsible government dates from 1855. 97% of the inhabitants above fifteen can read and write. Victoria is entitled to 21 members in the House of Representatives of the Commonwealth. Melbourne, with its suburbs, had in 1917 an estimated population of 708,240 and is the temporary capital of the Federation. The **area** is 87,884 square miles, little more than one thirty-third of all Australia. The estimated **population** in 1919 was 1,467,188.

QUEENSLAND.

Queensland is the most northeasterly of the states. It was colonized in 1825 and separated from New South Wales in 1859, when responsible government was conferred. Literacy is high, 98% of the population above 15 years of age being able to read and write. Queensland is entitled to 10 members in the House of Representatives of the Commonwealth. The **area** is 670,500 square miles; estimated **population** in 1919, 712,827.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

South Australia occupies the center of the continent, which it spans from north to south. It was made a British province in 1836. Women were granted the franchise in 1894. A large part of the interior is occupied by the almost limitless and desert Austral Plain. It is entitled to 7 members in the Commonwealth House of Representatives. The **area** is 380,070 square miles. The estimated **population** in 1919 was 455,944.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

Western Australia occupies all the western part of the continent. The first settlement was planted on the Swan River, in 1829. Responsible government was granted in 1890. This was the last of the states to join the Federation. It has 5 members in the House of Representatives. The **area** is 975,920 square miles. The estimated **population** (1919) was 323,220 as against only about 50,000 thirty years ago.

TASMANIA.

Tasmania is separated from Australia by Bass Strait, about 150 miles in width. In 1642 it was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, whose name it bears. He called it Van Diemen's Land, for a Dutch governor of Java who claimed the island for Holland. The Frenchman Marion-Dufresne visited the island in 1772, and provoked the natives to hostility. Five years afterward Captain Cook anchored in Adventure Bay. Then came a brief contest among representatives of different European powers for the right of dominion. Captain Bass circumnavigated the island in 1798. Because of his favorable description, the site of Hobart Town was afterward chosen.

In 1803 a colony was planted on the Derwent. In the same year a penal colony was established at Port Phillip, Australia, but was transferred to Hobart Town in 1804. The natives were constantly hostile, but were brought to subjection in 1830, after which the aboriginal race rapidly dwindled.

Tasmania was a dependency of New South Wales until 1825. Then the inhabitants declared themselves independent, and sought to establish a civil government of their own. Next, they successfully resisted the further importation of criminals, which ceased in 1853. In 1856 responsible government was put in operation. In 1901 it became one of the states of the Commonwealth of Australia. Tasmania now has five members in the House of Representatives.

The island is rich in metallic ores and coal. The main crops are oats, wheat, potatoes, and hay. A relatively large state debt has been contracted for public improvements. The **area** is 26,215 square miles; estimated **population** in 1919, 210,881.

NEW GUINEA OR PAPUA.

British New Guinea, now officially called the Territory of Papua, was transferred to the Australian Commonwealth in 1905. Situated on the other side of the island-studded Torres Strait at a short distance from Australia, the political destiny of New Guinea vitally affected the inhabitants of Queensland and of all the Australian states. It is governed by a lieutenant governor and a council of six, nominated by the governor-general of Australia. It has some valuable mineral fields, particularly of copper and gold.

The **area** is 90,540 square miles and the native **population** (1918) was about 200,000.

Chronology — Australia.

1605. Torres, for Spain, sails through Torres Strait. Dutch vessel *Duyfken* is traditionally supposed to reach north coast of Australia in March, 1606. [voyages follow.]

1616. Hartog is on the west coast. Other Dutch

1642. *Nov. 24.* **Tasman** discovers Van Diemen's Land (**Tasmania**), and lands on New Zealand (December).

1644. Tasman is on north and northwest coast of Australia, which he names New Holland. [coast.]

1699. Dampier is first English navigator on west

1770. *March.* Capt. James **Cook** for England, after exploring New Zealand coast, reaches Botany Bay on the east coast of Australia which he explores northward to Torres Strait, taking possession for England and naming the region **New South Wales.**

1783. *June 30.* Act of Parliament for **transportation of criminals.** Order in council in 1786 selects east coast of Australia as place.

1788. *Jan. 26.* Arthur **Phillip,** with 750 convicts and detachment of marines, begins **settlement** of New South Wales in **Sydney** (Cove) of Port Jackson; military government.

1791. Beginning of transportation of Irish political convicts.

1797. Coal is discovered and Newcastle founded.

1804. *Feb. 20.* **Settlement of Van Diemen's Land** begun at Hobart Town by Collins. Launceston is started two years later. Island becomes penal settlement.

Insurrection of convicts in New South Wales.

1808. *January.* Military revolt in New South Wales; governor deposed.

1810. Population estimated at 11,500.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1823. *July 19.* **Act for government** of New South Wales: Court reform; jury; council, while remaining appointive, enlarged by 3 nonoffice-holding colonists and has consultative legislative and financial power; separate governorship for Van Diemen's Land; favors free emigration.

1826. Moreton Bay (Brisbane) made a penal colony, but real **settlement of Queensland** begins with advance of interior pastoral exploration to the Darling Downs; not connected with coast until 1840, when penal settlement is broken up.

1828. *July 25.* Act enlarges council of New South Wales to 15, with greater legislative powers.

1829. White population of New South Wales, 35,610.

May 14. Act for **settlement of Western Australia.** In June expedition under Stirling lands; starts **Perth** as capital.

1834. *Aug. 15.* Act authorizing **province of South Australia;** transportation of convicts forbidden there; complicated government with land commissioners sitting in London.

1835. Main **settlement of Victoria** begun at Melbourne and Geelong by Fawkner and Batman. In 1834 settlement by Henty at Portland Bay.

1836. *July 27.* **Settlement of South Australia** begins at Kangaroo Island.

1837. Adelaide founded.

1840. Transportation of convicts **to New South Wales ceases;** Van Diemen's Land becomes the chief colony for convicts and is in danger of being swamped.

1842. Discovery of copper in South Australia.

June 22. Crown Land Sales Act; uniform system throughout Australia; survey before sale; auction; minimum price of £1 (about $5) per acre. Cause of much complaint; repealed, except as to Western Australia, when responsible government is conferred in 1850.

July 30. Act for **representative government in New South Wales;** 24 of 36 councilors to be elected; general legislative powers.

1846. *Aug. 28.* Act to do away with evils of **squatting** for pasturage; pastoral leases to be granted with first right of purchase.

1849. Demonstrations in Sydney and Melbourne **against** the renewal, under order in council of 1848, of **transportation of convicts.** Ministry yields; but a stream of convicts and ticket-of-leave men is directed to Western Australia, along with a home subsidy, and that colony prospers.

1850. *Aug. 5.* **Representative government** — elected council — is extended to South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and **Victoria,** the last being set off from New South Wales after July 1, 1851.

1851. White population estimated at 430,596.

Feb. 12. **Discovery of gold** in New South Wales; government adopts system of license to dig alluvial gold and later demands royalty on rock gold, whether in public or private lands; such taxation causes much controversy; later, export duty on gold is substituted. Gold fields also found in Victoria. Rush of miners similar to that to California in 1849.

1853. Transportation of convicts **to Van Diemen's Land ceases;** event celebrated August 10, and colony renamed **Tasmania.**

1854. *November–December.* Revolt of miners in Ballaret District, Victoria; discontent over licenses. Eureka Stockade stormed by soldiers on December 3. **Expulsion of Chinese** miners by whites. [matta.]

1855. First railway opened; Sydney to Parra-

1856. Responsible government with bicameral parliaments and control over revenue and expenditures put in operation in New South Wales, Tasmania, and South Australia.

April 21. First Eight Hours Demonstration Day in Melbourne; an annual holiday since. Victoria becomes a leader in **labor reform,** both private and legal.

1858. Torrens Act on transfer of real property in South Australia. (See Torrens system, in *Dict.*)

1859. *Dec. 11.* Under letters patent **Queensland** becomes a separate colony with responsible government.

1861. *Nov. 27.* New South Wales places restriction and **tax on Chinese immigrants.** Victoria has a similar act. Early phase of "**White Australia**" movement, other colonies support policy.

1863. *July 6.* British act places Northern Territory under South Australia.

1865. System of Kanaka laborers begins for plantations of Queensland.

1868. British government, in answer to complaints of other colonies, **ceases to send convicts** to Western Australia.

1870. Western Australia is given a **legislative council,** partly elective.
Imperial forces are withdrawn from Australia.

1871. Population, 1,924,770.

1881. Population, 2,253,617.
December. Further act in New South Wales against **Chinese immigration;** limit on number arriving in each vessel; $50 head tax.

1883. Plan for a **Federal Council** of limited legislative power. Not a success, though sanctioned by British Parliament (Aug. 14, 1885). Council meets first in February, 1884, but New South Wales, South Australia, and New Zealand ignore it.

1885. Gold discovered in Western Australia.
April 4. Queensland takes possession of British New Guinea (Papua).

1886. *April 6.* British-German convention on spheres in Oceania. Under this, British New Guinea is made a crown colony on Sept. 4, 1888, Queensland assisting in administration and support.

1888. New South Wales's **anti-Chinese act** is made more drastic; head tax of $500, and number permitted on each ship reduced two thirds; no mining or naturalization.
Aug. 13. British Parliament passes **Australasian Naval Defense Act,** carrying out agreement of colonies to pay interest on prime cost and also peace maintenance of 7 warships stationed in the region. Later renewed and enlarged.

1890. Great strike involving shearers, dock workers, seamen, miners, and others. Shearers strike again in 1891 to enforce union labor, but fail.
February. Conference of New Zealand and New South Wales delegates with Federal Council to consider federalization.
July 25. British act for **responsible government** in **Western Australia,** embodying a reserved colonial act of April 29, 1899.

1891. Population, 3,174,253.
March. **National Convention** at Sydney drafts a constitution for a Commonwealth of Australia with delegated powers; largely a basis for discussion.

1894. South Australia adopts **woman suffrage.**

1898. *March 16.* Convention of delegates authorized by the colonies of Australia (except Queensland) after prolonged discussion adopts a **Commonwealth Bill.** In June it is approved by referendum in Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania only. [Australia.]

1899. Woman suffrage established in Western
January. Conference of premiers at Melbourne and compromise reached on question of federal capital and division of customs revenue ("**Braddon clause**"); thus amended, the Federation Bill is adopted by referendum in all the Australian colonies but Western Australia.

1900. *July 9.* Adoption by British Parliament of the **Commonwealth of Australia** Constitution Act, being the Federation Bill with some modification of right of appeal to privy council. Members are called states, upper house modeled on United States Senate, federal powers enumerated; a Supreme Court to pass on statutes — no appeal to England except by consent of courts. Western Australia ratifies the federation on July 31, but New Zealand remains outside.

1900-1902. Australia sends about 21,000 soldiers to **South African War;** she also has a naval contingent in the Boxer suppression in China.

1901. Population, 3,771,715.
Act of New South Wales for conciliation and compulsory **arbitration of labor disputes,** modeled on New Zealand act. Later, Western Australia and South Australia adopt such measures. Systems of wage boards also exist.
Jan. 1 Earl of **Hopetoun** inaugurated at Sydney **governor-general** of Commonwealth of Australia; **Barton ministry** is formed.
May 9. **First parliament of Commonwealth** opened at Melbourne by Duke of Cornwall (Prince of Wales, now George V.). At first the ministry has 42 seats in House and 14 in Senate; the opposition, 32 in House and 21 in Senate.

1902. Woman suffrage adopted in New South Wales. [elections.]
January. Woman suffrage adopted for federal
Immigration Restriction Act; a "White Australia" measure also demanded by Laborites. Immigrants must be able to write 50 dictated words in prescribed European language: a sham test to cover intended exclusion of Asiatics.
Pacific Islands Laborers Act; directed against the Kanakas on the Queensland sugar plantations and the methods of labor traffic. All such laborers to be deported within a specified time. In 1903 a bounty enacted for sugar grown by white labor.

1903. *Jan. 9.* Lord **Tennyson governor-general,** having been acting as such since July 17 1902. [minister.]
Sept. 24. **Deakin** succeeds Barton as **prime**

1904. *Jan. 21.* Lord **Northcote governor-general.**
March 2. Second parliament assembles; in House 27 support the ministry, 24 are in opposition, and 24 are Laborites: in Senate 15 Laborites, 12 in opposition, and 7 supporters of ministry.
April 27. **Watson** (Labor) **ministry** takes over the government on Deakin's resignation over the Arbitration Act.
Aug. 17. **Reid-McLean ministry,** the Laborites having met defeat on the Arbitration Act
Dec. 8. Commonwealth **Conciliation and Arbitration Act;** prohibits strikes and lockouts and authorizes a court of conciliation and compulsory arbitration in interstate controversies. Does not prevent strikes.

1905. *July 5.* Second **Deakin ministry** begins
Dec. 11. Trade-marks Act with a "Union-label" clause, which was later declared unconstitutional by the federal Supreme Court.
Dec. 18. Immigration Restriction Amendment Act removes word "European" because of diplomatic complications with India and Japan, but policy of exclusion through prescription of language test continues.

1906. *Sept. 1.* Papua (British New Guinea) becomes a territory of the Commonwealth.
Sept. 18. Australian Industries Preservation Act, directed against "dumping" and trusts.
October. Excise Tariff (Agricultural Machinery) Act, a "new protection" measure, lays an excise on such manufactures when not produced under specified labor conditions. Later declared unconstitutional.
Customs Tariff Act provides for reciprocal preferential duties with South Africa.

1907. Bounties Act for bounty during 15 years on production of certain goods.

1908. *May 29.* **Tariff Act** increasing protection and giving Great Britain 5 per cent preference on portion of items.
June 10. Federal **Old Age** and Invalid **Pension** Act; such measures already exist in New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland.
Sept. 9. Earl of **Dudley governor-general.**
Nov. 13. **Fisher** (Labor) **ministry** succeeds, Laborites having withdrawn support from Deakin (Liberal) ministry.
Dec. 8. Act locating **federal capital** at Yass-Canberra, in New South Wales. On October 18, 1909, a formal agreement is reached to that effect between the Commonwealth and state, later ratified by the two parliaments, and the district of 900 square miles is transferred to Commonwealth control on January 1, 1911.

1909. *March 13.* **Royal Australian Navy** is begun in the construction of three destroyers. In August at imperial conference the Commonwealth agrees to provide and maintain a fleet unit.
June 2. Third **Deakin** (antilabor fusion) ministry begins.

1910. First high commissioner for Australia at London.
April 13. General election: House, 30 Ministerialsts, 42 Laborites, 3 Independents; Senate, 13 Ministerialists, 23 Laborites. Two constitutional amendments voted on: one for assumption of whole of state debts adopted; other for substitute for expiring Braddon clause rejected, but government adopts its principle (annual payment to states of $6 per capita) for 10 years.
April 29. Second **Fisher** (Labor) **ministry.**
November. **Defense Act;** besides the permanent and instructional forces, general compulsory training in graded stages between 12 and 26 years of age.

1911. Population, 4,455,005. [toria.]
Compulsory preferential voting adopted in Vic-
Jan. 1. Northern Territory passes to control of the Commonwealth.
April 26. Popular vote on two constitutional amendments; one giving Commonwealth control over all commerce and all industrial matters; the other, power to take over and operate any industry deemed subject of a monopoly; both defeated.
July 31. Lord **Denman governor-general.**
Oct. 25. Launching of the *Australia*, the battle cruiser of the new Australian fleet unit.

1912. *Sept. 14.* Work begun on federal transcontinental railway to connect Western Australia with rest of country.
Oct. 19. Commonwealth **Maternity Bonus Act;** $24 grant at birth of each child.

1913. *March 12.* Formal naming of federal capital as Canberra.
May. General election: House, Liberals 38, Laborites 37; Senate, Liberals 7, Laborites 29.
June 24. **Cook** (Liberal) **ministry** succeeds. Labor government.
Oct. 4. Arrival at Sydney of Australian navy; 1 battle cruiser (*Australia*), 3 cruisers, and 3 destroyers; 3 more destroyers and 3 submarines will complete the unit.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *May 18.* Sir Ronald **Munro-Ferguson governor-general.**
August. All British possessions included in declaration of war on Germany and Austria. For the World War, see that title.
Aug. 29. Capture of German Samoa by New Zealand troops and Australian navy.
Sept. 5. General election: House, 44 Laborites, 33 Liberals, 1 Independent; Senate, 32 Laborites, 4 Liberals.
Sept. 11. Australian navy occupies Bismarck Archipelago. Sept. 13, Solomon Islands taken.
Sept. 17. Third **Fisher** (Labor) **ministry;** members chosen by Labor caucus.
Sept. 24. German New Guinea is occupied. Australian vessels also visit other islands and the German wireless system in the South Seas is destroyed and raids by German cruisers prevented.
Oct. 17. First contingent of over-sea troops, 20,343, sails.
Nov. 9. Destruction of German cruiser *Emden* by Australian cruiser *Sydney.*

1915. *January.* **New tariff** continues preference to the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and South Africa, but not to Canada.
Feb. 11. Policy of **food control** begins by taking over all meat for export; later, wheat also is controlled by government.
Oct. 27. **Hughes** succeeds Fisher as **prime minister,** and Labor ministry is reorganized.

1916. *August.* Hughes, advocating conscription, is expelled from Labor party.
Oct. 28. **First referendum on conscription:** for, 1,087,918; against, 1,146,198. Labor party is disrupted over issue: I. W. W.'s, Reds, pacifists, Sinn Feiners, and women voters are active elements against conscription.
Dec. 31. Australian voluntary relief contributions to date are about $25,000,000.

1917. *January.* Conference of state governments (crown lands being under state control) formulates plan for land settlement of Australian and British veterans.
Feb. 19. Hughes resigns, but at once organizes a coalition (Commonwealth-War) ministry.
May 5. General election: House, 53 Nationalists (Hughes), 22 Laborites; Senate, 24 Nationalists, 12 Laborites. [Western Australia.]
Oct. 20. First train on transcontinental line to
Dec. 20. **Second referendum on conscription:** for, 1,013,000; against, 1,178,000.

1918. Hughes again resigns because of conscription vote, but returns to power.
June 30. To date Great Britain has advanced $237,000,000 to Australia; and war expenses have been $1,074,000,000. Including the seventh loan, of October 15, 1918, about $945,000,000 has been thus raised. The chief addition to taxes has been a federal income tax; excess-profits tax is laid for one year only. **Total enlistments** to end of war, 415,685; sent overseas, 330,000; casualties: 57,871 killed, 150,241 wounded, 4,264 prisoners.

1919. *Jan. 18.* Australia is represented at Peace Conference by Premier Hughes and Ex-Premier Cook.
May 6. **Mandate for German interests** in the Pacific south of the equator (except Samoa and Nauru) is given to Australia. New Guinea is the chief of the possessions.
Oct. 2. **Treaty of Versailles** is ratified.
December. At the elections, the supporters of the government get 49 seats in the House, to 10 for the Laborites.

1920. *January.* A permanent commissioner is sent to the United States.

NEW ZEALAND.

Historical Outline.

The Dominion of New Zealand is the largest insular possession of Great Britain. It includes North Island, South Island, Stewart Island, and some dependent groups. In the interior, mountain ranges rise to considerable heights. Some among them are still active volcanoes and there are glaciers and scenic hot springs. The climate is one of the best in the South Temperate zone.

Tasman discovered New Zealand in 1642, and anchored in a bay of South Island. Captain Cook in North Island in 1769 proclaimed the sovereignty of Great Britain. He introduced swine and European vegetables. Settlements were made by Englishmen, and American whaling ships visited the islands. Friendly relations were cultivated with the natives, the Maoris, who were a brave and vigorous race, physically of fine form and mentally well endowed. In 1820 Hongi Ika, the Maori king, visited England and was honored by George IV. Thirteen years

later a British Resident was appointed, and in 1838, a lieutenant governor. The New Zealand Company was chartered in 1839. Beginning with 1844 there were a number of fierce wars with the Maoris, who were subdued with difficulty.

Constitutional government was established in 1852, the colony being divided into provinces, each governed by an elected superintendent and provincial council. This was succeeded by the parliamentary system in 1876. On September 9, 1917, the designation of the colony of New Zealand was changed to the Dominion of New Zealand. It has declined to enter the Australian Federation, the nearest part of which is 1,200 miles away.

Organization.

Government. The executive power is exercised by a governor-general, who may assent or refuse to assent to bills or reserve them for the English crown. He may summon, prorogue, and dissolve the Parliament and may return bills for amendment to either house. The legislative function is vested in the governor-general and a Parliament, which consists of a Legislative Council and a House of Representatives. The Legislative Council has 38 members (June, 1918). After former life appointments expire, all members will hold seats for seven years. In 1920 an elective Legislative Council of 40, of which the governor-general may appoint three Maori members, is to be established. The House of Representatives numbers 80 members, including four Maoris, and is elected by the people (male and female suffrage) for three years. More than half of the population are enrolled as electors. Few countries have carried experiments in state socialism and governmental participation in the affairs of capital and labor as far.

Industry and Labor. New Zealand is rich in agricultural, grazing, and forest resources, and in 1917 exported $59,172,000 worth of wool, $29,074,500 frozen meat, $29,066,700 butter and cheese, $9,048,500 hides, skins, and pelts. Its manufactures are also rapidly increasing, the most important being connected with preserving meat, making butter and cheese, grain mills, sawmills, tanning, and wool scouring.

Religion. No form of religion receives state aid. The leading church is the Church of England, with 43% of the population, after which come the Presbyterian and Roman Catholic.

Education. Education is thoroughly systematized and widespread. 95% of the population over five years of age were able to read and write in 1916. At that date there were 37 endowed secondary schools, with 7,052 pupils and 2,355 public primary schools, with an enrollment of 185,884. There were also 305 private schools, with 23,000 pupils. The University of New Zealand is an examining body with which are affiliated four colleges. In addition there are normal and technical schools and 118 native schools, with 5,132 pupils.

Defense. The Defense Act of 1909, amended in 1910, provides for the gradual training of every New Zealander between the ages of twelve and twenty-five. From 18 to 25 service is required in the territorial force, which before the World War was about 30,000 strong. Between 25 and 30 years, service in the reserve is required. The territorial force is required to attend seven days' annual drill, besides thirty drills and six whole-day parades each year. Conscription was introduced in 1916 and during the World War nearly 100,000 were sent overseas. The Naval Defense Act of 1913 provides for a force raised by voluntary enlistment, which is put at the disposal of the British government.

Area and Population. The area is 103,581 square miles and the estimated population in 1919 was 1,139,014, exclusive of the aborigines. In 1916 there were 49,766 Maoris.

The following groups of islands in the Pacific are attached to New Zealand:

Auckland Islands, an uninhabited group about 200 miles south of Stewart Island. The largest has an area of about 330 square miles.

Chatham Islands, a group of 375 square miles area, 536 miles east of New Zealand. In 1916 it had a population of 477.

Kermadec Islands. This group is now uninhabited. It is 600 miles northeast of New Zealand and has an area of 15 square miles.

Cook Islands and other South Pacific Islands. These islands are widely separated in the south central Pacific and were annexed to New Zealand in 1901. The total area is about 280 square miles and the population in 1916 was 12,797. The more important islands are Rarotonga, Niue (Savage Island), Mangaia, Aitutaki, and Atiu. The first two have resident commissioners. The principal products are fruits and copra, with some coffee and pearl shell

Chronology — New Zealand.

1642. **Tasman** discovers New Zealand.
1769. **Cook** circumnavigates the islands. Irregular settlement by European riffraff ensues; followed in 1814 by missionaries
1833. Busby arrives as resident magistrate, assisted by British man-of-war, to prevent outrages; but suzerainty not yet claimed.
1839. **New Zealand Company** organized (chartered February 12, 1841) to colonize region; government loans. Trouble over land purchases (individual and tribal ownership by Maoris). **New Zealand** is included in commission of governor of **New South Wales;** lieutenant governor appointed; trouble over dual control by government and the New Zealand Company.
1840. *Feb. 6.* **Treaty of Waitangi;** chiefs of North Island acknowledge British suzerainty, tribes guaranteed proprietary rights. Auckland founded as seat of government. Wellington has also been settled by Company.
Aug. 7. Act authorizes **separate crown colony;** carried out by letters patent on Nov. 16.
1841. New Zealand Company begins settlement of South Island at Nelson.
1845. First **Maori War;** caused by land question.
1846. Proclamation of Governor Grey forbids direct land purchases from natives; problem of squatters.
1848. New Zealand Company forces governor to purchase from the natives South Island, which, through act of Parliament, is practically at the Company's disposal. [charter.]
1850. *July 4.* New Zealand Company surrenders
1852. *June 30.* **Federal Constitution Act:** six elected provincial councils; general bicameral Parliament of appointed council and elected house with general legislative powers.
1854. *May.* Colonial Parliament first meets.
1856. **Responsible government** begins; but Maori control reserved to crown.
1858. White population, 59,413.
1860-1869. Second **Maori War,** caused by land question, but also due to military instinct of natives. Control over Maoris turned over to colonial government; but also cost of defense
1864. White population, 172,158.
1865. Wellington becomes capital.
1875. Provinces are abolished.
1878. White population, 414,412.
1886. White population, 578,482.
1887. New Zealand shares in subsidy of fleet for Australasian waters (see AUSTRALIA). Amount and number of ships later increased. [tates.]
1891. Graduated land tax to discourage large es-
1893. **Woman suffrage** (white and Maori) and compulsory voting. Latter repealed (1905).
1894. **Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act:** compulsory arbitration, model for such measures elsewhere. **New Zealand leads** in other **labor reforms** and experiments.
1896. White population, 703,360.
1898. **Old Age Pensions** Act.
1906. White population, 888,578.
1908. Second Ballot Act; second vote between two highest candidates, if no majority.
1909. *July.* **Defense Act:** compulsory military training between 12 (later 14) and 25 years of age.
1912. *New Zealand,* a battle cruiser donated by colony to imperial navy, is commissioned.
1913. Naval Defense Act; fleet with voluntary force and reserve to be organized.
1914. *Aug. 29.* New Zealand troops occupy German Samoa.
Oct. 16. First over-sea force sails.
1916. White population, 1,099,449.
Aug. 1. **Compulsory Military Service Act,** 20–46 years of age; Labor opposition.
1918. *March 31.* **War expenditures** to date, $250,000,000; met by loans of $230,000,000, increase of tax on incomes, lands, customs, and beer, excess-profits tax for one year, stamp duties, increase in railroad rates, postage, and telegrams, tax on amusements.
Aug. 15. Men mobilized to date: 114,410; sent overseas, 100,000; casualties: 13,457 killed, 33,961 wounded, 347 prisoners.
1919. *Jan. 18.* New Zealand is represented at Peace Conference by Premier Massey.
April 11. **Prohibition is defeated** through the vote of the soldiers in the field.
May 6 **Mandate over German Samoa** is given to New Zealand.
Sept. 2. **Treaty of Versailles** is ratified.
December. Prohibition is again defeated at the polls; plurality but no majority for it.

FIJI ISLANDS.

THE FIJI GROUP comprises over 200 islands, eighty of which are inhabited, lying between 177° E. and 178° W. long., being thus at the antipodes of Greenwich. The principal islands are of coral and volcanic origin. The surface is mountainous; many of the peaks rise above 3,000 feet and a few of them above 4,000 feet. The climate is healthful.

Fiji was discovered by Tasman in 1643. Escaped convicts from Australia and fugitive sailors took the risk of settlement as early as 1804. During the first half of the century there was almost constant war among the natives.

Until recently the native Fijians were the best-known savages of Oceania. Cannibalism flourished to the middle of the nineteenth century. The people were organized into clans; the clans were aggregated into larger groups. The religion was a form of shamanism. The Fijians have yielded to foreign influence, and their religious usages and social customs have been altered.

The king or overchief of the island, Thakombeau, was pressed by the government of the United States to atone for injuries to the American consul. In his distress the king, who had become a Christian, but without improving his position, was induced to offer (in 1858) the sovereignty of the island to Great Britain, and in 1874 the British government took possession, leaving the native king in nominal authority.

Fiji is a crown colony of the British Empire. The governor, who is appointed by the crown, is assisted by an executive council. The laws are enacted by the Legislative Council, consisting of 21 members. Christianity has been introduced by both Protestants and Catholics. Some progress has been made in public education. The instruction of native children is intrusted to Protestant and Catholic missionaries.

In industry, there are six sugar mills, one tea factory, 22 boat-building yards, and two rice mills. The important exports are sugar, copra, green fruit, rubber, and molasses. Other exports are maize, vanilla, and shells. The export trade is carried on almost entirely with Australia and New Zealand.

The area is 7,083 square miles; the estimated population (1918) was 163,416, including 87,700 Fijians and 61,700 East Indians. There has been a gradual decrease of the native population since 1875.

OTHER ISLANDS IN THE PACIFIC.

THERE is hardly a habitable reef or atoll in the Pacific or the Indian Ocean, over which some European power does not now assert authority. A majority of the groups, scattered over the face of the Pacific, are under Great Britain. Space is lacking to mention even their names.

The most familiar of these islands are the group of **Tonga, or Friendly, Islands** and **Pitcairn Island.** Germany, Great Britain, and the United States had conflicting interests in the Tongas, but finally the other powers consented that a British protectorate be proclaimed in 1899. The native king was left on the throne, but a British commissioner conducts the administration. The inhabitants numbered 23,766 in 1917. All are Christians and the great majority are adherents of the free church of Tonga. A good deal of enterprise is shown, and exports and imports are rapidly increasing. The total area is about 385 square miles. The Tonga Islands were discovered by Tasman in 1643.

Pitcairn Island, 25 degrees south of the equator and at the extreme east of Polynesia, by its isolation attracted the nine mutineers of the *Bounty* in 1790. It was visited by no others until 1808, and then again in 1825. Its area is 2 square miles. The inhabitants in 1914 numbered 140, all descendants of the original settlers. They are an orderly and industrious community.

BULGARIA.

Historical Outline.

BULGARIA has had a long and turbulent history. The Bulgars, a Ural-Altaic race, made their first historical appearance on the banks of the Volga in the latter part of the 7th century. A small body of Bulgarians descended on the Slavs south of the Danube, conquered them, mixed with them, took their language, and thus arose a Bulgarian nation. In the 9th century Bulgaria reached a high point among the civilized powers of the earth, occupying an empire from the Black Sea to the Adriatic and from Thessaly to the Carpathians. That empire soon declined and was conquered by the Byzantine emperors. In 1186 by a general insurrection the nation recovered its independence, and under Ivan II. (1218–1241) gained control of Albania, Epirus, Macedonia, and Thrace. It was unable to repel the Turks, who early began to ravage the country. In 1366 the Bulgarian Czar, Ivan Shishman III., was compelled to abdicate and declare himself a vassal of the Sultan.

For five centuries (1366–1878) Bulgaria suffered under characteristic Turkish rule. Towns and villages were sacked and the peasants were massacred with indescribable cruelty. Some of the inhabitants fled to the mountains, but many of the nobles embraced Mohammedanism and were liberally rewarded. The majority of the people, however, remained Christians and though subject to heavy taxes were contemptuously disregarded by the Turks.

At the beginning of the 19th century Bulgarian nationality had almost disappeared. Then books began to appear written in modern Bulgarian; in 1835 a Bulgarian school was established; and attempts were made to revive the national spirit. Various insurrections took place which were put down with awful cruelty. For instance, after the rising of 1876 at Koprivščica and Panagyurishte,

bands of bashi-bazouks, Turkish irregular cavalry, were sent through the districts, and more than 15,000 people were massacred.

As a result of the Russo-Turkish War and the Treaty of San Stefano (see TURKEY), Russia planned to erect a greater Bulgaria independent of Turkey. The great powers refused to allow this plan to be carried out and the Congress of Berlin divorced Eastern Roumelia from Bulgaria and established Bulgaria as a nominal dependency of Turkey, under the rule of Prince Alexander of Battenberg. Since the Congress of Berlin provided no government for Eastern Roumelia, the Bulgarians in 1885 took possession of it in defiance of the Treaty of Berlin, but with the sympathy of Great Britain and in spite of the opposition of Russia and Turkey. While the Turkish troops were massed on the border, Serbia suddenly declared war. Contrary to all expectations, the Bulgarian army, although imperfectly equipped, defeated the Serbs and peace was declared March 3, 1886. About a month later, Prince Alexander was recognized by the sultan as governor-general of Eastern Roumelia.

This victory made Prince Alexander a national hero. Russia, however, was dissatisfied with Bulgaria's prosperity and stirred up an insurrection among the army officers, by whom he was seized and compelled to abdicate. Stambuloff, president of the Assembly, initiated a counter-revolution, and Alexander was restored to power. He committed the blunder of offering to resign the throne to Russia, thus recognizing Bulgarian dependence on Russia. The national leaders turned against him and he was allowed to abdicate and leave the country.

A regency was formed in which the most prominent figure was Stambuloff, who combated the Russian attempt to name the ruling prince. Finally, Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha was elected prince and accepted the throne. During his early years Ferdinand depended upon Stambuloff, who ruled with an iron hand, but nevertheless prevented Russian intervention and maintained authority in Bulgaria. In 1894 Stambuloff resigned and Prince Ferdinand inaugurated a policy of conciliation toward Russia, hoping to obtain recognition. The death of the czar, Alexander III., and the conversion of Prince Boris to the Orthodox Greek faith led to the withdrawal of Russian opposition and the recognition of Ferdinand as prince of Bulgaria.

In 1908, when Turkey was in the throes of a revolution, Ferdinand announced his independence of Turkey and proclaimed himself czar of Bulgaria. War began October 17, 1912, and Bulgaria, as one of the Balkan allies, took a leading part in the Balkan War (see TURKEY). With an army of 300,000 men, they invaded Turkey and fought and won the battles of Kirk Kilise and Lüle-Burgas. By the middle of November the Bulgarians reached the Chatalja line of fortifications and were within twenty-five miles of Constantinople. An armistice was granted to Turkey, but Bulgaria demanded the surrender of Adrianople. The war was resumed, Bulgaria with Serbian assistance pushed the siege of Adrianople to a successful conclusion (March 6, 1913), and Turkey was compelled to accept the terms of peace. By the Treaty of London (May 30, 1913) a line was drawn from Enos, on the Ægean, to Midia, and all west of that line was ceded by Turkey to the Balkan allies.

Serbia, discontented because of the recognition of Albania (see ALBANIA and SERBIA) demanded compensation in Macedonia. This was refused by the Bulgarians, who treacherously attacked both Greeks and Serbians June 29, 1913. Thus was inaugurated the second Balkan War. At first the Bulgarians were successful against the Serbians; but on July 10 Roumania proclaimed war, and on July 12 the Turks invaded the recently lost territory and reoccupied Adrianople. By the end of July the Roumanians were within two miles of Sofia and Bulgaria sued for peace. By the Treaty of Bucharest (August 10, 1913) Bulgaria was compelled to cede to Serbia all the Macedonian territory occupied by the Serbian troops, as well as the Turkish province of Kossovo. Greece secured additional territory, including Kavala, but Turkey retained Adrianople.

During the first year of the World War, Bulgaria by tortuous means maintained a neutral position, waiting to determine which side would be victorious; after the successes of Hindenburg and Mackensen in East Prussia and the failure of the Allies at Gallipoli, Bulgaria joined the Central Powers (October 5, 1915) and Great Britain declared war upon her (October 15, 1915). The Central Powers at once moved against Serbia; and while the Germans and Austrians invaded from the north, Bulgaria attacked from the east. For the next three years the Bulgarian force was held in Macedonia to check the Allies at Saloniki. In September, 1918, the Allied forces advanced and defeated the Bulgarians in a disastrous series of battles, and Bulgaria made unconditional surrender September 30, 1918.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of 1879, amended in 1893 and 1911, vests the legislative authority in a single chamber called the Sobranje, or National Assembly, which consists of one representative for every twenty thousand of the population. The Assembly sits for four years, but may be dissolved at any time by the king, who has a veto on its acts. The executive power is vested in a council of eight ministers appointed by and responsible to the king. As a result of Bulgaria's defeat in the war Ferdinand abdicated (October 4, 1918) in favor of his son Boris. On November 2 Boris III. abdicated and a "peasant government" was established.

Industry and Labor. Agriculture is the main source of wealth and peasant proprietorship is almost universal, the average size of the farms being eighteen acres. The people are frugal, dislike display of wealth, and are industrious, sober, and hard-working. The more important agricultural crops are wheat, rye, oats, tobacco. Bulgaria is adapted for grazing and there are vast herds of cattle, horses, mules, asses, pigs, and sheep. The chief manufactured products are woolens, cottons, and cigarettes.

Religion. The state religion is that of the Orthodox Eastern Church, but in 1870, because of its desire for religious autonomy, the Bulgarian Church was declared by the Patriarch of Constantinople to be outside the Orthodox communion.

Education. Education is free and nominally obligatory between the ages of 8 and 12. In 1913–14 there were over 4,000 elementary schools, 316 lower-middle schools, and 47 high schools. There is a university at Sofia. Many Bulgarian public men were educated in Robert College, Constantinople, by American teachers and value general education.

Defense. Before the war military service was compulsory and universal, beginning at the age of 20. The peace strength of the Bulgarian army was about 60,000, and the war strength about 500,000.

The **area** as estimated in 1917 was 47,750 square miles and the **population,** 5,517,700. After the Peace Treaty of 1920, however, Bulgaria was estimated to have an area of about 35,000 square miles and 4,500,000 population.

Chronology.

For details previous to 1648, see MEDIEVAL PERIOD and EARLY MODERN PERIOD, *Chronology.*

1648. Balkan Peninsula at this period is wholly in the hands of the **Turkish Empire,** but the Turkish race has never been the largest element. The **chief race elements** are Albanians (Moslem and Christian), Serb-Croats (Roman Catholic and Orthodox Greek), Bulgars (Orthodox), Roumanians or Wallachians (Orthodox), and Turks. Except Albanians, Greeks, and Turks, the races are of Slavic origin or admixture, though the Roumanians suppose themselves Latin and the Bulgars are in origin Turanian (Ural-Altaic). Before the Turkish conquest — fourteenth and fifteenth centuries — various Serbian, Bosnian, and Bulgarian states arose and strove against the Greek Empire. Under the Turks, all except the Albanians and Montenegrins were politically crushed, but retain their language, religion, and pursuits. As a province of the Turkish Empire, Bulgaria had little memorable history previous to 1878.

1774. *July 10.* **Treaty of Küchük Kainarja** gives Russia right to protect the Orthodox Christians of the Balkans. First formal recognition of special relation of Russia to fellow Slavs.

1835. Revival of Bulgarian language and nationalistic movement is marked by **first native school.** Greeks have gained control of the church and **Greek** is the **language** of the schools and **upper classes.**

1870. *Feb. 28.* After a long struggle a **Bulgarian exarchate** is permitted by the Porte.

1876. *May.* A premature revolt is followed by a **general massacre** by the Turks ("bashi-bazouks") which causes indignation throughout Europe, but no action is taken by the powers. **Serbia declares war,** but is **defeated** by the Turks. A conference of the powers at Constantinople in December (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD) leads to no results.

1877. *April 24.* Russia declares war on Turkey (see TURKEY); Bulgars have a contingent in the Russian army. Sympathy in England with oppressed Bulgarians.

1878. *March 3.* **Treaty of San Stefano,** executed by Russia, provides for an autonomous principality, covering almost all the region occupied mainly by Bulgars (except Dobruja).

July 13. **Treaty of Berlin:** the powers at the Congress of Berlin (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD) object to this large new state under Russian protection and divide the new principality into three parts: the southern portion (**Macedonia**) is returned to Turkey; the middle portion becomes a separate autonomous section called **Eastern Roumelia;** the rest forms the new **Bulgaria.**

1879. *April.* **Prince Alexander** of Battenberg, a German, but nephew of the czar, is elected prince (of Bulgaria) by the assembly of notables and a liberal constitution adopted. Alexander is conservative and a Russophile, and is soon sharply in conflict with his people.

May 30. Alexander Vogorides is installed as governor-general of Eastern Roumelia; appointed by the Porte with approval by the powers. A national convention adopts a **liberal constitution.**

1881. *May 9.* Prince **Alexander** of Bulgaria assumes absolute power, but finds himself **merely a Russian tool.**

1883. *Sept. 19.* Alexander restores the constitution and incurs **Russia's displeasure.**

1885. *Sept. 18.* **Eastern Roumelia unites** with Bulgaria in spite of the Treaty of Berlin.

Nov. 14. **Serbia,** roused by this enlargement of her neighbor, **declares war on Bulgaria;** is **defeated** at the battle of Slivnica, November 19, but is saved from invasion by Austrian intervention. Otherwise, powers make no objection to the union. Treaty at Bucharest (March 3, 1886) **ends the war** without change or indemnity.

1886. *April 5.* Sultan recognizes Alexander as governor-general of Eastern Roumelia, stipulating a personal union only, but it is practically a part of Bulgaria.

Aug. 21. **Alexander** is **forced** by a Russian conspiracy **to abdicate;** he is restored by a popular revolt led by **Stambuloff,** but compromises himself with his people and abdicates again on September 8. A regency with Stambuloff at its head assumes the government.

1887. *July 7.* Prince **Ferdinand** of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha is **elected ruler** by the Grand Sobranje (Assembly). **Stambuloff is prime minister;** he suppresses internal disorder and overcomes Russian intrigue.

1895. *July 15.* **Stambuloff is assassinated.**

1896. *Feb. 14.* Boris, Ferdinand's son and heir, is formally converted to the Orthodox faith, and Russian influence again predominates.

1908. *Oct. 5.* Ferdinand, taking advantage of the condition of the powers (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD) proclaims **Bulgaria** (including Eastern Roumelia) an **independent kingdom,** and assumes title of king (later czar) of the Bulgarians, intending to stress the nationalistic idea, including the claim to Macedonia. The various Balkan peoples are in contest and commit excesses on each other's supporters ("Comitadji").

1909. *April 19.* Agreements among Turkey, Russia, and Bulgaria are signed recognizing the **independence of Bulgaria** and arranging her financial relations with Turkey. The other powers recognize independent Bulgaria at about the same time.

1912. *Aug. 26.* Offensive **alliance** of Bulgaria with Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece **against Turkey** (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD, and for the first Balkan War see TURKEY).

1913. *May 28.* Serbia demands of Bulgaria a revision of the ante-bellum agreement on territory; Vienna and Berlin endeavor to break up the league, which they consider a menace to their plans in regard to the Near East.

May 29. Serbo-Greek convention against Bulgaria suggests war, which the powers endeavor to prevent. Russia offers mediation; Serbia accepts, but Bulgaria declines. Frequent clashes among the troops on the disputed border.

May 30. **Treaty of London** leaves most of European Turkey to be divided among the allies; but the powers having forbidden to Serbia and Greece expected gains in Albania, these countries seek recompense in opposition to Bulgarian claims in Macedonia and Thrace.

June 29. **Second Balkan War** begins with a sudden night attack by the Bulgarians on Greek and Serbian troops; the latter take the offensive and by the end of July drive Bulgarians to their frontier.

July 10. **Roumania declares war** on Bulgaria and advances on Sofia.

July 12. Turks begin reconquest of Thrace, occupying Adrianople unopposed.

July 31. **Armistice** is signed, after atrocities by all parties during the two wars. **Macedonia** in frightful condition, as shown by a report of a neutral commission.

Aug. 10. **Treaty of Bucharest** deprives Bulgaria of most of assigned conquest from Turkey; Bulgaria retains a portion of Thrace with an outlet on the Ægean, but is excluded from most of Macedonia, and cedes the Danube-Tutrakan-Balchik triangle to Roumania.

Sept. 29. **Treaty with Turkey** restores Adrianople and part of Thrace to Turkey.

1914–1915. Bulgaria's attitude toward the World War uncertain, especially after Turkey joins the Central Powers. Great Britain offers Bulgaria concessions at expense of Serbia, but the Central Powers bid higher (see Oct. 5, below).

1915. *Sept. 10.* Turko-Bulgarian agreement for the cession of the Dedeagach Railway and the territory west of the Maritsa River to Bulgaria.

Sept. 14. Final proposals of the Allies to Bulgaria: To receive all of Macedonia lost in the second Balkan War, and diplomatic support for other concessions by Greece and Serbia.

Sept. 20. Turko-Bulgarian Convention of Armed Neutrality is announced; three days later Bulgarian decree for mobilization is issued.

1915 (*continued*).

Oct. 5. Allied ministers at Sofia demand their passports and **war begins.** Bulgarians take part at once in the concerted attack on Serbia. (See World War, for military events.)

1916–1917. Bulgarians hold the front in Macedonia. Indecisive advances and withdrawals.

1918. *Sept. 16.* Allies begin a vigorous Balkan offensive, before which the Bulgarians give way.

Sept. 30. **Armistice,** asked for by Bulgaria on September 26 and signed on the 29th, goes into effect, a **complete military surrender:** Evacuation of all Greek and Serbian territory; demobilization; surrender of control of Danube; free passage for Allied forces; military occupation. Bulgaria is supposed to have lost 101,224 killed during the war.

Oct. 4. Czar **Ferdinand abdicates** in favor of his son **Boris;** goes to Switzerland.

1919. *Sept. 19.* Bulgarian delegates are handed the treaty of peace.

Nov. 4. New pro-Entente ministry orders arrested all ex-ministers and others (some 400) who by their Germanophile tendencies involved Bulgaria in the war. They are to be "judged of their conduct and crimes."

Nov. 27. **Treaty of Neuilly** between the Allies and Bulgaria: Bulgaria relinquishes territory in Thrace (later assigned to Greece) and cedes four small sections to Serbia; is to pay a large indemnity in money and deliver 50,000 tons of coal annually to Serbia. Severe limitations placed on her military power.

CANADA.

See under British Empire, page 69.

CANAL ZONE.

See under United States, page 210.

CANARY ISLANDS.

See under Spain, page 146.

CENTRAL AMERICAN STATES.

The six little countries of **Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Salvador,** and **Panama** are nominally free and independent members of the family of nations, but the United States has an absolute protectorate over Panama and, since 1912, a virtual protectorate over Nicaragua. Despite the individuality of each, their nearness to each other, their situation in the tropics, the type of their political life, and the frequency of their revolutions give them many characteristics in common.

Panama, because of its peculiar international significance, is separately treated after the chronology of Central America. The other five countries are included in a common chronology.

COSTA RICA.

Historical Outline.

Columbus, on his third voyage, traced the coast of Costa Rica for a considerable distance. On his fourth and last voyage he again visited this region, and soon afterwards the Spanish established themselves there. The Mayas who occupied the country were among the most advanced of all the aboriginal peoples in America. By 1530 the Spanish conquest of the country was completed and it was a province of the Spanish captaincy general of Guatemala until 1821.

Costa Rica, in common with the other Central American provinces, revolted, and united with the Mexican Empire of Iturbide in 1821; but this union was never popular in Costa Rica. In 1823, when the Mexican Republic was established, Costa Rica withdrew and after 1824 was a part of the Republic of the United Provinces (States) of Central America. The central government had little effective authority and fell to pieces in 1839.

Costa Rica built up its trade during this period, and in 1848 became an independent republic. It has so remained except for a short time when it joined the Greater Republic of Central America, composed of Honduras, Nicaragua, and San Salvador. In 1856–60 Costa Rica was involved in civil war by the American adventurer, William Walker. Unlike the other Central American states, its subsequent history has been comparatively peaceful except for occasional bloodless revolutions, as in 1917.

In 1907 Costa Rica and the other four Central American states signed a treaty by which they agreed to submit disputed matters to a court of arbitration whose decisions should be binding on all parties. In 1916 Costa Rica brought suit for infringements of rights resulting from a treaty between the United States and Nicaragua. The court ruled in favor of Costa Rica, but held that the treaty could not be declared void because the United States was not subject to the jurisdiction of the court, and the central union broke down.

Organization.

Government. The legislative power is vested in a Chamber of Representatives of 43 deputies elected by universal suffrage for terms of four years, one half retiring every two years. The executive authority is in the hands of a president chosen for four years. A standing committee of five deputies represents Congress during the recess and advises the president. There are six cabinet ministers appointed by and responsible to the president.

Industry and Production. Part of the country is high table-land with a temperate climate; but along the coast the land is low, with tropical vegetation and tropical climate. The principal industry is agriculture and the chief products are coffee and bananas. Mining ranks second in importance; there are rich gold mines in several districts. The exports, the greater part of which go to the United States, exceed the imports by over $5,000,000.

Religion and Education. The constitution insures entire religious liberty. Roman Catholicism is the state religion. Elementary schools are maintained by local school boards, while the national government pays the teachers and gives financial aid. There are secondary schools, one college for girls, a normal school, three municipal colleges, and medical, law, and dental schools. Spanish is the language of the country.

Defense. Costa Rica has an army of 52,208, of which 38,000 are active. The peace strength is 1,000 men and the war strength is estimated at 50,000 militia, since every male between 18 and 50 may be called upon. The navy consists of two motor launches, one on the Atlantic and one on the Pacific.

The area is estimated at 23,000 square miles and the **population** (1918) at 459,423.

GUATEMALA.

Historical Outline.

Guatemala was conquered for the Spaniards by Pedro de Alvarado in 1524, and a Spanish captaincy general established which included fifteen provinces. During the colonial period the native tribes almost disappeared, while the Roman Catholic Church and the Spanish language became permanently identified with the culture of the country. In 1821 Guatemala, in common with the other Central American provinces, revolted and joined the Mexican Empire of Iturbide. From 1824 it was a member of the Central American confederation which was dissolved in 1839, and Rafael Carrera was made president of the republic of Guatemala. In 1851 a new constitution was adopted for Carrera and in 1854 the presidency was conferred upon him for life — practically a dictatorship.

Guatemala was involved in wars among the five Central American states. In 1873 Rufino Barrios was elected president and governed the country as a dictator, expelling the Jesuits, confiscating their property and disestablishing and disendowing the church. Although he encouraged education and succeeded in settling the Mexican boundary, his administration was bad for the country. In 1885 he proclaimed himself military chief of Central America and claimed the command of the military forces of the five states, but was defeated and killed in battle. In 1898 Don Manuel Estrada Cabrera was elected president, an office in which he continued until 1920. In 1906 a band of adventurers invaded Guatemala and gained considerable sympathy from the German and British residents, but Cabrera held his ground and, through the intervention of President Roosevelt and President Diaz of Mexico, peace was made.

Organization.

Government. The constitution adopted in 1879 has been revised four times, last in 1903. The legislative power is vested in a National Assembly, one member for every 20,000 inhabitants, elected by universal suffrage for four years; and a Council of State of 13 members partly elected by the assembly and partly appointed by the president. The president is elected for a term of six years.

Industry and Production. The soil is extremely fertile. The most important crop is coffee, which is raised on vast plantations, fifty per cent of which are owned by Germans. Next to coffee are sugar, plantains, and bananas. Guatemala abounds in mahogany and dyewood. There are rich mines, but owing to the lack of transportation they are little developed.

Religion and Education. Most of the people of Guatemala are Roman Catholics, but religious liberty prevails. There is no state religion. The bishops of Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, and San Salvador are the suffragans of the archbishop of Guatemala. Education is free and obligatory for all children between the ages of six and fourteen. There are nearly 2,000 government schools, including 18 kindergartens, 500 primary schools for boys, more than 500 schools for girls, 50 night schools for workmen, and schools of arts and crafts. By a decree of May 2, 1918, a government university was established.

Defense. The military force of Guatemala when mobilized consists of 85,535 officers and men. There is a reserve army of more than 40,000. All male citizens between the ages of 18 and 50 are liable to conscription.

The **area** is estimated at 48,290 square miles and the estimated **population** (1914) at a little over 2,000,000, sixty per cent of whom are pure Indians, most of the remainder being half castes.

HONDURAS.

Historical Outline.

Columbus first landed on the American continent at Cape Honduras, 1502. The first settlement was made in 1524 by Olid, a lieutenant of Cortes, who had heard rumors of rich and populous empires in this region. In 1525 Cortes reached the colony and founded the city which is now Puerto Cortés. The early explorers found numerous ruins of stone temples and cities, which seem to be akin in art and architecture to early Asiatic buildings. In 1539 Honduras was incorporated in the captaincy general of Guatemala. The mines of the province were the richest which had yet been discovered in the New World, and several large cities came into existence. For the following 150 years Honduras remained a part of the viceroyalty of Guatemala and suffered the apathy and decline which prevailed throughout that part of the Spanish Empire.

In 1821 the province broke into revolt and declared its independence. Two years afterwards it became a member of the Central American union, which continued until 1839, when Honduras became independent. During a long period all Central America was the scene of civil war. In the end Marco Aurelio Soto became president, and a new constitution was adopted in 1880. Frequent outbreaks of civil war occurred between 1883 and 1903, when Manuel Bonilla gained the presidency and succeeded in maintaining order until, toward the end of his term, he was involved in war with President Zelaya of Nicaragua. Bonilla was defeated and forced to flee. By a convention at Washington (1907) the territory of Honduras was neutralized and a high court was established to which it was agreed all future Central American disputes should be submitted. This system broke down in 1916.

Organization.

Government. The republic of Honduras is governed by the charter of 1894. The legislative power is vested in a Congress of Deputies of 42 members chosen for four years by popular vote. The executive authority is vested in a president elected by popular vote for four years.

Industry and Production. The chief culture is that of bananas, which are mostly raised on the Atlantic coast, where coconuts are also grown. Rubber is produced, and coffee of fine quality is raised. Honduras, however, is essentially a cattle-producing country and there are 1,500 cattle ranches.

Religion and Education. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians with a mixture of Spanish blood; on the north coast there is a considerable Negro population. All creeds are free and the state contributes to no church, but Roman Catholicism is the prevailing religion.

Education is free and compulsory between the ages of 7 and 15 and is entirely secular. There are nearly a thousand schools, of which nearly six hundred are public schools. At Tegucigalpa there is a central university and a school of social jurisprudence; five normal schools also exist.

Defense. Every citizen of Honduras belongs to the regular army between the ages of 21 and 35 and to the reserves between 35 and 40. The troops number 46,000 in the regular army and 21,000 reserves.

The **area** of the country is about 44,275 square miles and the **population** in 1916 was 605,997.

NICARAGUA.

Historical Outline.

Columbus discovered the coast of Nicaragua in 1502, but it was not regularly explored until 20 years later, when Gil González de Ávila penetrated to the western provinces and dispatched his lieutenant Córdoba to circumnavigate the Great Lakes. The city of Granada was founded in 1524. The early Spanish government was abominable. Father Boyle declares that the first two governors were murderers, the third killed the second, the fourth was a forger, and the fifth a rebel and a homicide. In 1685 the town of Leon was sacked by the Dutch under the leadership of Dampier.

In common with the other states of Central America, Nicaragua revolted in 1821 and two years later joined the five central states in a federal union. During the sixteen years that this league lasted there was not a single year of peace. Civil strife broke out and in ten years there were 396 so-called presidents. Nicaragua includes the central lake which lies at an elevation of 135 feet above the Pacific Ocean, which is only 95 miles away. The lake

drains into the Atlantic, thus furnishing a possible interoceanic canal. This brought Nicaragua into the controversy between the United States and Great Britain, which was settled by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850.

An aristocratic party established itself in Granada, to aid which William Walker, an American filibusterer, invaded the country in 1855, with the support of Cornelius Vanderbilt, who was then carrying on a transport line across the country. At first Walker was successful, but was soon expelled. He attempted a second invasion in 1857, but was captured and shot in 1860.

In 1894 a new constitution was adopted and Bluefields, the settlement of the Mosquito Indians, was invaded. British and American forces were sent for the protection of the nationals of those countries, and in 1895 the British fleet occupied Corinto to enforce claims for damages during the civil wars. In 1909 a revolution broke out which lasted for nearly two years, followed in 1912 by another revolution, when the United States landed forces and proclaimed martial law.

Under the protection of the United States, Adolfo Díaz was elected president in 1912, and in 1914 a treaty was signed by which the United States gained the perpetual right to construct an interoceanic canal and obtain naval bases near the Panama Canal. This treaty was ratified in 1916. Costa Rica, claiming that her rights were violated, brought suit in the Central American Court and obtained judgment against Nicaragua, but the United States ignored the court and the whole system broke down. Because of its proximity to the Panama Canal, Nicaragua is of vital importance to the United States and since 1912 it has been virtually a protectorate.

Organization.

Government. The constitution which came into operation April 5, 1913, vests the legislative power in a congress of two houses, consisting of 40 deputies, elected for four years by universal suffrage, and 13 senators elected for six years. The president serves for four years and exercises his function through a council of responsible ministers.

Industry. Agriculture, lumbering, and mining are the chief industries. In the eastern part of the republic the banana is the chief product, though coconuts, plantains, oranges, and pineapples are also raised and rice is cultivated to a small extent. In the western half the products are more varied, the most important being sugar cane, cocoa, corn, beans, and coffee. The annual average output of coffee is estimated at 22,000,000 pounds. There are valuable forests of mahogany and cedar; gold mines are worked by American and British companies.

Religion and Education. The prevailing form of religion is the Roman Catholic.

There are three universities, ten secondary schools which are supported by private individuals, and about 356 primary schools.

Defense. The active army is composed of 2,000 men and in time of war may be increased to 7,000. Compulsory military service is required of all men between 17 and 55 years of age. The period of active service is one year. The navy consists of one very small boat on the Pacific coast.

The **area** is 49,200 square miles and the estimated **population** in 1917 was 746,000.

SALVADOR.

Historical Outline.

Stretching along the Pacific coast, from Guatemala to the Gulf of Fonseca, lies the little republic of Salvador. This was the ancient community of Cuscatlan which was conquered by Pedro de Alvarado in 1524. During the whole colonial period it was included in the captaincy general of Guatemala. When, by the general revolts from Spain, Guatemala was disrupted, Salvador became a member of the Central American confederation (1823–1839). During this period there were frequent wars and revolutions, and in 1842 Salvador achieved its independence, which was recognized by the other republics and by Spain. It is the smallest and at the same time most densely populated of the Central American states.

In common with the other Central American states, Salvador has been the scene of frequent revolutions, and has also been drawn into the struggles between the states desiring a Central American union patterned on the United States and the party desiring local independence for each state. In 1907 Salvador supported Honduras in its struggle against Nicaragua and in 1908 was sued by Honduras and Nicaragua in the Central American Court.

Organization.

Government. The constitution proclaimed in 1824 has been modified seven times and vests the legislative power in a congress of forty-two deputies elected for one year by universal suffrage. The executive power is in the hands of a president whose tenure of office is limited to four years.

Industry and Labor. The chief occupation of the people is agricultural. The principal product is coffee, to which 153,000 acres are devoted. Bounties are offered by the government for the production of cotton, and attempts are made at wheat cultivation. The mineral wealth includes gold, silver, copper, iron, and mercury.

Religion and Education. The religion is Roman Catholic. Education is free and compulsory. There are about a thousand primary schools, 27 higher schools, including three normal schools and a national university with professional schools.

Defense. The military strength of the country consists of first, the available force of more than 16,000 officers and men; second, forces which can be made available, 11,500; third, reserve forces, 17,500. In case of war, military service is compulsory between the ages of 18 and 50. There is one customhouse cruiser. [tion (1919) 1,298,621.

The **area** is 13,176 square miles and the **popula-**

Chronology.

Central American States.

Panama, because of its peculiar international significance, is separately treated, pp. 81 and 82.

1502. Columbus on his fourth voyage skirts the Atlantic coast of Central America from Honduras to the Gulf of Darien.

1510. First settlement of North American mainland on Gulf of Darien.

1522. González de Ávila from Panama journeys by sea and land along Pacific coast into Nicaragua and discovers Lake Nicaragua.

1524. Pedrarias de Ávila (Pedro Árias de Ávila) from Panama founds Granada and Leon (site changed in 1610) in Nicaragua.

González de Ávila makes a settlement on Gulf of Honduras in present Guatemala. [duras.

Cortes sends Olid and Casas to the Gulf of Hon-

Alvarado, Cortes's lieutenant, marches from Mexico and conquers Guatemala and Salvador. Guatemala city (Santiago) founded (site changed in 1528). [to Honduras.

1524–1525. Cortes journeys overland from Mexico

1525. Trujillo, Honduras, founded.

1527. *Dec. 18.* **Captaincy general of Guatemala** established, including Chiapas and all of Central America except Panama. Continues during colonial period. **Natives reduced to slavery** and in great part **exterminated** or driven into interior wilds.

1638. Beginning of **British Honduras** (Belize) by logwood cutters. Various unsuccessful attempts by Spanish in next 150 years to drive them away.

1783. *Sept. 3.* Treaty of Versailles concedes to British subjects right to cut logwood in Belize. New treaty on July 14, 1786. Conflict continues until 1798. No formal acknowledgment of British suzerainty until 1859.

1811. *Nov 5.* Attempted revolt at San Salvador; soon abandoned. Various circumstances keep Central American provinces quiet after revolts begin in Mexico and South America.

1821. *Sept. 3.* Chiapas joins Mexico under Iturbide's rule. September 15, **Guatemala declares independence;** followed by **Salvador** and **Nicaragua** September 21, **Honduras** October 16, and **Costa Rica** October 27.

1822. *Jan. 5.* Junta at Guatemala (city) proclaims **union** of whole of Central America **with Mexican Empire** under Plan of Iguala (see Mexico). War between Guatemala and Salvador results.

Dec. 2. Salvadorean congress repeals union with Mexico and places country **under protection of United States** as an integral portion thereof. Mexican partisans, however, subdue country again, in February, 1823.

1823. *June 24.* Iturbide having fallen, Central American congress meets. It becomes a constituent assembly and, July 1, declares Honduras, Guatemala, Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica an independent confederated state, the **United Provinces** (States) **of Central America.** Action reaffirmed October 1. Costa Rica's connection is largely formal.

1824. *April.* **Slavery abolished** by constituent assembly.

Nov. 22. Federal constitution promulgated.

1825. *April 21.* **Arce** elected first president. Conflict between state and federal government soon develops.

Dec. 5. Commercial treaty with United States, which earlier in 1825 recognized the new nation.

1826. *June.* Panama Congress (see Panama).

1827–1829. War between Salvador and federal government supported by Guatemala.

1828. *Feb. 14.* Informal resignation of Arce.

1829. *April.* **Morazán,** leader of victorious Salvador Liberal army, assumes powers of federal state on occupation of Guatemala city. Later Barrundia becomes provisional president.

Sept. 7. Congress suppresses **religious orders.**

1830. *Sept. 16.* **Morazán** inaugurated **president.**

1832. *Jan. 7.* **Salvador secedes,** but forced to return after Morazán captures San Salvador.

1837–1838. Revolt, largely of Indians, in Guatemala led by **Carrera** and incited by clerical and "Servile" opponents of Liberal government.

1838. *April 30.* **Nicaragua secedes.**

May 30. Congress decrees **virtual dissolution of confederation** by granting states privilege of separate action.

Oct. 26. **Honduras secedes.** November 15, **Costa Rica** follows.

1839. *Feb. 1.* Morazán's term expires; no effort to elect a successor.

April 17. **Guatemala declares its independence.** Clerical oligarchy under Carrera rules.

1839–1840. Honduras and Nicaragua, with Carrera, make war on Salvador and Federalists under Morazán. [leaves the country.

1840. *April 5.* Morazán, last link of confederacy,

1842. *April 7.* **Morazán** lands in **Costa Rica.** He becomes head of that government. Reactionists, especially Carrera, promote revolt against him; he is captured and executed, September 15.

1842–1845. Attempts to form a new union fail. During this period Salvador and Guatemala are at war, also Honduras and Salvador against Nicaragua, revolt in Salvador, and war of Salvador against Honduras. States in lamentable condition. Costa Rica more stable and prosperous.

1846. Concession by Nicaragua to Louis Napoleon for a canal. Nothing done.

1848. British, claiming protectorate over **Mosquito Coast** Indians of Nicaragua and Honduras, with strong desire to stretch it over Nicaragua canal route, occupy Greytown (San Juan del Norte). **Crisis** in a policy of aggression deemed contrary to Monroe Doctrine and **American interest in Isthmian transit** made important by acquisition of California and discovery of gold there (see Panama).

1849. *June 21.* Draft treaty (Hise) between United States and Nicaragua for **exclusive American control over Nicaragua canal route.** Repudiated by new American administration.

Sept. 3. Draft treaty (Squier) between United States and Nicaragua for neutralization of canal and guarantee of Nicaraguan sovereignty. Squier also secures canal concession for the American *Compañía de Tránsito de Nicaragua.*

Sept. 28. Draft treaty between United States and Honduras for cession of Tigre Island, commanding western end of Nicaragua canal route.

Oct. 16. British fleet seizes Tigre Island.

1850. Salvador, Honduras, and Democrats of Nicaragua ally against autocracy in Guatemala. Carrera invades Salvador, where revolt overthrows the government. Peace not made till 1853.

April 19. **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty** between United States and Great Britain. "Mutual control and protection of any ship canal or other means of Isthmian transit, and mutual renunciation of control over Nicaragua or other portions of Central America. British Honduras not embraced in treaty. Tigre Island given up; but controversy continues over Mosquito Coast and interpretation and fulfillment of treaty.

May 10. **Spain** recognizes **independence of Costa Rica;** first formal acknowledgment of loss of suzerainty over Central America.

1851. American Accessory Transit Company of Nicaragua absorbs earlier American company (see 1849) and develops route with steamers on lake and river. Important route until **Panama Railroad** opened in 1855.

Jan. 9. New union of Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador, but Salvador and Honduras set it aside in 1853.

1852. *April.* Greytown (San Juan del Norte) made a "free city" under British promotion. Trouble results with the Transit Company.

July 17. Bay Islands, off northern coast of Honduras, proclaimed a British colony.

1853–1856. War between Guatemala and Honduras.

1854. *July 13.* Bombardment of Greytown (San Juan del Norte) by U.S.S. *Cyane* in protection of rights of Transit Company.

Oct. 21. **Carrera** proclaimed **president of Guatemala** for life.

1855. *June 13.* **Walker,** American **filibuster** with ultimate aim of adding Central America to slave States of United States, lands in **Nicaragua.** October 13, he occupies Granada and becomes master of the country. [slavery.

1856. *July.* Walker decrees the restoration of

October. Central American forces unite, and after months of fighting **force Walker to surrender,** May 1, 1857. He leaves on an American naval vessel.

1857. *Oct. 19.* Costa Rica declares war on Nicaragua; thought to be for conquest. Peace made January 16, 1858.

Nov. 15. **Martinez** becomes president of Nicaragua. Interval of internal peace and prosperity results.

Dec. 8. **Walker,** attempting another expedition, intercepted and sent back by an American naval officer.

1858. *April 15.* Boundary treaty between Costa Rica and Nicaragua. The latter disavows it later.

May. **Canal concession by Nicaragua** and Costa Rica to a French company under Belly. American protest nullifies it. Attempt of Napoleon III. to revive it fails.

1859. *April 30.* British-Guatemalan treaty; British suzerainty over British Honduras acknowledged by delimitation of boundaries.

Nov. 28. British treaty with Honduras; Bay Islands ceded to Honduras and protection over Mosquito Indians within borders of Honduras transferred to Honduras.

1860. *Jan. 28.* Nominal sovereignty over Mosquito Coast ceded to Nicaragua by Great Britain.

Aug. 6. **Walker** lands at Trujillo on a third expedition. Surrendered by British to Honduras and **executed,** September 12.

1863. War of Nicaragua and Guatemala against Salvador and Honduras.

1865. *April 14.* Death of Carrera. **Cerna** succeeds as ruler over Guatemala. [Nicaragua.]

1867. *March 1.* Martínez retires from office in

June 21. **Dickinson-Ayon Treaty** between United States and Nicaragua; right (not exclusive) to build canal or other means of transit given in return for guarantee of neutrality and Nicaraguan sovereignty. It is probably contrary to Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, which United States desires to abrogate.

1869–1873. American Interoceanic Canal Commission appointed by President Grant to survey routes. Report made, February 7, 1876, in favor of Nicaraguan route.

1871. *June.* Overthrow of Cerna's oligarchical government in Guatemala by Liberals. Severe **anticlerical decrees** follow: archbishop, bishop, and Jesuits expelled; religious communities suppressed or limited; ecclesiastical legal privileges abolished; **religious freedom established.**

1871–1876. New attempt at union.

1872. War of Salvador and Guatemala against Honduras, now the chief reactionary government.

1873. *June 4.* Rufino **Barrios** inaugurated constitutional president of Guatemala. Economic and social advancement, but unfavorable political conditions follow.

1876. War between Guatemala and Salvador. Peace terms, April 25, compel change in Salvadorean government and **Zaldívar** becomes president, July 19, and continues in office for nine years. **Barrios** also secures in Honduras a government favorable to his **plans for reunion.**

1879. Provisional Interoceanic Canal Company organized in United States; **concession for canal from Nicaragua** (see PANAMA for French concession).

1881. Jesuits from Guatemala have settled in Nicaragua. Fanatical Indian insurrection laid at their door and they are expelled.

July 2. Emperor of Austria as arbiter decides that Nicaraguan sovereignty over Mosquito Coast under treaty of 1860 is limited by the self-government of the Indians conceded in the treaty. Favorable to British policy and connected with American efforts to abrogate Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.

1884. *Dec. 1.* Draft **treaty** between United States and Nicaragua negotiated by President Arthur **for canal** constructed by United States to be owned jointly with Nicaragua. Guarantee of Nicaraguan territorial integrity. **Violates Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.** President Cleveland, March 13, 1885, withdraws it from Senate, thus reversing policy of predecessors for canal under American control (see PANAMA).

1885. *Feb. 28.* **Barrios,** on his own initiative, **proclaims consolidation** of the five states. Honduras approves, March 7, but other states do not, and foreign ministers disapprove of action.

March 30. **Barrios** invades Salvador; **defeated and slain,** April 2. End of attempted reunion.

1886. *Dec. 24.* Nicaragua and Costa Rica submit validity of **boundary treaty** of 1858 **to President Cleveland,** who, on March 22, 1888, declares it valid.

1889. *Feb. 20.* Incorporation by United States Congress of the **Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua.**

Oct. 2. Opening of the **first Pan-American Congress** at Washington (see UNITED STATES). All the Central American states send delegates.

1890. *June 8.* Construction of **Nicaragua Canal begun.**

Barrundia, a fugitive revolutionist, takes refuge on board an American steamer in the harbor of San José; his surrender is demanded by Guatemalan authorities; he resists and is killed. Secretary Blaine censures United States officials for failing to protect him.

1893. **Zelaya** raised to presidency of Nicaragua by a revolt. He remains in control and as a disturbing factor in Central American affairs until 1909, in spite of various risings against him.

Aug. 30. **Nicaragua Canal Company** fails. **Work never resumed.** Attempts for American governmental aid during next ten years fail. Concession expires and Nicaragua also cancels that of another American company.

1894. *Feb. 12.* **Nicaraguan forces occupy Bluefields** on Mosquito Coast and assume control. **British marines landed.** Diplomatic controversy between United States and Great Britain. November 20, Mosquito Indians recognize absolute sovereignty of Nicaragua over the region.

1895. *April 1.* Through American mediation, Mexican-Guatemalan boundary dispute settled and armed conflict avoided.

1895–1898. Short-lived **Greater Republic of Central America,** with which all the states are associated, although Costa Rica does not join until 1897.

1898. *Feb. 8.* President José **Barrios** of Guatemala **assassinated.** Barillas provisional president. **Estrada Cabrera** inaugurated **president,** September 25. In power until 1920. Administration, practically a dictatorship, promotes economic development.

1899. *March 3.* New American **Isthmian Canal Commission** authorized to report on routes.

1900. *Feb. 5.* Draft (first) **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** (see PANAMA).

Sept. 15. Arbitration of Costa Rican-Colombian boundary by president of France. Not final.

Nov. 30. Preliminary report by **Canal Commission recommends Nicaraguan route,** but chiefly because of supposed difficulty of obtaining control of Panama route and construction; but on January 18, 1902, after the French company agrees to sell to United States, the **Commission recommends the Panama route** (see PANAMA for further history of the canal).

1901. *Nov. 18.* (Second) **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** (see PANAMA).

1905. *April 19.* British-Nicaraguan treaty; **absolute sovereignty of Nicaragua over Mosquito Coast recognized;** Indians to have certain special privileges.

1906. *March.* Ex-President Barillas invades Guatemala. **Civil war** results, the other states aiding Barillas against Cabrera. Presidents Roosevelt and Diaz (of Mexico) mediate and armistice, July 20, leaves **Cabrera in control.**

Dec. 23. Award of king of Spain on Nicaraguan-Honduras boundary. Not satisfactory.

1907. *February.* War of Nicaragua against Honduras and Salvador. Nicaragua victorious by April. American marines land and prevent prolongation of the war.

March. **Figueroa** inaugurated president of Salvador.

Aug. 18. **Dávila** becomes president of Honduras.

Dec. 20. **General** treaty of peace and amity with seven supplementary **conventions** on extradition, communication, etc., signed by all of the Central American states **at Washington.** Provisions for a **Central American Court of Justice** (opened May 26, 1908), an International Central American Bureau, and a Pedagogical Institute. Measures particularly directed toward promotion of peace by prevention of unneutral use of one nation by **political refugees** of another.

1909. *Jan. 20.* Meeting of delegates of the five states at the first **Central American Congress.** Conventions signed for unification of money, customs, weights and measures, consular services, and fiscal laws. Not carried out.

Dec. 16. President **Zelaya** of Nicaragua **forced to resign** following a revolt and threatened difficulty with United States. Madriz succeeds as president, but revolt continues.

1910. *May 8.* **Jiménez** inaugurated president of Costa Rica.

Aug. 22. **Estrada,** following flight of Madriz, proclaimed president of Nicaragua.

1911. *Jan. 10.* **Loan convention** between **United States and Honduras;** United States to sponsor and guarantee loans for rehabilitation of Honduras finances ("dollar diplomacy"). Not ratified by American Senate.

March 1. **Araujo** inaugurated president of Salvador.

March 28. President Dávila of Honduras resigns to calm an insurrectionary movement. Bertrand succeeds provisionally, and regularly on November 3.

May 11. Estrada resigns presidency of Nicaragua; succeeded by **Diaz,** who becomes regular president, January 1, 1913.

June 11. **Loan convention** between United States and **Nicaragua,** similar to the Honduras one. Also not ratified. Put in operation with control of customhouse by President Taft without ratification; a **virtual protectorate.**

1912. *Feb. 1.* **Bonilla** inaugurated president of Honduras.

August. Mena revolts in **Nicaragua. American marines** assist to **suppress revolt** and Mena surrenders to them, September 25. Marines remain until after presidential election, when Diaz is reëlected.

1913. *Feb. 3.* **Treaty** negotiated under President Taft **with Nicaragua** by which for $3,000,000 the strategic **islands of Little Corn and Great Corn** and a naval station in the Gulf of Fonseca are leased to United States along with **exclusive canal rights** by the Nicaraguan route. It is later modified by President Wilson so as to establish a **virtual protectorate** over Nicaragua. Because of the protectorate the American Senate refuses to ratify the treaty.

Feb. 9. President Araujo of Salvador assassinated. **Meléndez** succeeds.

March 13. President Bonilla of Honduras dies. Bertrand resumes the chair.

1914. *May 8.* **González Flores** inaugurated president of Costa Rica.

Aug. 5. **New American-Nicaraguan treaty** like that of 1913, but without the protectorate. **Ratified** by American Senate February 18, 1916.

Aug. 29. **Molina** becomes president of Salvador on resignation of Meléndez.

Sept. 12. Award of Chief Justice White of United States Supreme Court on the Costa Rican-Panama boundary. Panama repudiates it (1915).

1915. *March 1.* **Meléndez** again president of Salvador.

1916. *May 26.* Costa Rica brings suit in **Central American Court of Justice** against Nicaragua for infringement of rights by canal treaty with United States. Salvador and Honduras also bring suit against the treaty. Court decides in favor of Costa Rica. Nicaragua refuses to accept decision and denounces convention of 1907 creating the court. Conventions expire in December and court **ceases.**

1917. *Jan. 1.* **Chamorro** inaugurated president of Nicaragua.

Jan. 27. President González Flores of **Costa Rica** deposed. Frederico **Tinoco Granados** provisional president, and regular president after April 11. **American government refuses him recognition.**

April 28. Guatemala severs **diplomatic intercourse with Germany.** May 17, Honduras does likewise, Nicaragua on May 19, and Costa Rica on September 21.

1918. *Jan. 6.* Destruction of Guatemala city by **earthquake.**

April 21. **War declared on Germany** by Guatemala, also by Nicaragua (May 6), Costa Rica (May 23), and Honduras (July 19). Nicaragua also declares war on Austria-Hungary (May 8).

1919. Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua have each a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.

May. Exiles invade Costa Rica from Nicaragua; Nicaraguan aid reported. American marines landed to protect property. August 12, President Tinoco Granados departs. Quiros, later Barquero, provisional president. **Acosta** elected regular **president,** December, and inaugurated on May 9, 1920.

August. **Revolt in Honduras** against President Bertrand. American marines land. Bertrand leaves the country in September; Bogran becomes provisional president.

Oct. 1. Guatemala ratifies the Treaty of Versailles.

1920. *Feb. 2.* López **Gutiérrez** inaugurated **president of Honduras.**

March 10. **Salvador** joins the **League of Nations.** Costa Rica not requested to join.

April. Revolt in **Guatemala overthrows Estrada Cabrera** (president since 1898), who is captured April 14.

PANAMA.

Historical Outline.

In 1513 Vasco Núñez de Balboa had his first view of the Pacific Ocean from a mountain in Panama; and from that time the transit across the Isthmus made Panama important as the main canal route from Spain to the Pacific coast and the Philippines. It was one of the first provinces to revolt from Spain and was a portion in succession of the republic of Colombia, the republic of New Granada, and the United States of Colombia. The development of California made Panama a trade route between East and West, and led to projects for a canal and to the construction of a railroad across it. In 1886, as a result of a revolution, the constitution of Colombia abolished the sovereignty of the province and reduced it to departments under governors appointed by the president of the republic.

The trade through the Isthmus was an important source of revenue to Colombia, but the people had little or no share in their own government, and derived little benefit from the traffic. The French project of a canal in 1879 and the interest of the United States in it aroused Panama, especially after the British withdrew their claims (1901). Colombia prepared a canal treaty, then refused to ratify it, and, with the good will of President Roosevelt, Panama revolted from Colombia in 1903. The revolutionary government was at once recognized by the United States and a treaty negotiated by which the

United States obtained perpetual occupation of a zone (Canal Zone) five miles wide on either side of the Canal route and was given jurisdiction over the cities of Panama and Colón as to quarantine and sanitation. The islands in Panama Bay were ceded, as was the coast line of the Canal, for such works of defense as might be necessary. On the ratification of the treaty (1904), the United States paid Panama ten million dollars; and undertook to make a perpetual annual payment of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, beginning nine years from that time.

Organization.

Government. By the constitution of 1904 the executive functions are exercised by a president, who is elected for four years, as are the three vice presidents (or *designados*), and the legislative functions by a Chamber of Deputies of (1919) 33 members (one for every 10,000 inhabitants), meeting biennially. The president is assisted by a cabinet of five members. No action is taken by the government or the electors which it is believed would be unwelcome to the United States.

Agriculture. Agriculture is still of a primitive order and although the soil is of great fertility only about five eighths of the whole area is occupied and only a small part properly cultivated. The chief products are bananas, caoutchouc, cacao, and mahogany. All ordinary minerals but coal are found.

Religion. Most of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics. The population is Spanish American with Indian admixture.

Education. The government maintains 398 public schools at which are enrolled 22,000 children. A university has been opened at the cost of about one and a half million dollars.

Defense. Panama, being under the protection of the United States, has no army or navy.

The **area** is 32,380 square miles and the **population** (estimated 1917) is 450,000.

Chronology — Panama.

1502. Columbus skirts the Atlantic coast of the Isthmus.

1510. Governors of provinces of Castella de Oro and Nueva Andalucia found **Darien** and Nombre de Dios upon the Isthmus.

1513. *September.* Núñez de **Balboa** crosses the Isthmus and **discovers the Pacific** Ocean.

1514. Provinces united as province of Tierra Firma, later New Granada (see COLOMBIA). Isthmus never associated with rest of Central America in captaincy general of Guatemala.

1519. City of **Panama founded.** Becomes great Pacific port for the transshipment of treasures and other cargoes to and from Peru. **Porto Bello** (for which Nombre de Dios has been abandoned) becomes the Atlantic port of the transisthmian route and emporium of Peruvian trade, with great fair.

1529. Saavedra Ceron credited with **earliest plans for transisthmian canal.** Darien, Panama, Nicaragua, and Tehuantepec routes indicated by Galvao later.

1570. Philip II. forbids canal plans as contrary to will of God.

1671. Morgan, the buccaneer, sacks Porto Bello and entirely **destroys city of Panama.** Panama rebuilt, 1763, on new site.

1698. Scotch Darien Expedition, planned by Paterson to give British control of the Isthmus. Soon abandoned. Paterson advocates a canal

1718. Panama included in viceroyalty of **New Granada,** later in republics of Colombia and New Granada (see COLOMBIA).

1825. Humboldt publishes observations on canal routes across Central America from Tehuantepec to Atrato River.

1826. *June 20.* Assembly of **Panama Congress,** called by Bolivar for Pan-American advancement. Colombia, Central America, Peru, and Mexico attend. President Adams desires participation and leadership by United States, but complications due to slavery question prevent American delegates arriving on time. Congress without practical results (see also CUBA).

1841. First **secession of Panama** from Colombia. State of Isthmus of Panama short-lived.

1846. *Dec. 12.* **Treaty** between United States and Colombia on **Isthmian transit** (see UNITED STATES).

1848–1849. Acquirement by United States of California increases public interest in Isthmian transit. Controversy between Great Britain and United States over control (see CENTRAL AMERICA).

1850. Aspinwall (later renamed **Colón**) **founded** by Panama Railroad Company, an American corporation. Takes place of Porto Bello as Atlantic terminus of Isthmian transit.

April 19. **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty** (see CENTRAL AMERICA).

1855. Completion of **Panama Railroad** across the Isthmus between Aspinwall and Panama; the chief route until the completion of the canal.

1856. Riots in Panama **threaten** the **safety of transit.** American government endeavors to obtain further treaty. **United States naval demonstration** in protest of a Colombian tonnage tax.

1857. Second short **secession by Panama.**

1859–1863. Mosquera's civil war (see COLOMBIA) repeatedly threatens safety of transit.

1869. American **Interoceanic Canal Commission** (see CENTRAL AMERICA). Earlier surveys have been made by United States, especially under President Buchanan.

Jan. 14. Draft treaty between United States and Colombia superseding that of 1846, giving **United States sole right to construct and control a ship canal** (contrary to Clayton-Bulwer Treaty) and a zone twenty miles wide across the Isthmus. American **Senate fails to ratify** it.

1870. *Jan. 26.* Further draft of **American-Colombian treaty;** similar, but less favorable, terms; **never ratified.** These treaties part of **effort to abrogate** or nullify **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty** for joint control, a part of American policy for half a century (see CENTRAL AMERICA).

1878. *May 28.* Colombia grants **concession for a canal** to Wyse, who organizes the **(French)** International Interoceanic Canal Society. Panama route adopted. **De Lesseps put in charge.**

1879. *May 15.* Meeting at Paris of the International **" Engineering " Congress** under De Leseps, a remnant of which **ratifies** the French scheme for an **ocean-level canal.**

1880. *March 8.* Message by President **Hayes** of United States on canal declares that the **" policy** of this country **is a canal under American control** . . . virtually a part of the coast line of the United States." Colombia warned against infringing American rights under treaty of 1846 Posssesion taken of coaling stations in proximity to French route.

1881. *Feb. 1.* **Construction** work on French canal **started.** Company becomes involved in **great extravagances,** lack of sanitation at Isthmus, **corruption** in affairs at Paris.

1885. American marines landed to protect transit route during Liberal revolt in Colombia.

1888. *Dec. 15.* **Bankruptcy** of French Canal Company.

1893. *Oct. 21.* **New** French Panama Canal **Company** organized; construction continued, but company **inadequate.**

1895. Revolt in Panama.

1899. *March 3.* New American **Isthmian Canal Commission** authorized to report on routes.

1900. *Feb. 5.* Draft (first) **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** to permit canal construction and operation by United States alone. **Amended by American Senate,** fails through.

Nov. 30. Preliminary report by **Canal Commission favors Nicaraguan route** (see CENTRAL AMERICA).

1901. *Nov. 18.* **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** (second) signed. It supersedes Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, and provides for **canal construction** and operation **and regulation** by United States alone; neutralization, but American right of military police protection. Ratified by United States Dec. 26 and proclaimed Feb. 22, 1902.

1902. *Jan. 18.* **French Canal Company agrees to sell** its rights to United States for $40,000,000. **Canal Commission** now recommends **Panama route** (see 1900, Nov. 30, above).

March. Revolt in Panama causes United States to send warships to the Isthmus. September, more serious rising followed by landing of American marines, who forcibly prevent obstruction of transit or use of railroad by combatants. Marines withdrawn November 19.

June 28. **Hepburn Isthmian Canal Act** of American Congress. **Purchase of French rights** and right of way from Colombia and construction of **Panama route** authorized, with construction of Nicaraguan Canal as alternative.

1903. *Jan. 22.* Draft **Hay-Herrán Canal Treaty** between United States and Colombia. **Colombia rejects it.** November 3, expecting to force better terms on expiration of French concession.

Nov. 4. **Panama declares** its **Independence.** Under treaty of 1846 **United States** " preserves order " on transit route, which **prevents any attempt of Colombia to regain control.**

Nov. 6. **United States recognizes Panama Republic.** Other powers follow suit.

Nov. 18. **Hay-Bunau-Varilla Panama Canal Treaty** between United States and Panama (see UNITED STATES).

1904. *Feb. 13.* Constitution of Panama promulgated. **Amador Guerrero** first **president.**

Feb. 29. American **commission to construct the canal** appointed.

April 28. Canal Zone Act of American Congress (see UNITED STATES).

1905. *March 29.* Reorganization of Canal Commission (see UNITED STATES).

1906. *June 29.* American **Congress authorizes a lock canal.** [Zone and Panama.

Nov. 16. President Roosevelt visits Canal

1907. *Feb. 26.* **Construction of canal** placed in hands of Engineer Corps of United States Army under **Goethals; Gorgas** in charge of sanitation.

1908. *Oct. 1.* **Obaldia** inaugurated **president.**

1909. *Jan. 9.* Draft treaties between Colombia and United States and Panama to settle controversy growing out of revolution, American recognition, and canal. Not ratified; unsatisfactory to Colombia.

1910. President Obaldía dies, March 1; **Mendoza** becomes **acting president,** and later (Oct. 5) Arosemena is inaugurated.

1912. *July 14.* American officials, at request of Panama, supervise the election. **Porras** elected **president;** inaugurated October 1.

Aug. 24. Act for operating Panama Canal (see UNITED STATES).

1914. *April 7.* **Treaty** signed between **Colombia and United States** to end Panama and canal controversy (see UNITED STATES). **Not ratified** by American Senate because of " expression of regret." [traffic.

May 18. **Panama Canal opened** to barge

Aug. 15. **Formal opening of canal** to steamer traffic.

Sept. 2. Treaty with United States modifying **boundary of Canal Zone,** and treating of control of harbors, certain islands, and a battery site.

Sept. 12. Panama-Costa Rica boundary (see CENTRAL AMERICA).

October. Slides temporarily close the canal.

1915. *Sept. 18.* Great slide in **Culebra Cut** closes canal until April 15, 1916.

1916. *February.* Opening of **National Exposition of Panama,** commemorating Balboa's discovery.

Oct. 1. **Valdés** inaugurated **president.** Election again supervised by American officials.

1917. *April 7.* **War declared on Germany.**

May. Constitutional amendments: **capital punishment abolished;** election of president by direct popular vote.

1918. *June 3.* President Valdés dies; **Urriola,** later **Porras, acting president.**

1919. *Jan. 18.* Panama has a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.

1920. *Jan. 30.* **Lefevre** assumes **presidency.** Porras resigns to qualify for regular election to office.

CEYLON.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 62.

CHILE.

Historical Outline.

CHILE extends from the extreme southern point of South America along the western coast for nearly 39 degrees of latitude, or 2,700 miles, while nowhere is it more than 250 miles wide, averaging only a hundred. The land was originally occupied by Indians who were above the stage of savagery, but far below the level of culture of the races in Mexico and Peru. In the 15th century, previous to European discovery, northern Chile was conquered by the Peruvians and a higher civilization introduced which tended to weaken the resistance of the Indians to the later Spanish conquerors. Beyond the territory controlled by the Incas the Indians of Chile were fierce and warlike.

The first Spanish invasion was in 1535, when Diego de Almagro was sent by Pizarro from Peru. In 1540 a century of continuous warfare began under Pedro de Valdivia, who founded Santiago. The Indians desperately resisted the conquest and settlement and were in possession of the territory south of the Bíobío River. The constant warfare with the Indians and the fact that lack of gold compelled the settlers to engage in hard, continuous work, produced a stronger and hardier race than is found in most of the other South American republics. But these conditions did not bring about the material prosperity which characterized many of the Spanish colonies in South America.

During the period of Spanish control the thirteen provinces of Chile were under the administration of a governor appointed by the Peruvian viceroy and the Spanish system of restricting colonial trade worked against material development. When the Spanish monarchy was overthrown by Napoleon the Chileans were among the first to revolt (1810). The government, however, was not easily overthrown and after a three years' conflict the Spanish rule was restored. In 1817 a patriot force which had been organized in the Argentine by San Martín, an Argentine officer, and by O'Higgins crossed the Andes and defeated the Royalists at the battle of Chacabuco. During the eight years following, the Spanish occupied certain strongholds, especially on the coast, from which they were with difficulty expelled.

After the revolution, the government was organized under the dictatorship of O'Higgins, who believed that firm and orderly government was more important than liberty. His policy aroused opposition, and in 1823 he was compelled to resign. During

the next seven years three different constitutions were proclaimed and ten governments set up, but in 1830 the Conservatives, supported by a military uprising led by General Joaquín Prieto, gained the power. Prieto was elected president and a new constitution promulgated in 1833, which with some modifications is still in force.

During the next thirty years there were only three small and unimportant uprisings and, under the firm rule of the Conservatives, Chile made rapid progress. Schools and libraries were established, the foreign debt consolidated, and finances were improved. In 1836 war broke out between Chile and the confederation of Peru and Bolivia. Chile was successful and the confederation was dissolved.

In 1865 an alliance was made by Chile and Peru in a war with Spain. The conflict lasted for four years and was ended through the intervention of the United States. In 1879 war broke out between Chile on the one side and Peru and Bolivia on the other, in which Chile was successful and occupied the nitrate fields of Bolivia along the seacoast (1882). A formal treaty of peace, however, was not made until 1905. Bolivia ceded all claims to a seaport and a strip of the coast, on condition that Chile would construct at her own cost a railway from La Paz to the port of Arica, giving Bolivia free transit across Chilean territory to the sea.

In 1886 José Manuel Balmaceda was elected president. His policy involved heavy expenditures and corruption. The president in 1891 attempted to set up as dictator. Civil war broke out, and Balmaceda showed himself very cruel. His forces were defeated and he shot himself.

During the Civil War (1891) the Congressional, or anti-Balmaceda, party attempted to forward arms by the steamer *Itata* from San Diego, California. The United States government ordered the detention of the *Itata*, an order subsequently held invalid by the Federal courts. The *Itata* escaped and reached Chile. While negotiations for the surrender of the *Itata* were pending, a party of American sailors from the ship of war *Baltimore* went ashore at Valparaiso. They were attacked by a mob, many wounded and one killed. This affair produced great excitement in the United States. Delay in examining into the affair caused a threat of war by President Harrison. Chile at last offered an apology. Otherwise, the relations between Chile and the United States have been amicable.

Since that time the internal condition of the country has been peaceful and prosperous. In 1902 a long-standing boundary dispute between Chile and the Argentine Republic was terminated by arbitration. A terrible earthquake in 1906 almost entirely destroyed Valparaiso and did much damage to other cities. In 1914 Chile, with Argentina and Brazil, the three being commonly called "the A B C powers," attempted to mediate between the United States and Mexico.

Chile is divided into three zones. The desert region in the north is rainless, barren, and absolutely destitute of vegetation, but rich in mineral and saline deposits. The agricultural region, lying between the coast range and the Andes, is known as the **Vale of Chile.** It is a highly fertile region and thickly populated. South of the forty-first parallel the country is mountainous, heavily forested, and subject to almost continuous rainfall. The coast of northern Chile is singularly deficient in good harbors.

Organization.

Government. The constitution (1833) vests the legislative power in a national congress. A Senate of 37 is popularly elected by the provinces for a term of six years; a Chamber of Deputies of 118 is chosen directly by the departments for three years. The suffrage is open to all men of 21 years of age who are able to read and write. The executive power is vested in a president chosen for five years by indirect vote. The retiring president is not eligible for reëlection.

Religion and Education. The Roman Catholic religion is maintained by the state, but the constitution guarantees free exercise of all religions. Education is free, but not compulsory. There are 3,000 public primary schools. The higher institutions of learning are two universities and the National Institute at Santiago, besides professional and technical schools.

Industry and Labor. Agriculture and mining are the chief occupations. Wheat and other cereals are produced in considerable quantities, and cattle and sheep are numerous. Before the World War, Great Britain obtained the greater share of both the export and import trade. Since 1916, however, the commerce with the United States has far surpassed that of any other country. The chief source of wealth is the trade in nitrates from the districts conquered from Peru and Bolivia.

Defense. All able-bodied citizens are liable to service from the 18th to the 45th year. Recruits are called up in their twentieth year and trained for one year. After that they are enrolled for nine years. The total strength of the active army in 1916 was 17,283. The air force consists of fourteen seaplanes and 50 airplanes. The navy consists of one predreadnought, two armored cruisers and four protected cruisers, together with eleven destroyers and five modern torpedo boats.

Area and Population. The area of Chile is 289,829 square miles and the population (1918) 3,945,538, the greater part of which is of European origin.

Chronology.

1535. **Spanish,** under Almagro, first invade Chile.
1541. *February.* Santiago is founded. Incessant war with natives continues for a century.
1810. *Sept. 18.* **Beginning of independence;** governor forced to resign and power invested in an **elected junta.**
1814. *Oct. 2.* Independence forces crushed by Spanish troops from Peru at Rancagua.
1817. *Feb. 12.* Patriot army from Argentina, under San Martín and **O'Higgins,** routs Loyalists at **Chacabuco. O'Higgins** made dictator-general.
1818. *Feb. 12.* Independence formally declared.
1823. O'Higgins forced to resign. Period of confusion and many brief governments ensues.
1831. Prieto elected president. **Conservatives** secure power; narrow government, but stability and economic progress.
1833. *May 22.* Permanent **constitution** adopted.
1836. War against confederated Peru and Bolivia.
1841. Bulnes becomes president. [Chile.]
1844. *April 23.* Spain recognizes independence of [Chile.]
1851. Manuel **Montt** succeeds as president.
1861. Pérez begins his presidential term. Liberal reaction sets in.
1866. War with Spain; Valparaiso bombarded
1871. *Sept. 18.* Errázuriz Zañartu inaugurated as president.
1876. *Sept. 18.* Pinto inaugurated as president.
1879. *February.* **War with Bolivia and Peru** breaks out. Underlying cause is Chile's desire for enemy's nitrate and guano fields. Peruvian navy annihilated and Bolivia coast province of Antofagasta and Peruvian province of Tarapacá occupied by end of 1879. Further conquests in 1880.
1881. *Jan. 17.* Lima is occupied, after Peruvian defeats at Chorrillos (January 13) and Miraflores (January 15). Callao surrenders, January 18. Chile occupies and administers coast region. Guerrilla warfare continues in interior.
Sept. 18. Santa María inaugurated as president; a Liberal who antagonizes the Clericals.
1883. *Oct. 20.* **Treaty of peace with Peru;** Tarapacá ceded to Chile, provinces of Tacna and Arica to be occupied for ten years, then a **plebiscite** in the provinces to decide connection. Plebiscite has **never taken place;** diplomatic controversy, with occasional clashes, over it continues.
1884. *April 4.* **Truce with Bolivia;** Chile to continue to occupy Antofagasta. Bolivia cut off from the coast.
1886. *Sept. 18.* Balmaceda, Liberal, inaugurated as president. Program of extensive public works; corruption, and violation of rights of Congress.
1889. *Oct. 2.* First Pan-American Congress opens at Washington (see UNITED STATES).
1891. *Jan. 6.* **Civil war** begins. Congressional party controls most of the navy and gains possession of northern provinces. August 28, decisive victory before Valparaiso by Congressional army. City occupied, also Santiago. No further fighting; end of war. September 18, Balmaceda commits suicide. [UNITED STATES).]
Oct. 16. Attack on American sailors (see [Chile.]
Oct. 18. Jorge Montt, leader of Congressional party, inaugurated as president.
1892. *Jan. 21.* Crisis in controversy with United States (see UNITED STATES).
1896. *Sept. 18.* Errázuriz Echaurren inaugurated as president. [tina (see ARGENTINA).]
1899–1902. **Boundary controversy with Argen-**
1901. *May 1.* Errázuriz Echaurren resigns because of ill health. Vice Pres. Zañartu succeeds.
Sept. 18. Riesco inaugurated as president.
1904. *Oct. 20.* **Bolivian treaty of peace** ends truce of 20 years; coast province ceded to Chile; in return Chile pays an indemnity and builds a **free-transit railroad** (opened August 6, 1912) from port of Arica to La Paz.
1906. *Aug. 16.* Great earthquake at Valparaiso.
Sept. 18. Pedro Montt inaugurated as president.
1908. *Dec. 25.* First Pan-American Scientific Congress meets at Santiago.
1910. **Rail connection with Buenos Aires** completed.
Aug. 16. Montt dies; Vice President Albano succeeds.
Sept. 6. Albano dies; Minister of Justice Figueroa becomes acting president.
Dec. 23. Barros Luco inaugurated as president.
1914. *April–June.* A B C mediation (see UNITED STATES).
1915. *March 14.* British squadron attacks German warship *Dresden* in Chilean waters. Later an apology is extended, and accepted by Chile.
May 25. **A B C tripartite treaty** (see ARGENTINA).
Dec. 23. Sanfuentes inaugurated as president.
1917. Chile persists in **neutrality** after renewal of Germany's unrestricted submarine warfare.
1918. *Nov. 5.* Government takes possession of 84 interned German ships to prevent their destruction by the crews.
1919. *Nov. 4.* Chile joins the League of Nations.
1920. *January.* Peru said to intend submitting Tacna-Arica controversy to League of Nations (see PERU, 1909).
March. Bolivian question (see BOLIVIA).

CHINA.

Historical Outline.

CHINA, in the broadest sense, includes Manchuria, Mongolia, and Tibet. But the name is more strictly applied to the eighteen provinces occupying the southeastern part of the republic. This vast region is separated from the rest of Asia by lofty table-lands and rugged mountains, from which the great rivers descend eastward. Western China consists of high lands which are generally only sparsely populated; eastern China, of lowlands densely populated, — the province of Shantung is estimated to have a population of 528 per square mile.

The Chinese regard themselves as the original inhabitants of the soil, but foreign scholars believe that they are descendants from wandering tribes of Tatars or from the ancient peoples of Tibet and Farther India. They are members of the Turanian (Ural-Altaic) family and belong to the Mongolian race. Chinese tradition regards Fu-Hi as the first historical emperor and places his lifetime between the years 2852–2738 B. C., but this early history is founded on, and may in part have been invented to explain the origin of, some institution or culture. Thus Fu-Hi is reputed to have invented the plow, to have introduced matrimony, and in general to have brought order out of chaos.

Not until the Chow dynasty, 1123–255 B. C., do we reach historic ground. At this time a feudal system was introduced; since the imperial domain lay in the middle of the population, the name **Middle Kingdom** was applied to the empire. During this dynasty was born Confucius, the founder of the native religion of China (Confucianism). During the Tsin dynasty (255–206 B. C.) the empire was extended to the sea, the Mongols were defeated, and the great **Chinese Wall** built as a protection against the raids of Tatar horsemen. This vast structure, of which several branches and parallel lines still stand, was over 1,400 miles long, from 30 to 50 feet high, and 15 to 25 feet thick.

From 206 B. C. to 221 A. D. was a brilliant period in Chinese history. Feudalism was checked by the development of the royal power, and the empire was consolidated. Conquests extended the rule westward to Russian Turkestan; and in the east northern Korea was conquered. This epoch was followed by a period of confusion, but finally, in 590 A. D., Yang Kian, prince of Suy in the northern kingdom, extended his conquest southward, brought the whole empire under his control and founded the Suy dynasty.

In 618 the usurper Li Yuen brought an end to the line of Suy and founded the dynasty of Tang, which lasted for over three hundred years. Its fame spread westward, and in 643 embassies arrived from Persia and Constantinople. During this time came the golden age of Chinese literature. During the last two hundred years, Tatar raids distressed the country, and by the end of the tenth century Chinese emperors suffered the humiliation of paying tribute to the Tatars. Gradually the Tatars occupied the northeastern provinces of China and established an empire which was overthrown in the thirteenth century, partly by the great conqueror **Genghis Khan.**

The Mongol emperor **Kuhlai Khan** (1259–1294) included China in his empire, which spread over most of Asia save Hindustan and Arabia. It was during this reign that Marco Polo, a Venetian, visited the Chinese court and brought back to Europe the first extended authentic knowledge of Chinese life and customs. In the fourteenth century the **Ming** dynasty was founded as a native Chinese power and Tatary was conquered. During the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries China had little to show except rebellions and Tatar invasions, ending in the establishment of the Manchus as rulers of China (1644). This Tatar or Manchu dynasty ruled the Chinese Empire until February 12, 1912, when it gave way to a republic.

The foreign relations of the Manchu dynasty deserve mention. Although one empire in form, the different provinces of China were ruled by civil viceroys and by "Tatar generals" directly representing the military power of the Empire. These princes were often engaged in civil wars and insurrections. Under Manchu rule, China made little progress in culture or wealth, except under pressure of foreign powers. That influence was almost always resisted by the Chinese themselves and in particular by the Manchu rulers.

Not till near 1800 was a British ambassador received at Peking, and the first Protestant missionary, Reverend Robert Morrison, reached Canton a little later. Foreign intercourse was confined to one port, Canton, where a large European trade had developed. This trade, chiefly in opium, tea, and silk, in the hands of the British, Dutch, and Portuguese was subject to many restrictions and exactions. Disputes arose about the importation of opium which was forced by Great Britain upon the Chinese in the face of an imperial decree. In 1840 the British declared war upon China. As a result of this so-called **Opium War** Hongkong was ceded to Great Britain and the **Five Treaty Ports** of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai were opened for general commerce. In 1844 the United States made its first treaty with China on similar lines.

Six years later broke out the frightful Taiping rebellion, which lasted for nearly twenty years. In 1856 England and France again declared war upon China to obtain redress for alleged injuries to their commerce and citizens. In 1858, by a general treaty with Great Britain, France, Russia, and the United States, the Chinese government yielded its claims in the Amur region in favor of Russia. The practice of Christianity was officially permitted. Other wars occurred between China and Great Britain and France; Peking was occupied in 1860, and the imperial Summer Palace was looted. Finally the Taiping rebellion was broken, partly through the victory of the imperial troops under **Charles George Gordon** and General Ward, an American, and partly through the efforts of **Li Hung Chang**, a statesman just coming to the front.

In 1872 thirty Chinese boys were sent to the United States for education. This was the beginning of China's direct touch with Western culture. Thousands of Chinese students have since been sent to the United States and to European countries, and later many to Japan, in order that Western ideas and methods might be introduced into the empire.

In 1894 Japan made an alliance with Korea and declared war upon China. After a brief struggle China was abjectly defeated, Port Arthur and other territory being captured. Japan demanded the cession of Port Arthur, which was close to the heart of the Chinese Empire, and an immense indemnity (see JAPAN). As the result of a protest by Russia, France, and Germany, Japan was forced to give up Port Arthur and to consent to a reduction of the indemnity (see RUSSIA).

In the meantime Russia, which had begun the Siberian railway, obtained (1896) from China the right to exploit the mines, industries, and forests of Manchuria and the Liaotung peninsula, to import goods from Siberia on special terms, to construct a system of railways in Manchuria, and also in connection with them to establish military guards for the stations and lines. The effect was practically to place Manchuria in Russian control; thus was begun a systematic movement for the dismemberment of the Chinese Empire.

Other European powers came into this process. In 1897 Germany, as reprisal for the murder of two missionaries, seized the town and bay of Kiaochow in southern Shantung and received a lease for ninety-nine years of the territory occupied and the right to administer the surrounding territory, together with the railroads and coal mines of the province. The following year, Russia obtained the ports of **Port Arthur** and **Talien (Dairen)**, which gave her an arsenal of great strength and the advantage of an ice-free port. Great Britain obtained additional territory in Kowloon and received a lease of the fortified harbor of Weihaiwei. France obtained privileges in the island of Hainan, and the right to extend a railway from Tonkin into the southern provinces of China. The United States demanded no forced concessions from China and urged that the European powers should recognize the policy of the "open door" — equal rights of all nations to trade in all parts of China.

In the meantime two internal movements arose in China. On the one hand the more progressive of the younger generation demanded Western education and Western knowledge, hoping that China might benefit by a transformation similar to that which had taken place in Japan thirty years before. The young emperor supported this movement and promised many reforms both in education and in administration. On the other hand the old bureaucracy and the officeholders stood by their vested privileges. They were aided by the feeling that Western influence was breaking China to pieces. The reactionaries raised the cry of "China for the Chinese" and demanded the expulsion of the foreigners. The emperor was practically deposed and the Empress Dowager Tzŭ Hsi An took control of the government, cancelled the reform edicts and attempted to suppress the movement for modernization.

Just at this time came the **Boxer rebellion** (1900). The Boxers were a secret association which appeared first in Shantung, hostile to foreigners and drawn chiefly from the lower classes. Perhaps it was an agent of the dynasty, for it had the favor if not the guidance of the government. The Boxers displayed on their banners the legend "Exterminate the foreigners and save the dynasty."

Sporadic outbreaks occurred throughout China, in which many foreigners and Chinese converts were murdered. In Peking the European officials and residents took refuge in the British legation and were there besieged from June until August. News of their plight reached the outer world and an international force of British, Russian, French, German, Austrian, Italian, American, and Japanese troops was hurried to their rescue. The forces were delayed and were compelled to capture Tientsin; but ultimately, by forced marches, they reached Peking and rescued the prisoners in the legation. The dowager empress fled with the emperor, and the imperial palace at Peking was looted. As a result of this rebellion China was forced to make formal and humiliating apologies to Germany and Japan and to pay an indemnity of over $300,000,000. By 1902 order was somewhat restored in the country and conditions seemed fairly normal.

The Manchurian question at once revived. By a formal convention (1902) Russia agreed to the gradual evacuation of Manchuria. A delay offended China indirectly and brought to the surface the conflicting interests of the Western powers and of Japan in particular, which felt constricted both in Manchuria and Korea. Believing that China was helpless, Japan took it up directly with Russia and finally declared war upon that country in 1904. (See JAPAN, RUSSIA.) Japan recaptured Port Arthur, overran Korea, and, in the Treaty of Portsmouth, these possessions were confirmed though Manchuria was nominally restored to China.

The lessons of the Boxer rebellion and the contemptuous way in which China had been treated during the Russo-Japanese War had their effect. Reforms in administration were made; the special privileges of the Manchus were attacked; and the despised military profession was raised to an honorable calling. A national army was formed, which was expected to take the place of the old provincial armies under the viceroys. The most striking proposed reform was the setting up of a representative assembly and a parliamentary system of government.

The old question of opium came up again. The vicious use of this drug was widespread in China and between twenty-five and thirty million people were addicted to it. The opium question, however, was not simply a moral issue. The British sent great quantities from India, and derived a large Indian revenue from the tax upon it. The United States and eventually Great Britain aided the Chinese in their crusade in 1902. In 1908 an agreement was reached with Great Britain restricting the importation of opium and the sale and use of the drug was prohibited after ten years

Educational reforms led to the abolition of the old examinations, based on a knowledge of the Chinese classics. Examinations in modern subjects were required for admission to the civil service. In 1908 both the emperor and the Empress Dowager Tzŭ Hsi An died, and Prince Chun became regent for the Emperor Hsüan-tung, his three-year-old son, the heir to the throne.

In 1910 the National Assembly met for the first time. It was nothing but a consultative body having no control over the purse or other questions, and was soon dissolved (January, 1911). In that year a cabinet and general staff were organized in which, as in the National Assembly, the Manchus held the preponderance of power.

Friction between the Manchus and the Chinese developed throughout the empire, leading to many insurrections and riots, led by a group of patriotic but radical reformers. These revolts took place in southern and central China where the feeling was most strong that the Manchus were hindering progress. In October the National Assembly was reconvened and a constitutional government promised; but the revolutionists succeeded in capturing Shanghai, Hankow, and Nanking. By the end of the year a republic was set up with Sun Yat Sen as provisional president. On February 12, 1912, the Manchu dynasty, after 268 years of rule, formally abdicated.

Two days later Sun Yat Sen resigned the provisional presidency and was replaced by Yuan Shih-kai; and suffrage was granted to literate women property owners. In 1913 the first parliament of the Chinese Republic was convened at Peking and recognized by the United States. Then Yuan Shih-kai was elected president of the Chinese Republic by the parliament on October 6, and the new republic was recognized by the European powers on October 10th. The majority of the parliament however was opposed to Yuan Shih-kai, who ordered the dissolution of the Kuo Ming Tang (the party in opposition) and abolished the parliament (January, 1914) and in May became practically dictator.

In 1915 most of the provinces voted to reëstablish the monarchy under Yuan Shih-kai as emperor; but the more democratic southern provinces revolted, and foreign powers intervened. Insurrection and civil war continued through 1916 and 1918. Yuan Shih-kai died June 6, 1916, and the newly elected president, Li Yuan-hung, and later Feng Kwo-chang, who succeeded in office, continued the struggle against the disaffected provinces in the south.

The outbreak of the World War in 1914 greatly affected China. Japan, as the ally of Great Britain, entered into the struggle and demanded that Germany should evacuate Tsingtau, the port of Kiaochow in the province of Shantung. On refusal, Japan, after a brief siege, obtained possession of this port and the surrounding district. May 25, 1915, China was practically forced into signing a treaty with Japan in which she acceded to certain demands which materially altered the relations between China and Japan and affected the position of other powers in relation to China. These demands may be classified under five heads: (1) Shantung. China agreed that Japan should succeed not merely to a position which Germany had occupied in that province but engaged to make no cession of territory to any third power and to consent to Japan's extending the railway and dominating the trade of the province. (2) Manchuria and Inner Mongolia. Here Japan demanded the lease of Port Arthur and Talien (Dairen) and the Southern Manchurian railway for 99 years, together with special privileges and advantages for her subjects. (3) The Hanyehping. This company controlled the Hanyang iron works and coal mines. Japan demanded a joint Chinese and Japanese company in control of all mines in the neighborhood, giving a monopoly of rich iron ores and other mineral resources. (4) Territorial concessions. A mutual declaration against cession or lease of territory along the coast of China. (5) Special privileges. For hospitals, churches, police instructors, munitions, construction of railroads, capital, and Japanese political, financial, and military advisors. China made every effort to avoid signing this treaty, but was forced to consent.

The United States was aware of these negotiations, which could hardly have taken place except for the World War. In November, 1917, Secretary Lansing in an exchange of notes with Viscount Ishii, special Japanese ambassador, stated that since "territorial propinquity creates special relations between countries" . . . "the United States recognizes that Japan has special interests in China." Both nations disclaimed interference with the independence or territorial integrity of China and reasserted the principle of the "open door," or equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China.

China declared war on Germany and Austria-Hungary August 14, 1917, somewhat against the will of the United States and the Allies. This entry into the war complicated the payments of the Boxer Rebellion indemnity, and gave China a status as a belligerent, which admitted her to a share in the peace negotiations with Germany in 1919. At the conference in Paris, Japan demanded and obtained the cession of all rights and privileges which Germany had enjoyed in China — this specially affected the rich province of Shantung. Although Japan had formally promised the United States to restore these to China at some future period, nothing to that effect appeared in the treaty. As a result, China refused to sign it.

Organization.

Government. Before the establishment of the republic in 1912 China was supposed to be governed by an emperor, exercising absolute and arbitrary power, who ruled as vice regent of heaven, not for his own pleasure but for the good of his people. In practice, the power of the emperor was checked and often nullified. The imperial edicts, which were law for the empire, were framed by a secret and irresponsible body of officials, mostly Manchus in Peking. The magistrates were appointed out of a small class of men who were able to take a high stand on literary examinations which tested mainly knowledge of Chinese classics. Nobody received a significant appointment who had not the backing of influential people; and the high posts went only to those who had shown ability in office.

The administration of the eighteen provinces was vested in governors and viceroys and other officers, nominally appointed by the emperor, but practically by the palace officials. In theory the central government had complete control over the provincial administration, but actually the viceroys of the provinces were laws unto themselves; the central government had power to remove or degrade any provincial governor, but usually went no further than to transfer him to another province. Yet the imperial government alone had official relations with outside nations and was held responsible if the lives and property of foreigners suffered.

The republican government established in 1912 consists of a president and vice president elected for five years and a bicameral legislature, composed of a senate (*Tsan Yi Yuan*) of 264 members and a house of representatives (*Chung Yi Yuan*) of 596 members. Since the establishment of the republic, however, there have been almost continuous insurrections and civil wars. The aim was to form a strong central government exercising great control over the provincial governments. In each province there was to be a supreme governor appointed by the president and removable by him, but this led to local rebellions,

and in the struggle between the "North and the South" the central government has lost control over both. In 1919 the students at Peking made a demonstration against certain officials who they believed had been bribed to betray their country to Japan.

Industry and Resources. China is essentially an agricultural country. The land is held in small freehold estates on payment of an annual tax. The soil is generally fertile and the people are most industrious, but the holdings are so small and the implements so primitive that the Chinese are rather gardeners than farmers. Wheat, barley, corn, and other cereals are chiefly cultivated in the north, and rice, sugar, and indigo in the south. Cotton is extensively grown and tea is an important product. Silk culture is one of China's most essential industries and she produces about a fourth of the world's supply.

Manufacturing was rapidly developing in China before the World War, particularly in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries in Shanghai and Canton. In large centers flour and rice mills are being established and at Hanyang near Hankow there are important ironworks. China is immensely rich in minerals. The coal supply is almost unrivaled and the annual output of about 15,000,000 tons can be indefinitely enlarged. Iron ores are abundant. In the Yangtze valley exist rich deposits of petroleum; tin and antimony are found, as well as gold and silver.

Religion. The Chinese acknowledge three religions as indigenous: Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism. Mohammedanism and Christianity have been introduced. Mohammedans are found in every province, and it is estimated that they number between five and ten million. Roman Catholicism, introduced more than three centuries ago, now has two million converts. The Protestant denominations began their work in 1807 and count about half a million native Christians. There is also a Russian Orthodox mission which dates from 1685.

Education. Until 1905 education in China was of a purely Chinese character, based on the study of Chinese classics and tested by public examinations, success in which opened the way for government employment. Some of the Chinese had been educated in the mission schools, and a few had studied in Europe and the United States. In 1905 the old system of examinations was swept away and a new educational system was initiated.

Primary education is to be compulsory in the hands of the provincial authorities; and schools are to be established throughout the country. Secondary and higher education is given over to the board of education of the central government. There are to be four national universities with preparatory colleges attached, besides technical schools and normal schools. The Peking government university, established in 1898 and completely reorganized in 1917, has now over 1500 students. There are numerous mission schools, both Protestant and Catholic, throughout China.

In addition the United States returned to China the surplus of the Boxer indemnity, amounting to over $8,000,000, and China agreed to spend the income of this sum in preparing and sending students to the United States for education. The number of schools has increased; but China is still far behind its needs in education.

Defense. The army is recruited on the principle of modified conscription for terms of three years in the first line, three in the first reserve, and four in the second reserve. In theory the military forces are under the ministry of war and are paid by the central government; and theoretically the civil governors have no authority over the army. Since the death of Yuan Shih-kai, however, the military governors have been practically independent of Peking and have raised armies which gravely menace the peace of the republic. The Chinese navy consists of four old cruisers and some torpedo boats.

Area and Population. The area of China is estimated at 4,277,170 square miles and the population at 320,650,000. No exact census has ever been taken, as it would probably cause a revolution.

Chronology.

For earlier dates, see MEDIEVAL and EARLY MODERN PERIODS, *Chronology*.

1644. Ta-Tsing, or "Great Pure," **Dynasty** established at Peking by the victorious Manchu Tatars; Shun-chi is proclaimed emperor. Ming dynasty is extinguished.

1653. Russian embassy under Baikov arrives at Peking, but is rejected because of a refusal to perform the ceremony of *kotow*, or obeisance to the emperor.

1655. Dutch embassy under Goyer and Keyzer arrives in Peking. They secure the privilege of sending an embassy once in eight years, and of employing four ships in the Chinese trade. They are soon followed by the French, English, and Portuguese.

1661. Shun-chi succeeded by his son, Kang-hi, who is instructed in scientific and literary pursuits by Jesuits at the emperor's court.

1666. Albazin, the first Russian settlement on the Amur, founded.

1670. English open trade in Amoy and Formosa, and 19 years later in Canton.

1689. By the Treaty of Nerchinsk Chinese compel Russians to withdraw from the Amur valley.

1722. Kang-hi dies; during his reign the **empire is extended** from Siberia to Cochin China, and from the China Sea to Turkestan.

1724. Imperial edict prohibits the propagation of Christianity in China and **expels the missionaries,** with the exception of a few whose services are required for scientific purposes at Peking.

1735. Kien Lung, son of Emperor Yungching, accedes to the throne. He makes **warlike invasions** into Ili, Turkestan, Burma, and Cochin China. Uighur Turks establish themselves in Kansu.

1755. Russian caravan trade with China is relegated to the frontier town of Kiackta, where it remains until 1895. [pressed by Akmet.

1781–1784. Turks in Kansu rebel, and are sup-

1792. Emperor completes his victorious war against the Gurkhas and receives the formal submission of Nepal and Tibet.

1793. Lord Macartney, the **first British ambassador** to Peking, is received by Kien Lung.

1795. Kien Lung abdicates in favor of Kia-king, his fifteenth son, who reigns for twenty-five years, during which China is in a **distracted condition** on account of the weakness of the government, successive rebellions, and invasions by pirates.

1807. Robert Morrison, the **first Protestant missionary,** reaches Canton.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1816. Lord Amherst, ambassador of Great Britain, arrives at Peking; the mandarins insist that in order to secure an interview he must do the traditional obeisance (the **kotow**). Declining to do so, Lord Amherst is dismissed from the imperial palace on the day of his arrival.

1820. Kia-king dies and is succeeded by Taoukwang, he begins his reign with promises of reform (unfulfilled); rebellions break out in Formosa, Kwangsi, Honan, and other provinces.

1823. Morrison's **translation of the Bible** into Chinese is published.

1834. Monopoly of the East India Company ceases, and the British government sends Lord Napier to Canton as its representative.
China **forbids the importation of opium.** In the following year the Chinese seize the ship *Argyle* and its crew; the stores of opium at Canton are surrendered and destroyed.

1840. Emperor issues a decree forbidding all intercourse with England forever. With this act the so-called **Opium War** begins.

1841. The British capture the Bogue forts, on the Canton River, also the fortifications of the city, and occupy Amoy.

1842. Shanghai and Chinkiang are seized by the English. In August, a **treaty** is made at Nanking, by which it is stipulated that the five **treaty ports** of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai shall be **opened** to commercial relations with Great Britain; Hongkong is ceded to Great Britain.

1844. *July 3.* **First treaty** between China and the **United States** is signed by Caleb Cushing at Macao. Other treaties with European nations are concluded in this, and following years.

1850. The **Taiping rebellion** begins.

1851. Hung Siu-tsuen, leader of the Taiping rebels, is proclaimed king by them.

1852. *June 19.* Rebels are victorious and destroy a large part of the imperial army under Lou.

1853. Rebels capture Nanking March 20; Amoy is taken May 19, and Shanghai falls September 7. The insurgents fail, however, in a siege of Canton.

1854. Collection of customs duties from foreign vessels is put in charge of **Europeans** at Shanghai; the system, proving profitable and satisfactory, is made permanent.

1855. Imperial forces retake Amoy and Shanghai.

1856. *Oct. 8.* Chinese officials of Canton board the lorcha *Arrow*, carrying freebooters and the British flag, and take off fourteen of the crew as pirates; whereupon the British resort to measures of retaliation and Canton is attacked, beginning the so-called **Arrow War.**

1857. English, with French allies, bombard Canton, and it is occupied by them. In December, China is torn by rebellion, being then defenseless.

1858. English and French troops capture the forts at the mouth of the Pei River, and the emperor consents to a **treaty of peace** at Tientsin with Great Britain, France, Russia, and United States; the Amur is ceded to Russia. In all these treaties the **practice of Christianity is allowed** in China.

1859. *Aug. 15.* **Commercial treaty** with the **United States** is signed at Peh-tang, after the Americans had been conducted to Peking but refused an audience there because unwilling to perform the **kotow.** Great Britain and France become engaged in another war with China, owing to their refusal to go by land to Peking. They insist on going through the Pei River, which the Chinese have closed.

1860. A force of **English and French** advances on **Peking,** which is **occupied** in October. The Summer Palace is destroyed by order of Lord Elgin, the British commander, to terrorize the Chinese government.

Oct. 24. **Treaty** with Great Britain by which China cedes part of Kowloon, allows the establishment of permanent legations in Peking, and pays an indemnity; treaty is known as the "**Conventions of Peking.**"

1861. Emperor Hien-fung dies at Chengtehfu (Jehol), whither he had fled from the allies, and is succeeded by Tung-chi under the regency of Empress Dowager Tzŭ Hsi An.

1862. The **French and English** give **aid** to the government **against the** Taiping **rebels,** who have made a considerable advance.

1863. In October, the imperial army under the command of Colonel **Charles George Gordon** overwhelms the rebels, and on November 28 Gordon captures Soochow.

1864. Gordon takes Changchowfu on March 23, and Tseng Kwo-fan captures Nanking. Hung Siu-tsuen, the rebel leader, kills himself June 30.

1865. "Nien" rebels are successful in the north, but are suppressed two years later by Li Hung Chang.

1867. China sends her **first diplomatic mission** to Western nations under the American ex-minister, **Anson Burlingame.**

1868. *July 28.* **Burlingame Treaty** between China and the United States is signed at Washington; it allows immigration.

1869. Tso Tsung-tang suppresses the Mohammedan rebellion in the northwest.

1870. *June 21.* French consul and many Christians at Tientsin are massacred by a mob. An official apology is made to France in 1871.

1872. Thirty Chinese boys are sent to the United States by their government to be educated.

1873. Emperor, coming of age, receives all the foreign ministers in audience at Peking without demanding the objectionable **kotow.**

1874. *March 15.* France makes treaty with Annam without consulting China, the suzerain.

1875. On the death of Tung-chi, Tsai-tien becomes emperor, with the title of Kuang-hsü.

1876. Chefoo convention with the British minister opens four new ports for trade, and settles opium, transit duty, judicial, and other matters between Great Britain and China.
First railway, with a line of 12 miles, is completed between Shanghai and Woosung; is afterwards **destroyed** because of popular prejudice.

Feb. 26. Japan concludes a treaty with Korea without consulting China, the suzerain.

1877. Terrible **famine** occurs in the provinces of Kiangsu, Shantung, Chihli, and Shansi. Students sent to England and France. Chinese troops re-conquer Kashgar from the Usbeg rebel, Yakub Beg.

1878. Famine continues; ten million people reduced to the verge of starvation. Insurrection in Kwangsi led by Li Yung-choi.

1879. Hakkas of the island of Hainan rise in rebellion, but are overwhelmed.

May–June. **General Grant,** ex-president of the United States, visits Peking and other important cities, and is received with great distinction.
Li Hung Chang, grand secretary of the empire, rises to distinction, superseding Prince Kung as official representative of China in foreign affairs.

1880. *Nov. 17.* Treaty is concluded between **China** and the **United States,** permitting restrictions on Chinese immigration.

1881. Treaty concluded at St. Petersburg between **China** and **Russia** for the retrocession to the former by the latter of the province of Ili. As a reciprocal concession, Russia is granted an important extension of commercial privileges in the Chinese Empire.
Chinese youths sent to the United States for education are recalled; they are given inferior positions in the arsenals and civil service of China.

1882. The obstacles to intercourse between China and the Western nations are in a measure removed through the influence of Viceroy and Grand Secretary **Li Hung Chang.**

May 6. **Immigration of Chinese** into the United States is **forbidden** by act of Congress.

1883. *September.* Serious riots occur in Canton. Criminals take refuge in the foreign consulates. A mob fires and plunders warehouses belonging to English, German, French, and American companies. A **fleet of gunboats,** British, French, and Chinese, **suppresses the insurrection.**

1884. China becomes involved in a **war with France;** the French destroy the arsenal and fleet at Foochow. (See FRANCE.)

1885. Franco-Chinese War continues, and the resistance of the government to the foreign invasion weakens. The national spirit, however, is strong and patriotic. After a somewhat ineffective invasion of Formosa the **French withdraw,** and

1885 (*continued*).
peace is concluded. American Government returns the balance of 1858 indemnity as **excessive.**

1887. *September.* Most disastrous **overflow of the Hwang (Yellow) River** known in modern times, inundates a region estimated at 50,000 square miles; more than a million lives lost.

1889. Another famine in northern China affects 12,000,000 people.
Serious rebellion in Formosa.

1891. Riots against the Christians occur in parts of China; mobs attack the churches, drive away or murder the missionaries, and expel the Christians.

1892. Rebellion in Mongolia and Manchuria. Special decree prohibits antimissionary movements.

1894. *Aug. 1.* Formal **declaration of war by Japan against China.** Counter declaration of the Chinese government. Treaty of alliance against China is made between Japan and Korea. Japanese fleet and army begin an invasion. Pingyang is captured, and Manchuria is invaded.
Sept. 17. Decisive naval engagement of the war off Haiyang island; Japanese fleet is victorious. **Port Arthur is taken,** November 21. **Imperial government** is obliged to **sue for peace.**

1895. Antimissionary riots are renewed.
Feb. 12. Japanese take Weihaiwei.
Further United States "Geary law," against Chinese immigration; requires registration.
April 10. **Peace negotiations** begin. Count Ito submits maximum concessions, and Li Hung Chang is obliged to accept the ultimatum. The Russian, French, and German governments protest against the exacting terms demanded by Japan, and these terms are modified. The cession of territory is reduced and the indemnity moderated to $280,000,000. Island of Formosa is ceded to Japan. This starts a series of foreign demands for land. Japan compelled to give up Port Arthur by pressure of European powers. [lished.

1896. Modern government post system is estab-
July 21. Commercial treaty signed. China grants to Japan all the rights conceded to the most favored nation At Kiangyin an anti-Christian riot occurs during which the American Protestant mission is sacked.
December. On the strength of an agreement between the Chinese government and the Russo-Chinese Bank, Russia secures the right to construct a system of railways in Manchuria, under the name of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, connecting the Siberian railroad with Kirin, Vladivostok, and the Liaotung peninsula. The company is to have the right to guard its stations with Russian troops, to exploit industries of the region, etc. The effect is substantially the transfer of all Manchuria to Russian control.

1897. *November.* Germany secures a foothold in China by the seizure of the town and bay of Kiaochow, in southern Shantung, for the murder of two missionaries. Occupation involves the administration of the adjoining territory and is nominally limited to a lease of ninety-nine years.

1898. *February.* Port Arthur and Talienwan (Dairen) are leased to Russia for a term of twenty-five years, thus giving her an arsenal of great strength and strategic value and an ice-free port as terminus for her Siberian railway. Great Britain insists on a lease of the fortified harbor of Weihaiwei so long as Russia occupies Liaotung peninsula. By a previous negotiation Great Britain and Germany together agree to provide China with a loan of $78,000,000. In return, the Chinese promise to leave the control of their maritime customs service in charge of a British inspector general, never to alienate any portion of the Yangtze basin, to open all internal waters of the empire to foreign trade, and presently to open new treaty ports. France is granted the right to extend a railway from Tonkin into the southern provinces of China, and Great Britain that of tapping the upper Yangtze trade by a railroad to penetrate western China from Burma. Great Britain also obtains (in June) a lease for ninety-nine years of a considerable tract surrounding Hongkong, thus greatly strengthening her naval base. Under the influence of Kang Yu Wei, the emperor initiates a series of reforms for one hundred days, June 11 to September 22. September 22, the Dowager Empress Tzŭ Hsi An effects a *coup d'état*, assisted by Yuan Shih-kai. The emperor becomes a prisoner. Six reformers are executed.

1899. Boxer societies are secretly formed to train in military and magic arts in various parts of the country.
Sept. 6. Secretary Hay's proposition for the "open door" in China; accepted in principle by several of the powers.

1900. *Jan. 24.* Serious disorders in several provinces which lead the powers to demand, April 7, the suppression of the Antiforeign League, or **Boxers.** Missionaries and native Christians are murdered near Peking in May. June 17, European warships attack Taku. June 18, mob murders Baron von Ketteler, German minister, in Peking, and attacks other legations.
Relief expedition of allied forces under British Admiral Seymour repulsed by Boxers. Allies capture **Tientsin,** July 13–14. They enter Peking, August 14, after severe fighting at Peitsang and Yangtsun. Imperial family flees to Lianfu.

1901. *Sept. 7.* **Peace protocol** signed by China and the representatives of the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia, Japan, Belgium, Spain, Austria, and Italy. October 6, the imperial family returns.
November. Imperial decree establishes state education in Western learning.
Nov. 7. **Li Hung Chang** dies.

1902. *Jan. 28.* Foreign ambassadors are for the first time received as representatives of sovereigns equal in rank to the Chinese emperor.
Feb. 1. Imperial decree abolishes Manchu privileges.
April 8. **Manchurian convention** between Russia and China for the gradual evacuation of Manchuria; withdraws demands previously made for exclusive mining, industrial, and banking privileges. In September and October, the territory south of Liao River is evacuated by Russia.
May 3. **Serious revolt** occurs in South China, due to antiforeign feeling and the heavy taxation for the war indemnity. Hundreds of Roman Catholic converts are killed
December. Foreign garrisons leave Shanghai.

1903. Diplomatic sparring of the powers over Russia's position in Manchuria. April 18, Russia makes demands for exclusive political and commercial rights as a condition of evacuation. July 16, Russia agrees to open the ports.
Oct. 8. Commercial treaty with the United States signed.

1904. *Feb. 13.* Proclamation of neutrality issued in the Russo-Japanese War. Russia's claims for compensation reserved to the close of the war. English army under Younghusband invades Tibet and concludes a "treaty," September 7, without any regard to China's sovereign rights. China ratifies the treaty on April 27, 1906.

1905. *Aug. 29.* Commission to visit and study Western parliaments.
An American railway concession is cancelled by payment of $6,750,000.
Nov. 1. Five American **missionaries** of the Presbyterian board are **killed** at Lienchow.
Boycott against American merchants due to Chinese Exclusion Act.
Since 1902 a large number of Chinese **students** have gone **abroad** to study Western learning, encouraged by imperial edicts and especially by Chang Chih-tung and Chang Po-hsi. 20,000 have gone to Japan as the nearest place to get a "Western education."

1906. *Feb. 26.* Four English Protestant missionaries and six French Roman Catholic priests killed at Nanchang in local riots.
Sept. 2. Emperor issues proclamation that conservative constitution will be granted after details are worked out.
Sept. 18. Typhoon at Hongkong.
Sept. 21. Emperor's edict for diminution of opium growing, traffic, and consumption at the rate of ten per cent a year until wholly abolished.

1907. *January–February.* Rising against Manchu rule in central China.
April 15. China resumes rule over Manchuria, Russian and Japanese troops having been withdrawn.
Sept. 20. Dowager empress orders the organization of an **advisory council of state** as a step toward constitutional government.

1908. *March 22.* Agreement with Great Britain **restricting importation of opium.** An edict prohibits the growth and sale of the drug, but allows those interested ten years in which to wind up their business.
Nov. 14. At Peking the death is announced of the Emperor Kuang-hsü, and on the next day of the Dowager Empress Tzŭ Hsi An. Hsüan-tung (Pu-yi), the three-year-old child of Prince Chun, becomes emperor; his father, regent.
Dec. 4. An imperial decree reaffirms the promise of the late empress dowager for the eventual convocation of a parliament and the proclamation of a constitution.

1909. *Jan. 22.* Hsüan-tung begins formal reign.
February. International Opium Conference meets at Shanghai.
May 11. China and Russia sign agreement regarding railway in Manchuria.
September. Chang Chih-tung, the scholar-viceroy, dies. [legislative assemblies.
October. Imperial decree creates provincial
December. Imperial decree promises calling of Parliament.

1910. *February.* Postal agreement with Japan is signed. China recovers mail-carrying monopolies on its railways.
Government University of Peking opens; the first modern university in China.
Feb. 23. **Chinese occupy Lhasa,** Tibet, and announce their intention to make administration purely Chinese. Dalai Lama flees to India.
May. Decimal currency is decreed.
June. English made the official language for scientific and technical education.
August. Boycott of American goods in Canton as protest against the ill-treatment of Chinese in San Francisco.
Oct. 3. **National Assembly** (Tzu Chêng Yuan) **meets** for the first time; 200 members (100 appointed by the throne and 100 selected by the governors from a body of 200 chosen by the provincial assemblies). It has power to discuss certain public financial questions, new codes, and other questions, if submitted by the emperor.

1911. *Jan. 11.* National Assembly is dissolved.
April–May. Loans concluded with bankers of United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany for the reform of currency and railways.
May 8. **New opium agreement** with Great Britain is signed at Peking, for the immediate reduction and final extinction, in 1917, of the opium exports from India.
A cabinet, general staff, and **privy council** created at Peking by imperial edict. Prince Ching premier. Manchus secure the preponderance of power. Friction between them and the Chinese, and the feeling that the Manchus are unfavorable to the progress of the reform movement, result in the outbreak of a **patriotic and radical revolt** in southern and central China.
Sept. 4. Flood along the Yangtze River drowns many thousands. Great unrest in the districts along the river.
Oct. 1. An **organized rebel force** in Hupeh province is victorious in a battle, October 5–6, with the imperial forces. October 11, the rebels **occupy Wuchang.** October 13, a massacre of Manchus at Hankow. October 14, Yuan Shih-kai is recalled from retirement and appointed viceroy of Hupeh and Hunan. Many vessels of the imperial navy join the revolutionists. October 28, imperial forces recapture Hankow.
Oct. 30. The throne issues a proclamation apologizing for the evil conditions in the empire and promising reforms The **National Assembly meets** at Peking, and forces the throne to grant immediately a **complete constitutional government,** amnesty to rebels, and the retirement of objectionable officials.
Nov. 7. **Yuan Shih-kai** is elected **premier** in place of Prince Ching. He accepts, November 15, and opens negotiations with the revolutionists.
Nov. 16. Yuan Shih-kai forms a cabinet.
Dec. 6. The regent, Prince Chun, retires.
Dec. 18. A peace conference between the leaders of the revolution and of the imperial forces convenes at Shanghai. December 21, Yuan Shih-kai refuses the plan of a republic proposed by the revolutionists.
Dec. 29. A provisional republican convention at Nanking, representing 17 provinces, elects **Sun Yat Sen provisional president of the Chinese Republic.** He accepts and announces a cabinet, with Wu Ting Fang minister of foreign affairs.

1912. *Jan. 2.* **Sun Yat Sen** is **inaugurated** provisional president of the Chinese Republic at Nanking. His first official act is the adoption of the Gregorian calendar (see CALENDAR in the *Dict.*).
Jan. 8. Republican assembly at Nanking votes to introduce a gold standard as in Japan.
Russia demands withdrawal of all Chinese from the seceded Chinese province of Outer Mongolia.
Jan. 19. United States infantry arrives at Chinwangtao to take part in guarding the railway from Peking.
Feb. 4. Empress Dowager Lung-yü instructs Yuan Shih-kai to coöperate with the south in the establishment of a republic.
Feb. 12. **Manchu dynasty** formally **abdicates** and accepts the Republic.
Feb. 14. Sun Yat Sen resigns the provisional presidency in favor of Yuan Shih-kai, elected by the National Assembly in Nanking, February 15.
March 3. Mutinous soldiers at Tientsin raid the mint, the banks, and other establishments, and set fire to the city.
March 10. **Yuan Shih-kai inaugurated provisional president** at Peking. A general amnesty proclaimed. Tang Shao-yi appointed premier.
March 21. **Suffrage is granted to women** who are literate and own property.
April 29. Yuan Shih-kai opens the Advisory Council at Peking. [hai.
May 13. **First trial by jury** begins in Shang-
Aug. 1. Dr. George E. Morrison, Peking correspondent of the London *Times*, is appointed political adviser to the president.
Aug. 29. Parliamentary law is promulgated.
Aug. 30. **Jackson-Crisp loan** of $50,000,000, to be secured on the free surplus of the salt tax, is agreed to. The "Six-Powers Group" (of financiers representing America, England, Germany, and France — the original "Four-Powers Group" — and Russia and Japan) protests.
Great Britain forbids Chinese expedition into Tibet.

1912 (*continued*).

Oct. 19. Russia recognizes **Independence of Outer Mongolia,** which it has instigated.

November. Russia concludes a secret treaty with Outer Mongolia.

1913. *Feb. 21.* England concludes a new treaty with Tibet ignoring China's rights in the province.

April 8. **First parliament** of Chinese Republic convenes at Peking.

April 26. Yuan Shih-kai signs agreement with the "Five-Powers" (Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Japan — the U. S. having withdrawn) banks for a loan of $125,000,000, without reference to Parliament.

May 2. Formal **recognition by the United States** of the Chinese Republic.

July 9. Treaty with Russia conceding the **autonomy of Outer Mongolia** and granting Russia exceptional commercial privileges.

July–August. **Southern provinces revolt** against the Peking government; backed by Sun Yat Sen. Revolt spreads to coastal provinces. On September 1 the revolt "for the punishment of Yuan" collapses, and the leaders disappear.

Oct. 6. Provisional president **Yuan Shih-kai is elected president** of the Chinese Republic and is inaugurated October 10, the republic being simultaneously recognized by the powers.

Nov. 5. President Yuan Shih-kai orders the dissolution of the Kuo Ming Tang, consisting of his most troublesome opponents, and the largest party in Parliament, and expels from the legislature all members connected with this party. **Parliament is virtually abolished.**

Nov. 13. Parliament is suspended by presidential mandate, and is replaced by an administrative conference of 71 members. The **collapse of parliamentary government** indicates the failure of Young China as an effective political force.

1914. *Jan. 11.* Parliament is definitely dissolved by President Yuan Shih-kai.

Jan. 29. Bill establishing Confucianism and the worship of Heaven as the **state religion** is passed. **Kotow** ceremony is also **reëstablished.**

Feb. 12. Standard Oil Company gets important oil concessions in Shansi and Chihli provinces.

May 1. New Chinese constitution is promulgated, abolishing the premiership and concentrating power in the president. **Yuan Shih-kai virtually becomes dictator.** Hsu Shih-chang leads new cabinet.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1915. *January.* **Japan** presents a series of **"21 Demands"** regarding southern Manchuria, Inner Mongolia, and the cession of German privileges in China. Bitter anti-Japanese feeling is aroused throughout the country. [goods begun.]

February. Nation-wide boycott of Japanese

Feb. 11. General amnesty to the revolutionary leaders and an invitation to them to coöperate with the government.

March 3. China agrees to extend for 99 years the Japanese lease of Dairen and Port Arthur.

March 16. Allied powers caution Japan that her demands on China may render it difficult for them to continue diplomatic negotiations.

March 23. China accepts five of Japan's demands, agreeing to get Japan's consent before making foreign financial, industrial, and political arrangements in South Manchuria. The Kirin-Kwanchengtze railway transferred to Japan for 99 years.

April 20. Great Britain and United States declare for equal rights for all nations ("open door").

May 6. **Japan presents an ultimatum** to China, from which some of her former demands are eliminated. Forty-eight hours given for China to deliberate. A final appeal to the powers having failed, the ultimatum is complied with, May 8.

May 25. Two treaties and 13 notes are signed with Japan. [at Shanghai.]

June 5. Chinese-American Bank established

June 6. **Status of Mongolia** is determined by an agreement concluded between Russia, China, and Mongolia. China and Russia guarantee the autonomy of Outer Mongolia. The "Living Buddha" is recognized as head of Outer Mongolian government. Inner Mongolia, under Japanese jurisdiction, unaffected by the new treaty.

Dec. 11. President **Yuan Shih-kai accepts the throne** of China tendered to him by his council of state acting as a parliament.

Dec. 28. Revolution against the proposed monarchy breaks out in the province of Yünnan, under the leadership of General Tsai Ao.

1916. *January.* Coronation of Yuan Shih-kai is indefinitely postponed.

March 22. **Yuan Shih-kai** proclaims abandonment of monarchic scheme; March 27 the council of state legally **restores the republican régime.**

May. Insurrection in the south makes great headway; insurgents pursue their military campaign even after a republican government is restored.

May 11. Li Yuan-hung is proclaimed president of South China by the provisional government organized by revolutionary leaders.

June 6. **President Yuan Shih-kai dies** at Peking and is succeeded by Vice President Li Yuan-hung.

July. Under agreements with France and Great Britain, China permits the hiring of **coolies** to work in England and behind the front **in France.** Some 200,000 are sent; many remain to do reconstruction work.

Aug. 1. Parliament reconvenes at Peking; **Li Yuan-hung** takes **oath** of office **as president.**

Aug. 21. Tuan Chi-jui, leader of the Militarist party, is appointed premier.

Sept. 3. **Japan presents demands** for a settlement of the clash between Chinese and Japanese troops in Manchuria on August 13; demands the withdrawal of Chinese troops and the granting to Japan of police control in eastern **Inner Mongolia** and **South Manchuria** and certain military rights.

Oct. 31. Russia builds forts in Manchuria; China protests. [Amoy; China protests.]

Nov. 7. Japan establishes a police station in

Nov. 10. Without China's permission **Japan establishes police stations** in several cities in Manchuria and demands China's recognition.

1917. *Jan. 10.* Russia demands the cancellation of Mongolian representation in Chinese Parliament; China rejects the demand.

Feb. 4. President Wilson's appeal to neutral nations to join his protest against Germany's submarine policy is received.

Feb. 9. China protests Germany's submarine blockade policy.

March. According to treaty with Great Britain in 1911, opium importation shall be prohibited after March 31, 1917. Shanghai and Hongkong British merchants demand that Chinese government buy off their remaining stock, about 1200 boxes, for $10,000,000.

March 10. Both chambers of Parliament in a secret session approve the policy of severing diplomatic relations with Germany; the House's vote is 331 to 87, the Senate's, 157 to 37.

March 14. The **severance of diplomatic relations with Germany** is declared.

March 30. China recognizes the republican government of Russia.

May 23. President Li Yuan-hung dismisses the premier Tuan Chi-jui who, supported by the Conservatives of northern China, advocated war against Germany.

May 28–June 1. The military governors of 11 northern provinces declare secession.

June 2. General Chang Hsun sets up a provisional military government at Tientsin and demands the dissolution of parliament.

June 12. Parliament is dissolved by the president under the pressure of the military governors. The 11 northern provinces having previously seceded, cancel their secession on June 19.

June 20. The military governors of two southern provinces, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, declare secession and protest dissolution of parliament as "unconstitutional."

June 21. The provisional military government at Tientsin is dissolved.

July 1–3. General Chang Hsun proclaims the **restoration of the empire.** Li Yuan-hung resigns as president.

July 12. General **Feng Kwo-chang,** now **president,** and General Tuan Chi-jui, once more premier, suppress the monarchial movement.

Aug. 14. **War** is declared **against Germany and Austria.**

Sept. 1. Members of the dissolved parliament form an **"Emergency Parliament"** in **Canton,** organize a **military government,** and elect Sun Yat Sen commander in chief.

Oct. 7. Sun Yat Sen denounces the unconstitutional dissolution of parliament, and orders his army to proceed to attack the established government in Peking.

Nov. 2. Under an **agreement between** the **United States and Japan** the former recognizes that the latter has special interests in China; both governments declare they will adhere to the principle of the "open door" ("Lansing-Ishii" note).

Nov. 12. China makes formal protest to the United States against the American-Japanese agreement, declaring that it will not be bound by agreements entered into by other nations.

Nov. 22. Premier Tuan Chi-jui resigns.

Dec. 20. Southwestern provinces form an "alliance for the protection of the constitution."

1918. *March 1.* **European War Participation Council** is formed; Marshal Tuan Chi-jui, former premier and minister of war, is appointed director general.

March 10. Troops are sent to protect Outer Mongolia against Bolshevists. [premier.]

March 23. Tuan Chi-jui is again appointed

April 22. A motor-car line is established between Urga and Kalgan, bringing capital of Outer Mongolia within two days' journey of Peking.

May 4. Sun Yat Sen resigns, and the military government in Canton is reorganized on May 18.

May 16–19. Two secret agreements are signed relative to war-time joint military and naval defense between China and Japan. Students and the South government protest.

July 18. **United States** agrees to a $50,000,000 **loan,** provided that a recent loan of $10,000,000 by Japan is cancelled and that the new loan be extended by the United States, Great Britain, France, and Japan.

Aug. 12. New parliament convenes.

Oct. 10. **Hsu Shih-chang,** a northern Conservative, is **inaugurated as president,** having been elected to that office on September 6. Tuan Chi-jui resigns from premiership.

Nov. 17. Lu Cheng-shiang is appointed delegate to the Paris Peace Conference.

Nov. 22. Armistice between the North and the South begins.

Nov. 23. An **alphabet** of 39 characters is adopted by the Ministry of Education. (See CHINESE, *n.* **2.**, in the *Dictionary.*)

Dec. 22. **Customs-tariff revision** completed and signed by foreign-tariff revision deputies.

1919. *Jan. 11.* Chien Nung-shun is appointed premier and organizes a cabinet.

Feb. 20. **Peace conference between Peking and Canton governments** (North and South governments) opens in Shanghai.

May 4. Several thousand **students** in Peking organize as a **protest against** the **Shantung "settlement"** at Paris. Three high officials known as sympathizers of Japan are assaulted.

May 7. Fourth anniversary day of the Japanese "21 Demands" is passionately celebrated throughout the country; a **"Holiday of National Shame."** Japanese police fire at Chinese students in Tokyo during a parade.

June 10. The three sympathizers with Japan in the ministry are dismissed.

June 11. President Hsu Shih-chang, on account of Paris Peace Treaty, hands his resignation to Parliament, not accepted. Premier Chien Nung-shun resigns.

June 28. Chinese **delegates** at Paris **refuse to sign the Versailles Treaty** with Germany, having protested in vain the Shantung clauses.

July 1. Japanese in Shantung assert authority within the Tsingtau-Tsinan railway zone. Chinese boycott Japanese goods as a retaliatory measure.

Aug. 6. British minister in Peking demands the autonomy of Tibet.

Aug. 7. Sun Yat Sen resigns as Chief Director of the military government in Canton.

Aug. 15. Russian General Semenov invades Outer Mongolia.

Sept. 10. China signs Peace Treaty of Saint-Germain with Austria.

Sept. 15. China declares peace with Germany and adhesion to Treaty of Versailles, exclusive of the three Shantung clauses.

Sept. 24. Chin Yun-pung is appointed premier.

Oct. 25. Military government in Canton declares peace with Germany and Austria.

Nov. 16. **Japanese** armed **police,** illegally stationed **at Foochow,** fire on a boycott demonstration, killing seven students.

Nov. 17. **Outer Mongolia cancels its autonomy,** and reincorporates its territory into China, for the purpose of protection against Russian invasions.

Dec. 1–10. Merchants and students in Peking, Hunan, Kiangsi, Fukien, and Shantung hold mass meetings and demonstrate against the Japanese Foochow difficulty.

Dec. 20. A treaty of friendship and commerce between China and Bolivia without exterritoriality clause.

1920. *Jan. 21–Feb. 11.* Japan informs China that she is ready to **negotiate directly on the Shantung settlement.** Chinese **students and merchants protest** against direct negotiations. Japan requests the Chinese government to suppress the "Student movement."

March 6–9. Military governors of several provinces form a league, whose policy is to dissolv both parliaments, in Peking and in Canton.

COLOMBIA.

Historical Outline.

THE coasts of COLOMBIA were first visited by Alonso de Ojeda in 1499 and 1501, and Columbus visited Veragua and Porto Bello on his last voyage, in 1502. Settlements were attempted in 1508 and 1509 and the country was conquered in 1535–36, becoming a province under the Spanish administration, subordinate to the viceroyalty of Peru. In 1740 the present Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela were constituted a viceroyalty under the name of New Granada, which continued until the rebellion against Spain. In 1811 New Granada rebelled, but the first movement for independence was crushed. In 1819 a new rebellion broke out under the lead of Bolivar, who won a great victory over the Loyalists at Boyacá, and the Republic of Colombia was established, which in various forms has since continued.

In 1829 Venezuela set up a separate government and a year later Ecuador followed. In 1831 the Republic of New Granada was organized under the presidency of Francisco Santander. During a nine years' civil war the provinces of Cartagena and Panama and Veragua declared themselves independent, under the name of the State of the Isthmus of Panama. Granada regained her authority over them in 1843, and a period of prosperity followed. A large part of the domestic debt was paid off, immigration was encouraged, trade was fostered, and in 1852 slavery was entirely abolished. By the treaty of 1846 with the United States of America, that country received special privileges in the Isthmus of Panama and in turn guaranteed that tract to Colombia. In 1853 the constitution was altered so that any province might declare itself independent and enter into a federal connection with the central republic, which was now known as the Granadine Confederation. In 1856–57 Antioquia and Panama seceded, but in 1861 a federal constitution was adopted under Mosquera as dictator. From that time until 1886 there were numerous revolutions and attempts to reëstablish the confederation of Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela, complicated by boundary disputes between Colombia and Venezuela.

In 1886 a new constitution was established and the federal system abolished, the states becoming departments with governors appointed by the president of the republic. The president, Guzmán Blanco, was practically an absolute despot aided by military force. In 1899 the Liberals organized a revolution which continued until 1903. Venezuelan troops invaded Colombian territory in 1901, but were routed after a fierce battle.

The possession of the Isthmus gave Colombia a point of vantage; and in 1878 a French company was granted a concession for a canal. By the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty between the United States and Great Britain in 1850 these countries asserted a special interest in a canal. In 1901 Great Britain yielded her claims, leaving the United States to negotiate a treaty with Colombia. This transferred the forfeited concession of the French company, a canal strip ten miles wide and the two ports of Colón and Panama. The Colombian congress, however, refused to ratify this treaty in 1903.

Thereupon a revolt broke out in Panama, and the state seceded from Colombia. American troops prevented the Colombian troops from suppressing the rebellion, and the United States at once recognized the independence of Panama, which was thus separated from Colombia. In 1904 General Rafael Reyes succeeded to the presidency and set about restoring Colombia from the shattered condition into which she had fallen. The tenure of the presidency was extended to ten years from January 1, 1905, with no restriction upon reëlection and General Reyes was thus in the position of a dictator. He proved his ability and integrity, did much to allay the spirit of unrest in the country, and proposed a treaty of compensation from the United States.

Organization.

Government. The present constitution dates from 1886 and provides for a Senate of 34 elected for four years indirectly by electors chosen for that purpose; and a House of Representatives of 92 (one for every 50,000 of population) chosen for two years. The president is elected by direct vote for a term of four years, and is not eligible for reëlection until four years afterwards.

Religion and Education. The religion is Roman Catholicism, with toleration for all sects. Primary education is free although not compulsory and there are more than 5,000 primary schools and nearly 400 secondary and professional schools, 98 trade schools, and the University of Bogotá, founded in 1572, together with several departmental universities and numerous private colleges.

Industry. Colombia is especially rich in minerals — gold, silver, copper, lead, mercury, manganese, emeralds, and platinum, the last-named being found in abundance in the alluvial soils. Nearly all the best emeralds mined to-day come from Colombia. Iron is found to some extent. The soil is very fertile, but agriculture is backward for lack of public transportation. Rubber trees grow wild, and rubber cultivation has begun. The Panama hat industry is making great progress.

Defense. Military service is compulsory for about one and a half years. The permanent army consists of an effective force of 6,000. In war every Colombian is compelled to serve and the strength may be increased to 50,000. Colombia has no navy.

The **area** is 440,846 square miles. The **population** is composed of a few people of Spanish blood, and an element of Indians and mixed blood. It numbered about 5,000,000 in 1912.

Chronology.

1514. Territories of Nueva Andalucia and Castella de Oro, with which Spanish settlement of coast began in 1510, are united as province of Tierra Firma, later called **New Granada.**
1564. New Granada becomes a presidency.
1718. New Granada, including present Venezuela and Ecuador, becomes a viceroyalty.
1811. Revolt against home government breaks out.
1819. **Bolivar** reunites New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador (1822) as **Republic of Colombia.**
1826. *June.* **Panama Congress** (see PANAMA).
1831. *Nov. 21.* Venezuela and Ecuador (Quito) having seceded, the **Republic of New Granada** is proclaimed.
1832. *Feb. 29.* Federal **constitution** is adopted; but unstable governmental conditions continue for many years.
1841. First of several **revolts** by province of Panama (see PANAMA).
1846. *Dec. 12.* Treaty with United States on **Isthmian transit** (see UNITED STATES).
1859–1863. Unusually severe revolt under **Mosquera** develops into a civil war.
1861. *Sept. 20.* **United States of Colombia** formed. Mosquera dictator.
1863. *February.* A convention sets up a provisional government with Mosquera as president.
May 8, a **new** federal **constitution** is adopted.
1864. **Toro** elected **president,** but country returns to a series of insurrections; however, from 1868 on most of the presidents complete their terms. (STATES).
1878. French **canal concession** (see UNITED
1885. Liberal revolt; suppressed.
1886. *Aug. 4.* **New constitution** promulgated, abolishing the federal system.
1889. Failure of **French Panama Canal Company** (see UNITED STATES).
Oct. 2. Meeting of first **Pan-American Congress** at Washington (see UNITED STATES).
1891. *March 16.* Queen regent of Spain arbitrates the **Venezuelan boundary dispute.**
1895. Another unsuccessful Liberal revolt.
1899–1903. Third Liberal revolt develops into **civil war,** during which there is **conflict with Venezuela.** [tive.
1900. *August.* Marroquin becomes acting execu-
1903. *Jan. 22.* **Draft treaty with United States** on canal (see UNITED STATES).
Nov. 3. **Panama Revolution** (see PANAMA and UNITED STATES).
1904. *July 6.* **Reyes** becomes **president.** Under a modification of the constitution his term is lengthened and he exercises dictatorial powers.
1909. *Jan. 9.* Draft treaties with Panama and United States; unsatisfactory to Colombia and not ratified.
July 4. Military revolt declares **Valencia president.** Suppressed; but Reyes resigns because of unpopularity of draft treaty with United States, and Valencia succeeds, August 3.
1910. *July 20.* **Centenary of independence** celebrated.
Aug. 7. **Restrepo** becomes **president.**
1914. *April 7.* **Draft treaty with United States** (see UNITED STATES).
Aug. 7. **Concha** becomes **president.**
1918. *Aug. 7.* **Suárez** becomes **president.**
1919. *July 19.* Final **agreement** on **Ecuador boundary** signed.
Nov. 10. **Colombia** adheres to **League of Nations.**
1920. *April 4.* Joint **celebration** with Ecuador of **settlement of boundary controversy.**

CONGO.

See *Belgian Congo,* under BELGIUM, page 48.
See *French Congo,* under FRANCE, page 96.

COSTA RICA.

See under CENTRAL AMERICA, page 79.

CROATIA AND SLAVONIA.

See under JUGO-SLAVIA, page 122.

CUBA.

Historical Outline.

CUBA was the most important island discovered by the early voyagers. Columbus gave to it the name of Juana, in honor of the Infante Juan, son of Ferdinand and Isabella. Afterwards the name was changed to Fernandina, later to Santiago, and then to Ave Maria. Finally, history accepted the aboriginal name of Cuba.

The Spaniards quickly realized the importance of Cuba, and founded Baracoa as early as 1511, Santiago and Trinidad by 1515, and Havana in 1519. Twenty years later, after Havana was burned by French adventurers, Hernando de Soto built the fortress of La Fuerza, which still stands. The French again destroyed the capital town in 1555, but it was quickly rebuilt.

The first insular enterprise of the Spaniards was to get possession of the mines. The natives were reduced to slavery, driven in relays into the interior, and in a few years were almost exterminated. When the mines ceased to yield, the raising of cattle became the principal industry of the colonists. The tobacco and sugar industries came next; and in order to prosecute these, Negro slavery was introduced. The richness and extent of Cuba made the island a coveted prize, and the leading nations of western Europe sought to possess it. During the decline of the home kingdom in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (see SPAIN), Spanish America suffered and Cuban enterprise and progress were relaxed. Meanwhile both Great Britain and Holland secured a firm footing in the West Indies. Thus for a long time the status of the islands was not greatly disturbed.

During the intercolonial wars in North America, a combined English fleet and army, commanded by Lord Albemarle, came down on Havana (1762) and captured the city. A large ransom was extorted, but in the following year, according to the terms of the Treaty of Paris, Spain received Cuba back. Then followed revival and progress. In 1790, Luis de las Casas was commissioned captain general of Cuba and did something for the Negro slaves. After five years, the fugitive French from Santo Domingo sought refuge in Cuba and the principles of democracy began to work in Spanish America.

Cuba did not take fire. The people remained loyal subjects of the Spanish crown. When, in 1808, the Spanish Bourbons were deposed by Napoleon, the members of the Cuban government renewed their oath, and held the island for the Bourbons. When the Bourbons were restored, the captains general who governed the country became almost absolute. Great offices and sinecural positions were farmed out by the ministers at Madrid, and the Cuban officials made themselves good by the spoliation of the people. A system of heavy taxation was imposed, and the island had to support a standing army and a navy.

The spirit of freedom thus repressed began to struggle against conditions as early as 1819. The interests of the United States in Cuba began during the Napoleonic wars, when for a time our trade was allowed. The fear of the taking over of Cuba by France was one of the main causes of the Monroe Doctrine of 1823. A secret political society was formed in Cuba called "The Black Eagle," having for its principal aim the emancipation of the Cubans.

The United States made no objection to the Spanish control of Cuba till about 1848, when attempts were made to buy the island. The next step was a series of filibustering expeditions lasting from 1849 to 1854, in which Americans attempted to make Cuba independent. In 1854 the Ostend Manifesto, a semiofficial document, declared that annexation was necessary to protect the interests of slavery. President Pierce and President Buchanan did their best to annex Cuba on any terms.

After the Spanish revolution of 1867–68 Cuba became agitated with the spirit of independence and an armed insurrection began. The war lasted until 1876, when, though the rebellion was said to be suppressed, the Spanish armies had never been able to put down the guerrilla warfare. One result was the abolition of slavery.

In 1895 the second great Cuban revolt began, and it so seriously affected the United States that in 1898 the government demanded that Spain withdraw her forces. This involved the United States and Spain in war, and by the Treaty of Paris (1898, ratified 1899), Spain withdrew from Cuba, which was for the time administered by an American army under General Leonard Wood.

In 1901 the "Platt Amendment" was adopted by Congress on the suggestion of President Roosevelt, and incorporated into the treaty with Cuba in 1903. Cuba thereby agreed to make no treaty which would impair independence, or permit any foreign power to obtain control over any portion of the island, or incur a debt, the interest and sinking fund for which could not be met by the revenues of the island. In addition Cuba agreed that the United States might intervene for the preservation of Cuban independence, maintenance of government, and establishment of order. Under this treaty the United States was forced to send troops in 1906 and established a provisional government which continued for three years.

Organization.

Government. By the Cuban constitution, adopted in 1901, Cuba is a republic with a president and vice president, both elected for a term of four years, a Senate, and House of Representatives. The president is assisted by a cabinet of six members. The influence of the United States in Cuba makes the country virtually a dependency.

Industry and Labor. The main interests of Cuba are agricultural: tobacco, sugar, coffee, cocoa, and cereals being the principal products. The total production of sugar, which in 1896 was 225,221 tons, and in 1897 was 212,951 tons, in 1918–19 was 4,446,229 tons, or nearly 20 times as much. Beds of asphalt and mines of copper, manganese, and iron are worked. The forests are rich in valuable woods, as mahogany, cedar, dyewood, and other hard woods.

Religion and Social Conditions. Almost all the people are Roman Catholics.

The larger part of the Cuban population is wholly or partly Negro. Most of the rest are of Spanish descent, but some, also, are from the United States and Europe.

Education. Education was in a backward condition prior to independence. In 1899 only 36 per cent of the inhabitants could read. In 1904 there were 1,936 primary schools and many colleges and institutes for higher instruction. The University of Havana has faculties of law, medicine, pharmacy, letters, and science.

Defense. During the World War and for one year after peace was signed, military service was obligatory between the ages of 21 and 28. The army was composed of 1700 men in the land forces and 1000 in the naval forces. Obligatory military training is given to all Cubans between the ages of 19 and 25.

The **area** of Cuba is 44,164 square miles and the **population** 2,898,905 (1919). Approximately 75 per cent of the population are white and 25 per cent colored.

Chronology.

1492. *Oct. 26.* **Columbus discovers Cuba** on his first voyage.

1508. Island circumnavigated by Pinzón and by Ocampo.

1511. Under Diego Columbus, viceroy of the Indies, **Velásquez** begins **conquest** and **settlement** of the island. **Baracoa** first settlement.

1519. Havana founded on the present site. It becomes the **key of Spanish America,** a way port for the treasure ships, and in the end strongly fortified.

1523. African slavery begins or already exists; the natives mostly exterminated. Development of **tobacco** and **sugar** plantations makes slavery an important factor in economic conditions.

1538. Havana sacked by a French corsair.

1555. City again sacked by French.

1571. Cuba is part of the viceroyalty of New Spain.

1621. Island captured by Dutch; subsequently restored to Spain.

1688. Puerto Príncipe destroyed by buccaneers.

1700–1750. Period of peace during which industries flourish and social conditions improve.

1717. Royal tobacco monopoly established; lasts 100 years.

1762. *Aug. 14.* **Havana captured by British.**

1763. *Feb. 10.* **Cuba returned to Spain** by Treaty of Paris in exchange for Florida.

1777. Cuba made a captaincy general.

1790. Las Casas becomes captain general; his administration introduces a period of **prosperity and progress;** more lenient commercial laws. During the European confusion the island is virtually independent.

1820. Liberal government proclaimed in Cuba, but soon relapses. Cuban **independence meditated** and some attempts at insurrection made, but **little** chance to make **progress.** Island becomes headquarters of Spanish efforts against mainland revolts.

1823. United States fears British acquisition of Cuba, or conditions there inimical to United States through the extension of the Holy Alliance to the American continent (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD and UNITED STATES); phase in the development of the **Monroe Doctrine.** Future **annexation** to United States considered highly probable then by American statesmen.

1825. Joint Mexican-Colombian expedition to free Cuba proposed. Abandoned on American advice. Presence of French fleet in West Indies causes United States to warn France that **transfer of Cuba** or Porto Rico by Spain to any other European nation would **not** be **allowed by United States.**

1826. Panama Congress has for one of its purposes plans for freeing Cuba. British delegate instructed against Spanish American or Anglo-Saxon American acquisition of island.

1829. Threatened Negro insurrection.

1834–1839. Miguel Tacón as governor introduces many reforms and improvements, but otherwise rules tyrannically.

1837. Deputies of Cuba to Spanish Cortes excluded.

1844. Negro insurrection; suppressed with difficulty.

1848. President Polk of **United States** makes **overtures for purchase** of Cuba, which is desired by southerners as further slave-holding territory and to prevent emancipation. Spain resents all suggestions of ceding the "**ever faithful isle.**" **López,** a filibuster, leads an **insurrection** in which many Negroes are killed.

1850. López makes a second attempt, landing with 600 men from the United States; **defeated.**

1851. *Aug. 16.* López in his third attempt **captured and garroted.**

1852. *April.* Great Britain proposes to United States and France a **tripartite agreement** of mutual renunciation of purpose to annex Cuba. **Declined** by United States.

1853. *March 4.* President Pierce of United States in his inaugural address hints strongly at acquisition of Cuba.

1854. *Feb. 28. Black Warrior* affair; threatened war with United States (see UNITED STATES).

Oct. 18. **Ostend Manifesto** (see UNITED STATES).

1859. Debate in United States Senate over **purchase of Cuba** ("niggers for the niggerless"). President **Buchanan** in several messages during his administration (1857–1861) **recommends acquisition,** but North determined against any further slave territory.

1861–1865. During the American Civil War, **Havana** much used as a port by **Confederate blockade runners.**

1868. Revolutionary insurrection begins. October 10, at Manzanillo patriots make a **declaration of independence.** Movement gathers head, and most of the Spanish American republics recognize the Cuban rebels as belligerents.

Guerrilla warfare follows the suppression of organized forces and continues for **twelve years** under **Céspedes,** president of the insurgent government.

1869. *Aug. 19.* President Grant of United States signs a proclamation recognizing Cuban belligerency. Never issued.

1873. *Oct. 31.* Spanish capture, on high seas, the filibuster ship *Virginius* improperly under American flag. Passengers and members of crew, including Americans, executed. **War seriously threatens,** but matter adjusted.

1875. *Nov. 5.* Secretary of State **Fish** of United States proposes **joint intervention** with European powers to end insurrection. Not carried out, but **Spain** takes the hint and **promises reforms,** which begin in 1878 and insurrection subsides.

1878. War for independence ends by the temporary triumph of the government; debt of $85,000,000 entailed by the conflict saddled on Cuba.

1880. *January.* Gradual **abolition of slavery** in Cuba decreed by the Spanish Cortes.

1886. Final abolition of slavery effected.

1893. Promises of **reforms not** being **fulfilled,** though Cuba has her representative in the Cortes, and old policy of **exploitation** for benefit of Spain being **resumed,** preliminary movements for revolution show, especially in western provinces.

1895. *Feb. 24.* **General revolt** breaks out in provinces of Santiago, Santa Clara, and Matanzas. Spanish government sends 20,000 men under Campos to suppress the rebellion. **Independence proclaimed,** March 25. Provisional government organized and **Máximo Gómez** appointed commander in chief. September 23, constitution adopted by the revolutionists and **Cisneros** elected **president.**

1896. Weyler succeeds Campos **in command** against insurgents, and his stern policy degenerates into one of cruelty and persecution. **Maceo** becomes efficient **leader of insurgents,** but is ambushed and **slain.**

July 30. American proclamation against violation of neutrality laws by aiding insurrection. Sympathy of United States strongly aroused in favor of insurgents.

1897. Rebellion mainly as **guerrilla warfare** continues. Weyler adopts policy of **reconcentration** of noncombatants to offset insurgent methods of warfare; this results in much privation and suffering and increase in American sympathy and concern by American government. **Weyler recalled;** succeeded by Blanco, who adopts a milder policy without accomplishing desired results.

May 20. Senate of United States passes a resolution recognizing Cuban belligerency. Not carried further.

1898. Crisis and war between United States and Spain over Cuba (see UNITED STATES).

April 20. Resolution of Congress of **United States to intervene** in Cuba; independence of "people" recognized, **intention to annex island disclaimed.**

Aug. 12. Protocol signed. **Spain** agrees **to relinquish Cuba.** Confirmed in definite treaty, December 10. Cuba passes **under** military government of **United States; Wood in charge** from December 12. Speedy **reconstruction** effected; great sanitary, economic, and social improvements made.

1901. *March 2.* By the **Platt Amendment** imposed by the Congress of the United States a **virtual protectorate** established over Cuba, with naval station at **Guantánamo.** Cuba required to incorporate terms of Platt Amendment in her constitution, which is done on June 12.

Oct. 3. Cuban **constitution** framed.

Dec. 31. First election; **Palma** chosen **president.**

1902. *May 5.* **First Congress** meets. May 20, Governor Wood transfers government to President Palma and **civil government inaugurated.** May 22, **American** military **occupation** of Cuba **terminates.**

Dec. 11. **Reciprocity treaty** with United States signed. Senate of United States, because of sugar provision, declines to ratify until after passage of an act, December 17, 1903, to prevent further reduction of sugar duty.

1905. American inhabitants of **Isle of Pines** desire **annexation** to United States, not encouraged.

Sept. 23. Elections result in victory for President Palma and the Moderates; Liberals bring charges of fraud. Some relaxation from conditions reached under American occupation; but general condition of island highly satisfactory.

1906. *May 20.* Palma begins his second term.

Aug. 20. **Liberal rebellion** assumes serious proportions. August 23, Palma asks **American intervention.** September 18, American Secretary of State Taft arrives in Cuba to investigate. September 24, **armistice declared.** September 28, American troops landed and **Taft** assumes control as **provisional governor.** Palma and the vice president having resigned and Congress refusing to fill the offices. October 3, Charles E. **Magoon** succeeds Taft as American **provisional governor.**

1908. *Nov. 14.* Presidential election; Liberals win Congress and their presidential candidate **José Miguel Gómez elected.**

1909. *Jan. 28.* **José Miguel Gómez inaugurated.** Provisional Governor Magoon withdraws; American military occupation again terminates.

1911. *August.* Acevedo, a revolutionary veteran, creates antiadministration disturbances; they are soon suppressed.

1912. *Jan. 16.* Agitation by revolutionary veterans becomes so threatening that United States warns them against disturbance of the peace.

March 16. Wreck of U. S. battleship *Maine,* destroyed by explosion in Havana harbor in February, 1898, raised, towed out to sea and sunk in deep water with appropriate ceremonies.

May. **Negro risings** as protest against political grievances, led by Estenoz. May 25, United States sends fleet of observation to Cuban waters, and though, in answer to President Gómez's protest, **intervention** is **disclaimed, marines** are **landed** to "protect property." Rebels defeated June 13; Estenoz killed June 26; and **insurrection collapses** after defeat of rebels near Santiago, July 18. Marines withdrawn July 25.

Nov. 2. Presidential election takes place without outbreak, though campaign has been so heated that American marines are landed as a warning to the factions. Mario **Menocal,** Conservative candidate, **elected.**

1913. *March 9.* President **Gómez** yields to protest of American government and **vetoes** the **Amnesty Bill,** which would permit prevention of expected prosecution of certain "grafters" among the Liberals by new administration. Limited bill, covering Negro rising, passed April 25.

May 20. **Menocal** inaugurated **president.**

1914. *August.* Cuban **industry,** especially cigar-making, **suffers** from outbreak of World War.

1917. *February.* Insurrectionary activity of Liberals in Oriente province, following **indecisive presidential election** there. Government of Santiago seized. **American** government warns insurgents, and **marines landed.** Cuban government gradually regains control of region, and American troops withdraw. April 2, new election held; after which Congress declares Menocal is reëlected.

April 7. Congress unanimously declares **war on Germany,** following action of United States.

Aug. 21. Interned German ships seized on declaration of war are turned over to United States.

1918. *May 25.* **Recall of Mexican minister.**

Aug. 13. Obligatory **military-service law.** October 7 registration of all males between 21 and 28. Food-control laws passed.

Sept. 11. Contingent of **Cuban troops** offered United States for service overseas. Declined.

November. United States has loaned Cuba $15,000,000 during the war.

1919. *Jan. 18.* Cuba has a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.

Compulsory military-service law repealed.

May 24. **General strike** in Havana and elsewhere begins, following in the wake of several similar ones of the past year. Government adopts severe measures, including arrest and deportation of strike leaders. June 11, decree issued, enacted by Congress at the request of the president, suspending constitutional guarantees.

Aug. 11. **Electoral reform law;** framed by General Crowder of United States army, sent to Cuba to advise in the matter.

Dec. 13. Cuban Senate ratifies **Treaty of Versailles** including the League of Nations.

1920. *January.* **Strike of dock workers** paralyzes Havana shipping. Sympathetic strikes by other unions. Constitutional guarantees suspended. Spanish agitators deported.

April 8. Official statement that seized German vessels would remain Cuban property, leased to private companies.

CYPRUS.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 62.

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

Historical Outline.

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA is situated in central Europe and includes the two historic divisions of Bohemia and Moravia, and the mountain mass to the eastward, including the Tatra ranges. Bohemia is the most important of these regions and lies on a great plateau surrounded by mountains, commanding both the flat lands in Germany in the north and the Danube valley on the south. It has sometimes been called the Citadel of Europe. Moravia lies east of Bohemia and on its northern boundary is the famous Moravian Gap through which the Slavic invaders poured into central Europe. Still farther east lies the Tatra region of the Carpathian mountains.

The recorded history of these regions begins in the sixth century A. D. At that time the ancestors of the Czechs and Slovaks pushed through the Moravian Gap and expelled the Teutonic peoples who occupied this region. The Slavs were originally rude barbarians; but acquiring civilization they built up powerful states in both Bohemia and Moravia. The Slovaks, however, living in the eastern mountains, never developed the same political or cultural standards as the Czechs in Bohemia and Moravia.

During the Middle Ages, Bohemia, which had absorbed Moravia, was one of the leading kingdoms of Europe; but in the 13th century the native dynasty died out and foreign sovereigns came to the throne who favored Teutonic influences. At this time German merchants and workmen began to settle in the towns, giving them a decided Teutonic complexion.

Bohemia was an intellectual center. In the Reformation it took the Protestant side, but in the Hussite wars gradually returned to the mother church. A Czech nationalistic feeling halted the progress of Germanism for nearly a century. In the 17th century the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) was a renewal of the contest. This time the Czechs were defeated. Bohemia and Moravia were decimated and the old Czech nobility was destroyed and Austrian Germans took their place. For almost three centuries it seemed as if the Czech nationality had disappeared.

In the 19th century came a revival of nationalism, which, aided by economic prosperity, caused the rapid growth of a Czech middle and educated class which furnished leaders. Gradually the Czechs gained political control wherever they were in numerical majority. This infuriated the Germans, who threatened secession from Austria to the German Empire. The Czechs demanded autonomy for Bohemia and Moravia within the Austrian Empire and when refused began to demand independence and fixed their hopes upon Russia.

During the early years of the World War the Allied Powers did not consider the dismemberment of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and little sympathy was given to the Czecho-Slovak aspirations for independence. In July, 1918, however, France recognized the Czecho-Slovaks as an independent nation. This action was followed by Great Britain and the United States; and on October 28, 1918, the independence of the state was proclaimed. Violent controversies over boundaries ensued with all the neighboring states, — Austria, Germany, Poland, and the Ukraine.

Organization.

Government. On November 14, 1918, the Czecho-Slovak assembly met at Prague and formally established a republic. The suffrage is universal, including men and women on equal footing. The church is separate from the state and the rights of minorities are safeguarded by proportional representation. A system of parliamentary responsible government was established and Professor Thomas G. Masaryk was elected president.

Industry and Labor. Czecho-Slovakia is a highly favored region possessing a good climate and a fertile land. Before the World War, large crops of cereals and potatoes were raised and the cultivation of the sugar beet was very successful. The most famous agricultural product of Bohemia is hops. The mountains are rich in minerals, particularly coal and lignite, and in the north are valuable iron mines. Other minerals are silver, lead, tin, antimony, graphite, and radium.

Since the country is well supplied with water power as well as coal, there has always been a varied industrial life. During the last half century have arisen textile industries, the refining of beet sugar, the brewing of beer, and the manufacture of chemicals and glass (see BOHEMIAN GLASS, in the *Dict.*).

Education. Before the war, education was compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14 and the illiterates numbered only 2% of the population. In 1914, 13,600 primary schools counted an attendance of 2,032,000 pupils; and 1,021 higher primary schools had more than 170,000 pupils. Secondary education was furnished by 216 Gymnasiums and modern schools. Of the many technical schools and four universities, the most celebrated is the oldest at Prague with 7,000 students.

Until the final determination of the boundaries, it is impossible to give accurate statistics but it is estimated that the **area** is about 56,316 square miles, and the **population** about 14,000,000.

Chronology.

1526. *Oct. 23.* Estates of kingdom of **Bohemia** elect as king **Ferdinand of Hapsburg**, brother to Charles V. and, also, king of Hungary. **Beginning of the Hapsburg dynasty** over **Czechs** (Bohemians), first by election, later by hereditary right. **Slovaks**, a kindred race to the Czechs and Moravians, are under Hungarian rule.

1619. *July 31.* Czechs, largely Protestant and antagonized by absolutist, dynastic, and religious policy of the Hapsburgs, depose their Hapsburg king, Ferdinand, and elect Frederick, already Elector Palatine. Beginning of **Thirty Years' War**, during which Bohemia is devastated.

1620. *Nov. 8.* **Battle of White Hill.** Austria **crushes the Czechs**; executions, confiscations, and banishment of Protestants soon **reduce Bohemians to impotence**; absolutism, foreign aristocracy, and return to Catholicism result, with suppression of Czech language and polity. Legally, the kingdom of Bohemia and the Diet continue until the time of Maria Theresa and Joseph II.

1848. **Bohemians** support the revolutionary movement, but **oppose the pan-Germanic principle** of the Frankfurt Parliament. Also oppose a separate Hungary, because the Slavs would be in minority in separate German and Magyar states.

1861. *February.* Austrian constitution is framed so as to give the German minority a majority in Parliament and even in the Bohemian Diet.

1863. *June 17.* As a protest against the centralizing policy, the Bohemian members of Parliament absent themselves; none sit for 16 years.

1867. In the formation of the **Dual Monarchy** (see AUSTRIA) the **Slavs** are **treated as inferior** people; separate **Bohemia**, the third kingdom, is **ignored**; Bohemia and Moravia reduced to crownlands in Austria; and Slovakia comes again under Hungary.

1871. *Sept. 21.* Imperial rescript recognizing the rights of the kingdom of Bohemia. Effort to put fundamental articles **for home rule** in operation are **frustrated** by Centralists, aided by Bismarck and Hungary.

1879. Bohemians return to Austrian Parliament and become obstructionists.

1897. *April 5.* Ministerial decree recognizes **Czech as an official language.** Germans obstruct.

1900. *July 20.* Language ordinance repealed and Bohemians resort to obstruction in Parliament.

1914. **Bohemian troops** obliged to serve in World War. Hundreds of thousands **prefer capture** to support of Austrian policy against Slavs.

1915. *November.* A Czecho-Slovak **National Committee** (Council) is organized at Paris; **Masaryk** heads it.

1917. *Jan. 10.* Allies' note in reply to Wilson's request on peace terms specifies liberation of Czecho-Slovaks as one of war aims.

Dec. 10. Clemenceau announces the formation of a Czecho-Slovak contingent in French army.

1918. *Jan. 6.* Declaration in favor of **independence** for Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia as **Czecho-Slovakia** adopted by a convention at Prague.

March 3. **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** provides for exchange of **Czecho-Slovaks in Russian army**; but these (mostly deserters from Austrian army) are suspicious. France offers to take them to the western fronts; Bolsheviki agree to furnish transportation to Vladivostok, on way to Europe. Delays and fear of treachery result.

April 10. Congress of the Oppressed Austrian Nationalities meets at Rome: Poles, Czecho-Slovaks, and Jugo-Slavs. **Pact of Rome** is signed with Italy, including plans for a Czecho-Slovak legion in Italian army and implied recognition of *de facto* government.

May. **Czecho-Slovaks in Russia** capture Kazan, control the Siberian Railroad from the European border eastward, and aid in formation of Siberian government at Omsk. Some reach Vladivostok and hold it until Allies arrive (August).

May 20. **Martial law** declared **in Prague**, following Czechic national demonstrations. **Mutinies of Czech troops** in Austrian army.

May 29. United States note sympathizing with the national aspirations of Czecho-Slovakia and Jugo-Slavia.

July 1. **France recognizes** independence of **Czecho-Slovakia** and the National Committee as a provisional government. On August 13, **Great Britain** recognizes Czecho-Slovakia as an allied and belligerent unit. On September 2, **United States** also recognizes the *de facto* belligerent government.

Oct. 18. National Council at Paris issues a **declaration of independence.** Prague occupied and a **general strike** ordered. October 28, Austrians, after little resistance, surrender control to National Council.

Nov. 2. **Constitution** is drafted at Geneva. **Masaryk** elected **president.**

Nov. 14. First session of the **National Assembly** ratifies the election.

Dec. 20. President Masaryk arrives at Prague.

1919. *Jan. 18.* Czecho-Slovakia is represented at Paris Peace Conference by two delegates.

February. **Clashes with Poles at Teschen**, which is desired by both for its mineral wealth.

June. Hungarian invasion, assisted by socialist propaganda (see HUNGARY); driven out.

June 28. By Treaty of Versailles Germany cedes a small portion of Silesia to Czecho-Slovakia.

July 5. Fall of the Kramář conservative government; new ministry is one of Social Democrats and Agrarian Socialists.

Sept. 10. **Treaty of Saint-Germain;** Austria recognizes independence of Czecho-Slovakia, including the autonomous territory of the Ruthenians south of the Carpathians; boundaries established

Sept. 11. Poles and Czechs agree to refer the Teschen dispute to a plebiscite.

1920. *Jan. 15.* Hungarian peace treaty is handed to her delegates; by it Hungary agrees to accept whatever boundaries of Czecho-Slovakia are decided upon.

Jan. 30. Announcement is made that **Poland cedes Teschen** region to **Czecho-Slovakia** without waiting for the plebiscite, receiving territory elsewhere in exchange. Internal conditions indicate economic recovery and political stability in the new nation.

DENMARK.

Historical Outline.

DANISH history, first clearly recorded in the ninth century, includes the discoveries and settlements made by the Norsemen in England, Iceland, Greenland, and America. In 1648 Denmark was important enough to be recognized as an independent, although secondary, kingdom by the Peace of Westphalia.

During the rest of the seventeenth century Denmark was at war with Sweden from time to time. At home, the nobles at last accepted a hereditary sovereign, Charles XII of Sweden, who was able to force the Danes to neutrality; but after his death (1718) the country was freed from outside pressure. In the reigns of Frederick V. and Christian VII., in the latter part of the eighteenth century, Denmark reformed her social condition, improved her economic position, and attempted to remain neutral in the struggle between France and England. With Russia, Prussia, and Sweden she formed the Second Armed Neutrality League for the protection of her commerce and the freedom of the seas (1800).

England retaliated, and in 1801 Nelson destroyed the Danish fleet and in 1807 the British bombarded the Danish capital. This threw Denmark into the arms of Napoleon. By the Congress of Vienna Denmark, as his ally, was punished by the loss of Norway, which was ceded to Sweden. The retention of the duchy of Holstein brought Denmark into close relations with the Germanic Confederation. The relation of Schleswig and Holstein to the central government became so strained that in 1848 they broke into a revolt and appealed to Prussia. In 1863 Schleswig was incorporated in the kingdom of Denmark. When Denmark refused to repeal this action, an Austro-Prussian army invaded Schleswig, and in 1864 Denmark was compelled to make peace and renounce all rights to the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg.

From 1863 to 1906 Christian IX. was king of Denmark. Although his reign began with a humiliation, the country developed both politically and economically and was prosperous. Between 1883 and 1890 there was a severe constitutional crisis over the power of the king to appoint his ministers irrespective of the majority in the Diet. The lower house refused to accept the budget prepared by the ministry and the king issued a provisional financial decree for the collection of the taxes. In 1894 some concessions were made and the prime minister, Estrup, retired. Since then, although no such crisis has occurred, there have been frequent conflicts between the two houses of the Diet. In the meantime the Conservative party had gradually been losing power, until in 1913 a radical cabinet was formed.

In 1906 Frederick VIII. was proclaimed king and one of his first acts was to visit the insular possessions of Denmark, the Faroe Islands, and Iceland. Christian X. succeeded in 1912. In 1915 the suffrage was extended to women taxpayers.

Like the other Scandinavian countries, Denmark was neutral during the World War, but suffered greatly for want of the food she ordinarily imported, owing to the trade restrictions of the Allies. In 1914 exportation of food to Germany was made a penal offense, and in 1918 the United States concluded a shipping agreement with Denmark which assured that country a supply of the necessary foodstuffs, metals, machinery, and chemicals, on the promise that Denmark would not export them to the Central Powers, or to other neutral countries.

Organization.

Government. The present constitution of Denmark is based on the charter of June 15, 1915, which is a development of the original constitution of 1849. The executive power is vested in a king and his responsible ministers, who have access to both houses of the Diet, but may vote only in the chamber of which they are members. The Diet consists of a lower house, the Folkething of 140 members, elected by direct universal suffrage, male and female, by proportional representation, and an upper house, the Landsthing, or senate, of 72 members, elected by the electors of the Folkething who are 35 years of age, by indirect election and proportional representation. All laws must be passed by both houses and the Landsthing has the duty of appointing the judges and the trying of impeachments.

Industry and Labor. The situation of Denmark is favorable for commerce. The humidity of the climate and the modification of the temperature by the sea make possible the production of abundant crops in a region lying far north. The long occupation of the peninsula has resulted in the destruction of the forests and a fair development of the soil. The principal crops are oats, potatoes, barley, rye, and wheat. Excellent pasturage makes dairying and cattle raising one of the important industries. Denmark is divided into small farms, the law prohibiting consolidation into great estates.

The Danish fisheries are among the most productive of Europe, the most important being the herring, cod, and salmon. Within recent years manufactures have increased, and in 1914 there were 82,000 industrial factories and shops, employing 346,000 laborers and producing silk, linen, cotton and woolen goods; also leather, lace, gloves, thread, glassware, earthenware, plate wares, weapons, and cutlery. Denmark possesses a large merchant marine for a nation of her size, having in 1917 3,397 vessels, of which more than 500 were steamers.

Religion. The state religion of the kingdom is Lutheran and the national church is under the superintendence of seven bishops. These, however, have no political status. All other sects and divisions are tolerated, and there are no civil disabilities on account of religion.

Education. Education in Denmark has been compulsory since 1814, the school age being from 7 to 14. The public schools, with the exception of a few middle-class schools, are free. More than 3,400 elementary schools and 81 middle-class schools provide for over 400,000 pupils (1917). For higher education there is an agricultural college at Copenhagen, 189 technical schools, 21 training colleges for teachers, and numerous special schools, among which may be mentioned 70 popular high schools (adult schools). The University of Copenhagen was founded in 1479; the attendance is about 3,000, women being admitted on equal terms with men.

Defense. All able-bodied Danish subjects are obliged to serve in the army. Military service commences at 20 and lasts for 16 years, though only for the first eight years are men enrolled in the active army. At the time of joining, the recruits are continuously trained for more than five months in the infantry, nine months in the first artillery, and one year in the garrison artillery. About a fourth of the men prolong their initial training. Subsequent training takes place only once or twice during the remaining years of the active service. 13,000 recruits are trained annually. The peace strength of the active army is about 120 officers and 12,900 men.

The Danish fleet is maintained for the purpose of coast defense and consists of four monitors, two small cruisers, besides torpedo boats and submarines.

The **area** of Denmark is 16,585 square miles and the estimated **population** (1919) 3,170,979.

Chronology.

1648. Denmark, adjacent to German territory, has been engaged in the early stages of the Thirty Years' War, but remains outside most of the wars and complications of Central Europe. As possessor of the entrance to the Baltic Sea, it lays sound dues on commerce.

1657. Denmark in **war with Sweden** (see SWEDEN).

1660. By the Peace of Copenhagen, Denmark cedes to Sweden territories in the Swedish part of the Scandinavian peninsula (see SWEDEN).
With support of the populace, Frederick III. proclaims **monarchy hereditary** instead of elective.

1665. "*Lex regia*" signed, defining succession to crown and declaring the **monarchy absolute.**

1667. Denmark joins in the **Treaty of Breda** with Great Britain, Holland, and France. Oldenburg is acquired.

1679. Peace of Nimwegen (Nijmegen) is signed by Denmark, France, Brandenburg, and Sweden (see EARLY MODERN PERIOD).

1700. Denmark joins with Russia and Poland in a **war against Sweden,** but is forced to make a disadvantageous peace.

1709. Danes invade Sweden (see SWEDEN).

1713. Danes with Russian and Saxon allies are victorious at Tönningen (see SWEDEN).

1721. Great Britain, France, and, later, Russia, **guarantee the possession of Schleswig** to Denmark. Estates of Schleswig accept the "*Lex regia.*"

1770. Count Bernstorff, prime minister of Christian VII., is dismissed, and succeeded by Count Struensee, who, two years later, dies on the scaffold.

1773. Denmark relinquishes Oldenburg to the House of Holstein-Gottorp.

1780. Denmark joins first "**Armed Neutrality.**"

1784. Prince Frederick becomes regent for his father, Christian VII. [Neutrality."

1800. *December.* Denmark joins "Second Armed

1801. *April 2.* British fleet under **Nelson bombards Copenhagen.**

1807. *Sept. 2–5.* Copenhagen again bombarded by British, to prevent seizure of fleet by France.
Oct. 31. Denmark makes alliance with Napoleon. [throne.

1808. *March 13.* **Frederick VI.** succeeds to the

1814. *Jan. 14.* By the Treaty of Kiel, **Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden,** and receives Swedish Pomerania, which is ceded to Prussia in exchange for Lauenburg. **Helgoland** is given up to the English, who cede it to Germany in 1890.

1839. *Dec. 13.* Frederick VI. is succeeded by his son Christian VIII. [son, Frederick VII.

1848. *Jan. 20.* Christian VIII is succeeded by his
A revolutionary movement in Copenhagen forces Frederick to proclaim the **annexation of Schleswig** to Denmark; insurrection in the territory, and a provisional government. Troops of the **German Confederation** come to the aid of the duchies. By the Truce of Malmö a common government is established for the duchies.

1849. *March.* War breaks out again in the duchies. July 10, a truce is made, followed by a peace in which Germany joins. [dom of Denmark.
June 5. **Constitution** granted to the king-

1850. A third war is waged by the army of Schleswig-Holstein alone against Denmark. By the intervention of Austria and Prussia hostilities are suspended.

1852. Holstein assigned to Denmark, on condition that the rights of the duchies be respected.
May 8. Five great powers and Sweden make a treaty at London, by which **Christian** of Sonderburg-Glucksburg is made **heir** to the Danish crown, and also to the sovereignty of the duchies.

1863. *March 30.* Royal proclamation establishes separate administration for Holstein.
Nov. 15. Frederick VII. dies and is succeeded by **Christian IX.** Frederick of Augustenburg proclaims himself Duke of Schleswig-Holstein.
Nov. 18. Christian IX. signs new constitution for Denmark and Schleswig. Prussia protests.

1864. *Jan. 1.* **New constitution** goes into effect.
Jan. 16. Austria and Prussia send ultimatum demanding withdrawal of constitution; refused.
Feb. 1. Austrian and Prussian troops enter Schleswig. April 18, Prussians storm intrenchments of Duppel and occupy part of Jutland.
May 12. Peace conference meets at London, but breaks up on June 26 and war resumed. Austria and Prussia declare themselves no longer bound by the treaty of 1852, and crush the Danes.
Oct. 30. **Treaty of Vienna.** King Christian cedes his rights over Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg to Austria and Prussia (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1870. *March 24.* U.S. Senate fails to ratify treaty for cession of **Danish Islands** in the West Indies.

1883. Constitutional crisis over the power of the king to appoint the members of the ministry irrespective of the majority in the Diet.

1884. Elections show large gains for the Liberal party; crisis becomes acute.

1886. King and the ministers, with only 19 votes in the lower house, undertake to conduct the government without regard to the legislative majority.

1888. Deadlock between the executive and legislative departments.

1890. Conflict between the ministry and the people regarding the powers of the Folkething.

1892. Liberal party gains the ascendancy.

1894. In order to preserve the trade of Copenhagen from being diverted by the Kiel Canal, a free port is opened in that city.
Estrup ministry resigns. Conservative ministry under Reedtz-Thott succeeds.

1896. Law to protect the **shore fisheries of Iceland** from British poachers. Great Britain protests, and the difficulty is compromised by a treaty in August.

1902. *Oct. 22.* Landsthing rejects the second treaty negotiated with the United States authorizing the sale of Danish West Indies (Virgin Islands).

1906. *Jan. 29.* **Christian IX.** dies; succeeded by son **Frederick VIII.**

1908. *April 14.* Parliament adopts a resolution conferring on women taxpayers the right to vote on all matters of local taxation.

1912. *May 14.* Frederick VIII. dies; his son succeeds as Christian X.

1913. *June 21.* Radical cabinet formed with Zahle as premier; members decide to refuse titles.

1914. *June 9.* Chamber passes **woman-suffrage** bill removing property qualifications.
Oct. 29. Exportation of food to Germany is made a penal offense.
Dec. 18. King Christian, with King Haakon of Norway and King Gustavus of Sweden, meet at Malmö to discuss the World War.

1915. *Jan. 18.* Government takes over all flour, thus in effect prohibiting its further export.
April 23. Rigsdag approves constitutional amendments **extending the right of suffrage to women** and abolishing the special qualifications for membership in the Landsthing. New constitution signed by the king June 5.
September. Eighth Scandinavian Peace Congress meets in Copenhagen; also the Northern Interparliamentary Union reconvenes. Scandinavia's position during the war, the security of neutral shipping, and the complete coördination of the three kingdoms are subjects of discussion.

1916. *March 9.* Conference at Copenhagen between the premiers of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden discusses Scandinavian political relations, and decides upon close coöperation in upholding neutral rights.
Dec. 14. Plebiscite held on the question of the **sale of the Danish West Indies to the United States** results in favor of the sale.

1917. *Nov. 15.* Minister of Interior declares that the embargo placed by United States on shipments to Denmark threatens the country with ruin.

1918. *May 28.* Denmark's Parliament assembles, with nine women members, the first elected under **equal suffrage.**
Sept. 19. United States War Trade Board concludes a **shipping agreement with Denmark,** assuring to that country a supply of foodstuffs, metals, machinery, chemicals, etc., with the promise that Denmark shall not export them to the Central Powers or to neutral countries. [sia.
Dec. 9. Denmark **severs relations with Rus-**

1920. *Feb. 10.* Plebiscite in first (northern) zone in Schleswig under Treaty of Versailles favors union with Denmark. [Nations.
March 4. Denmark votes to join **League of**
March 14. Plebiscite in second (southern) zone in Schleswig, including Flensburg, results for union with Germany. Folkething decides to accept. King dismisses Zahle ministry; new ministry resigns on April 4, and a ministry satisfactory to the Radicals appointed.
April 26. Elections give Conservative majority (combination of peasants with city Conservatives) against Radicals and Socialists.

GREENLAND.

IT was proved in 1892 by Lieutenant Robert E. Peary that Greenland is an island. Its area is about 850,000 square miles, making it the largest island in the world. The area of the Danish colony of Greenland is 46,740 square miles and the inhabitants, mostly civilized Eskimos, are supposed to number about 13,000.

The first Europeans to touch Greenland were Eric the Red and his band in the tenth century. These people called it Greenland, hoping that an attractive name would draw colonists. A respectable immigration from Iceland followed. After the discovery of America by Columbus and others Greenland was visited by Davis, Hudson, and Baffin, whose names have remained attached to the waters they explored. The Danes landed on the west coast in 1721 and established missions. The more recent explorers have been many, among them Nordenskjöld, Greely, Nansen, and Peary.

Most of the country is buried under eternal snow and ice. It is almost everywhere mountainous, but the mountains have been blotted out as the valleys have been filled through the centuries by accumulated masses of snow. Petermann Peak, reckoned as 9,000 feet in height, is the loftiest elevation. Of the thousands of enormous glaciers in Greenland, the Humboldt is the vastest, with an unbroken front on the sea of from forty to fifty miles.

Nevertheless, along the coast during the summer months there is a profusion of vegetation, and garden vegetables grow in the south. The Royal Danish Greenland Company has a monopoly of trade, under a system designed rather for the protection of the natives than for profit.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC (SANTO DOMINGO).

THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC occupies the middle and eastern part of the island of Santo Domingo or Haiti. (See HAITI.) Since 1884 it has existed as a more or less independent republic with frequent revolutions and periods of anarchy. In 1899 the republic was practically bankrupt and certain European powers in 1904 intimated that unless the United States took charge of the Dominican customs and would guarantee an equitable distribution to satisfy their claims they would land forces. In 1905 President Roosevelt negotiated a treaty by which an American commissioner should collect and hold 55% of the revenues for foreign creditors.

With certain amendments this was ratified by the United States Senate in 1907. In 1916 United States forces occupied the republic and proclaimed a military government similar to that in Haiti.

Organization.

Government. The constitution, which is in abeyance, provides for a president chosen by an electoral college for six years, a national Congress consisting of 12 senators, and a Chamber of Deputies of 24. The government is actually carried on by military and financial officials from the United States.

Industry. Agriculture is the principal source of wealth and the chief products are tobacco, sugar, coconuts, cocoa, and coffee. Cattle raising is also a promising industry.

Religion and Social Conditions. All faiths are tolerated, but the state religion is Roman Catholic. The population is practically all of African Negro descent.

Education. Primary education is free and nominally compulsory. In 1916 there were 402 schools with 14,000 pupils. Since the establishment of the military government attempts have been made to reform the system of education by introducing manual training and agricultural instruction.

Defense. Native constabulary, officered by Americans, is the only defense apart from the American marines.

The **area** is estimated at 19,332 square miles and it had a **population** (1918) of about 955,150.

Chronology.

1492. *Dec. 6.* Columbus lands on the island, naming it **Española** (Hispaniola).
1496. Santo Domingo (city) founded by Bartholomew Columbus. [crop.
1506. Sugar cultivation introduced; becomes staple
151?. **African slaves** come to take the place of the exterminated natives as laborers.
1697. *Sept. 20.* By Treaty of Ryswick Spain cedes western part of island to France (see HAITI).
1795. *July 22.* By Treaty of Basel Spain cedes rest of the island to France (see HAITI).
1806. Spain regains control of her portion of the island; colony named **Santo Domingo.**
1821. Independence established under Colombian auspices; Spanish withdraw.
1822. **Conquest** of Santo Domingo **by Haiti.**
1844. *Feb. 27.* Independence from Haiti declared; made good by battle on March 14. Contest one of Spanish whites and mulattoes against French Negro rule. **Dominican Republic** established; **Santana** first president. Santana favors annexation to United States. President Tyler of United States favors recognition, if not closer relations; agent sent to investigate, but matter dropped.
1848. War renewed by Haiti. Santana, no longer president, commands defense.
1849. Baez, mulatto, becomes **president.** For 24 years, in the chair or in exile, he is an outstanding figure. He favors annexation to France.
1850. *Feb. 22.* Baez solicits **intervention** of United States, Great Britain, and France to stop Haitian war.
1851. American special agent sent to Haiti who, in conjunction with British and French agents, attempts peace; but Haitian government rejects overtures, though war is not resumed. No attempt at coercion made.
1856. Haiti renews the war; defeated by Santana.
1861. *March 18.* **Incorporation** of Santo Domingo **with Spain** proclaimed; Santana, again president, has invited it. United States protests.
1864. Revolt against Spanish rule, led by Cabral, makes headway.
1865. *April 30.* **Spanish** Cortes passes a law formally **abandoning Santo Domingo,** from which Spanish have virtually been driven out.
1866. *Sept. 17.* Formal **recognition** of Dominican Republic **by United States.**
1867. *July 26.* Preliminary treaty of peace, amity, and commerce with Haiti. Definitive treaty November 9, 1874.
1869. *Nov. 29.* **Draft treaty of annexation with United States.** Baez, again precariously president, hopes to absorb some of the $1,500,000 to be paid by the United States for the territory. Also treaty for lease of Samana Bay. United States Senate fails to ratify treaties.
1873. Final overthrow of Baez. Civil disorder with various rulers continues for a decade.
188?. Heureaux, a Negro, becomes president. He continues, in and out of office, absolute ruler for 17 years. Peace, but no progress. Public debt and foreign claims mount rapidly and foreign complications follow.
1899. *July 26.* Heureaux assassinated. Another period of confusion ensues.
1904. *June.* Morales becomes president. Debt has run to $32,000,000 and interest regularly defaulted. Foreign governments press for payment and protection of the interests of their subjects in the republic.
July. First installment of an adjudged American claim against Dominican government not being paid, possession is taken by United States of customhouse at Puerto Plata. Other creditor nations protest.
1905. *January.* Morales appeals to United States to save his country from **European intervention.**
Feb. 7. **Protocol** signed **with United States,** establishing a **financial protectorate;** United States to adjust all obligations of Santo Domingo, foreign and domestic; take charge of customhouses, paying adjusted claims out of percentage of proceeds; and grant such other assistance as Santo Domingo shall deem proper to restore credit, promote order, and aid material progress. Public debt not to be increased without permission of United States. United States Senate fails to ratify it; substance of it put in operation as a *modus vivendi.* Works well and brings quiet.
1907. *Feb. 8.* **New convention** with United States, which American Senate ratifies. **Foreign debts and claims** have been **adjusted,** but conditioned on United States assuming **control of the customs** for payment of such adjustments. No increase in public debt without American permission. [Cáceres.
1908. Morales fills out his term; succeeded by
1911. *Nov. 19.* Cáceres assassinated. New period of revolutionary disturbances in spite of warnings from United States.
1914. *June 26.* American warship compels rebels to cease bombarding Puerto Plata. President Wilson of United States sends a personal commission to the island and a compromise is made by which Baez becomes provisional president.
October. Congress elected under supervision of **American marines.** Jiménez chosen president; inaugurated December 3.
1915. *April.* New revolutionary outbreak causes reappearance of American cruisers.
1916. *May.* Jiménez impeached for budget irregularities. A revolt follows, but American marines land and Admiral Caperton, U.S.N., orders rebels to leave the capital. Jiménez resigns May 7.
May 17. With American marines on hand to insure quiet, Congress elects Henríquez y **Carvajal** provisional president. Inaugurated July 31. **American occupation continues.**
Nov. 29. **American** commander proclaims a **military government,** which has since continued. Occasional clashes between natives and marines, but increasing order and internal improvements. Native officials carry on the administration, being responsible to the American commander. Dominican national guard, similar to the native constabulary of Haiti, organized.
1919. *June 28.* **Dominican Republic (Santo Domingo) omitted** in Treaty of Versailles **from** list of neutral nations invited to join **League of Nations.**

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

See under NETHERLANDS, page 129.

DUTCH GUIANA.

See under NETHERLANDS, page 129.

EAST AFRICA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65; and under GERMANY, page 105.

ECUADOR.

Historical Outline.

THE country now included in the republic of Ecuador has been known from the early days of Spanish discovery. The ancient name of the country was Quito, so called from the Quitus. These people held the country from time immemorial until they were overcome by the Caras in the tenth century. At a later time the Peruvians conquered Quito and made it a part of their empire. In 1533 Quito was conquered by the Spaniards. The country was made a dependency of Peru, and was ruled by an underpresident appointed by the viceroy.

The subversion of the royal government in Spain by Napoleon (1807) led to a series of insurrections among the Spanish American colonies, one of which broke out in Ecuador in 1809. Three years afterwards there was a general insurrection, but the Spanish forces from Peru put it down. In 1820 a revolution again gathered head at Guayaquil, and to this General Bolivar gave a cordial support. The patriots with forces from Colombia in 1822 gained a great victory on Mount Pichincha and immediately entered into union with New Granada and Venezuela, which states had already adopted the republican form of government. This union formed the constitutional basis of the United States of Colombia.

In 1830 Ecuador seceded from the union. The new state took the name of República del Ecuador, that is, Republic of the Equator. General J. J. Flores was president until 1845. He administered as virtual dictator. Revolutions compelled General Flores to retire from office on a large pension. One administration followed another, with revolution always in the wake. Scarcely any president was permitted to serve out his official term. In 1866 came the league of Ecuador with Peru and Chile in a war with Spain. General Antonio Flores commanded the Ecuadorian army and was elected to the presidency in 1888. The country has been distracted with terrible earthquakes. There were revolutions in 1906 and in 1913, the latter lasting for two years.

Organization.

Government. The present constitution (1906) vests the executive power in a president, elected for four years and the legislative power in a Senate of 32 senators, two for each province, chosen for four years and a House of 48 deputies chosen for two years on the basis of one deputy for every 30,000 inhabitants. All adults who can read and write can vote.

Religion and Education. The state recognizes no religion, but the greater part of the population are Roman Catholics. Primary education is free and compulsory and higher education is conducted by the central university at Quito, professional schools, and by two other universities. There are 12 schools of higher education and 1,266 primary schools.

Industry and Labor. On the coast regions tropical farming is carried on and the staple products are cocoa, coffee, and rubber. In the foothills grazing, dairying, and the production of hay, grain, fruits, and vegetables are the chief industries. The country is rich in minerals and timber.

The **area** of Ecuador is about 116,000 square miles and its estimated **population** in 1915 was 2,000,000, the bulk of which is Indian.

Chronology.

1533. Quito conquered by the Spaniards and becomes a presidency of viceroyalty of Peru. Later under New Granada (Santa Fé).
1809, 181?. Attempts to revolt from Spain fail.
1822. *May 22.* **Independence** finally won at battle of Mount Pichincha. Ecuador unites with Venezuela and New Granada in **Republic of Colombia.**
1830. Republic of Colombia breaks up; Ecuador a **separate republic.** Constitution adopted. Juan José Flores becomes president and remains, in and out of office and in exile, the chief figure of the country until 1864.
1840. *Feb. 16.* Treaty of friendship with Spain; **independence recognized.**
1861–1865. Gabriel **García Moreno,** Conservative leader, **president.** His religious and educational reaction finally causes his retirement.
1865–1867. Carrión president. Alliance with Peru and Chile against Spain (see PERU).
1868. *January.* Espinosa elected president.
August. Great earthquake in Ecuador.
1869. García Moreno leads a revolt and again becomes president.
1875. *August.* **García Moreno** assassinated.
1876. Veintemilla, Radical leader, heads a revolt against García Moreno's successor, Borrero, and is proclaimed president.
1877. Veintemilla elected president; later he assumes dictatorship and represses the church.
1883. Veintemilla driven into exile.
1884. Caamaño elected president. [idency.
1888. Antonio Flores regularly succeeds to pres-
1889. *Oct. 2.* First **Pan-American Congress** meets at Washington (see UNITED STATES).
1892. Cordero becomes president.
1894. Alfaro heads a revolt and on driving Cordero into exile becomes **anticlerical** dictator.
1897. Alfaro elected president.
1901. *Aug. 31.* Plaza Gutiérrez succeeds constitutionally as president. He continues the anticlerical policy, establishes religious equality before the law and promotes nationalization of church property. [president.
1905. *Aug. 31.* García, a Clerical, inaugurated
1906. *Jan. 6.* Alfaro leads another revolt and deposes the president, January 20.
Dec. 23. New **constitution** adopted.
1907. *Jan. 1.* Alfaro inaugurated constitutional president.
1908. *June 18.* **Railroad** between Quito and Guayaquil opened. Does not pay; foreign ownership and bonds cause international complications.
1909. National Exposition commemorates centenary of independence.
1911. *Jan. 29.* Proposed lease of **Galápagos Islands** to United States as a naval station refused.
Aug. 31. Estrada becomes president. He dies December 21; Freile Zaldumbide serves as active president. Alfaro starts a revolt and army proclaims Montero president.
1912. Alfaro and Montero murdered.
July. Under pressure from United States, Ecuador agrees to pay part and arbitrate rest of debt to Quito-Guayaquil railway. [president.
Aug. 31. Plaza Gutiérrez again inaugurated
1913. *October.* **Concha revolts.** He takes the port of Esmeraldas, which changes hands several times in following months.
1915. *Feb. 25.* Concha captured; revolt collapses.

1916. *Aug. 31.* Baquerize Moreno inaugurated as president; disorderly election.
1917. *Dec. 7.* Diplomatic intercourse with **Germany** severed
1918. *July.* United States Sanitary Commission begins extinction of yellow fever at Guayaquil.
1919. *Jan. 15.* Ecuador has a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.
July 19. Final **agreement** on **Colombian boundary** signed.
1920. *Jan. 11.* Dr. José Luis Tamayo, Liberal, elected president.
April 4. Joint celebration of settlement of Colombian boundary controversy.

EGYPT.

See under British Empire, page 68.

ENGLAND.

See British Empire, page 50.

ESTHONIA.

Esthonia, or the region inhabited by the Esthonians, claims substantially the northern third of the former Russian province of Livonia, and resisted the troops of Soviet Russia until December 31, 1919, when an armistice was signed. By this armistice Russia recognized the right of self-determination for the Esthonian nationality, and, apparently, the independence of Esthonia.

Government. Esthonia is governed by a provisional constitution, adopted by a constituent assembly on June 4, 1919. The power is vested in the Constituent Assembly of 120 members. The chief executive is the president of the Assembly, who is assisted by a cabinet of 11 ministers.

Industry and Labor. The chief occupation of Esthonia is agriculture, the important products being rye, barley, oats, and hay. In 1910 there were 363,263 head of cattle, 436,259 sheep, 213,002 pigs, and 155,262 horses. Twenty per cent of the surface is forest land. The chief exports are flax, lumber, and meat.

Religion and Education. Five sixths of the population are Lutherans. Elementary education is obligatory.

According to the boundaries fixed by the armistice agreement with Russia, December 31, 1919, and later with Latvia, the **area** is about 23,160 square miles. The **population** is 1,750,000, of whom nineteen twentieths are Esthonians.

Chronology.

See also Baltic Provinces, under Russia: Lithuania, Poland, Russia, and World War.

1521. **Esthonia** becomes **Swedish.**
1721. **Annexed by Russia.**
1905. **Revolt,** as a protest against Russification.
1917. *March 30.* Russians set up an elective **Council** for Esthonia.
May. The Esthonian army makes a **drive on Petrograd.**
1917. *Nov. 28.* **Independence** of Esthonia is **proclaimed** by a national council, following the revolution in Russia.
1918. *Feb. 24.* **Esthonian Republic** is **proclaimed** and a provisional government set up, which retires to Stockholm when the Germans occupy the country.
March 3. By the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** Esthonia is to be occupied by a German police force "until their security is restored"
May. Allies recognize the exiled Esthonian Assembly as *de facto* independent.
1919. *January.* **Bolsheviki** capture Riga and **invade Esthonia.**
Nov. 10. Conference of Baltic states at Yurev (see Lithuania).
Dec. 31. Esthonian-Bolshevist armistice is signed; **Esthonian independence recognized.**
1920. *Jan. 20.* **Peace of Yurev** (Dorpat) between Esthonia and Bolsheviki.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

See under British Empire, page 74.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

See under British Empire, page 65.

FIJI ISLANDS.

See under British Empire, page 77.

FINLAND.

Historical Outline.

Finland is a country lying between Sweden and Russia and extending from the Gulf of Finland on the south almost to the Arctic Ocean, from which it is separated by Norway. On the west it is bounded by the Gulf of Bothnia, and on the east by the watershed between the Arctic Ocean and Baltic Sea. The original inhabitants of Finland were people of a Mongolian stock, and the Finnish language is Ural-Altaic. In the 12th century the country was invaded by the Swedes, and Finland became an integral part rather than a dependency of Sweden. Swedish became the language of the higher classes.

In 1809 Sweden was forced to cede Finland to Russia, though the upper classes have remained Swedish. To avoid a long struggle Alexander I. granted the Finns complete autonomy, and Finland existed as a separate country with the Czar of Russia as Grand Duke of Finland. In 1899 Russia determined upon the Russification of Finland. This aroused the Finns, who met the Russian policy with passive resistance, and a period of Russian oppression and Finnish retaliation followed. The Russian revolution of 1905 gave the Finns the opportunity to obtain their old liberties. But when the czardom had recovered, it again undertook the Russification of Finland. Such was the condition in 1914.

In 1917 the Kerenski government restored the constitution to Finland. The Bolshevist party in Russia attempted to spread its doctrines to the surrounding country and that led to civil war between the Finnish "Red" and "White" Guards. In December, 1917, Finland declared its independence and from that time on there was civil war between the Radicals and Reactionaries. In the beginning the Radicals were successful, but by June, 1918, through German aid, the Conservatives obtained the power and proposed to establish a monarchy with a German prince as king, and even elected Prince Frederick Charles of Hesse.

With the collapse of Germany a peaceful revolution occurred (Dec. 13, 1918) and General Mannerheim freed the country from all Bolshevist activities. The Republic of Finland was recognized by the British and American governments, in 1919, and the Diet elected Professor K. J. Stahlberg president.

Organization.

Government. Finland is a republic with a legislative power vested in a diet of a single chamber of 200 members chosen by direct and proportional election. The suffrage is given to every Finnish citizen, man or woman, of twenty-four years of age. There is a cabinet of 13 members, who, with the Regent of Finland, exercise the executive power.

Industry and Labor. Finland is predominantly an agricultural country, the chief crops being oats, potatoes, rye, and barley. There is a large amount of live stock in the country and butter ranks as the second of Finland's exports. More than half the country is covered with forests, which furnish the chief natural wealth of the country; and the main industry is the production of lumber and wood pulp, which are the chief exports. The forests also gave Finland her first industries in woodworking and paper-making. During the last generation, however, mechanical works and textile industries have been introduced, utilizing the cheap electric power derived from Finland's numerous waterfalls.

Religion and Education. The majority of the Finns are Lutherans, there being only a small number of members of the Greek Orthodox Church and a few hundred Roman Catholics. Education is free and compulsory, the school age being from seven to fifteen years. In the country there are over 3,000 primary schools, with more than 150,000 pupils, and in 38 towns there are primary schools with more than 42,000 pupils. A large number of high schools are supplemented by continuation schools and special schools. There is one university, counting over 3,000 students, of whom more than 800 are women.

Defense. The regular army consists of about 30,000 men and the volunteer army of 17,000.

The **area** is 125,689 square miles, of which about a tenth per cent is lake surface. The **population** in 1918 was 3,329,146.

Chronology.

1157. The Finns, a **Ural-Altaic race, first conquered** and converted **by Sweden;** a process repeated several times.
1528. Religion becomes **Lutheran.**
1721. *Aug. 30.* Treaty of Nystad by which, after repeated devastation in wars between Sweden and Russia, Sweden cedes eastern portion of Finland to Russia.
1772. Swedish king grants Finland a **constitution.**
1809. *Sept. 17.* By Treaty of Fredrikshamn rest of Finland is **ceded to Czar of Russia** as Grand Duke of Finland. Union is a personal one; grand duchy continues as practically a separate state under former constitution.
1899. *Feb. 14.* Following a contest for many years against the pan-Slavic policy of the Russian bureaucracy, the **legislative power** of the Diet is **abrogated.** This is followed by other measures of Russification, and the grand duchy is practically absorbed.
1905. *November.* Finnish opposition culminates in a national strike. November 7, the czar **restores the constitution.**
1906. *May 29.* New Diet **remodels the constitution;** universal **suffrage** (including **women**), freedom of speech and assembly. Russification begins again, however.
1910. *June 30.* Law of Russian Duma gives Russian government sole power over matters affecting Finland and Russia jointly; practical **destruction of Finnish autonomy.**
1917. *March 21.* Revolutionary government in Russia completely restores Finnish constitution. Finnish Diet is convened. Question continues whether Russian government or Finland inherits grand duke's supreme authority. Swedish land aristocracy promotes pro-German intrigue.
July 19. Finnish Diet passes an **autonomy bill;** a formal denial of Russian suzerain rights. Russian government dissolves Diet, declares act unconstitutional, and prepares to use force. Finland yields.
Dec. 7. Following the Bolshevist revolution in Russia, Finland **proclaims independence,** to which her existing government is easily adapted; Diet assumes sovereign power, Senate is executive. New republic speedily **recognized** by Sweden, Germany, and France.
1918. *Jan. 9.* Bolshevist government recognizes independence of Finland. Soon after, **civil war** begins between the "Reds" and "Whites" (latter led by government and propertied classes); "Reds" assisted by Russia, "Whites" appeal for aid to Sweden and Germany.
Feb. 19. Sweden occupies **Åland Islands;** March 2, German troops do likewise.
March 3. By Treaty of Brest-Litovsk **Russia** agrees that her navy and the Red Guards **shall evacuate Finland;** fortifications on Åland Islands to be removed.
March 7. **Treaty of peace** between **Germany** and "White" government.
April 3. **German troops land** on Finnish mainland; Helsingfors occupied on April 13, and **Red government overthrown** at Viborg by "Whites" and Germans on April 30.
May 30. **Von der Goltz,** commander of German troops, becomes supreme commander of Finnish army. [is made in Diet.
June 12. Proposal for a hereditary monarchy
Oct. 11. **German troops evacuate** Finland.
1919. *May.* Great Britain and United States recognize *de facto* ("White") government of Finland.
July. **Stahlberg** elected **president.**

FRANCE.

Historical Outline.

France, at the middle of the seventeenth century, held the first rank among the powers of Europe. England remained an insular kingdom. Spain declined after the age of Charles V. and Philip II. Germany was still a chaotic collection of kingdoms and principalities. For a time France alone was a consolidated unit of race and institutions, showing forth the spirit of nationality and employing the agencies and methods of a great modern state.

When Louis XIV. was ten years of age France was represented at the Congress of Westphalia (1648) by Cardinal Mazarin. In 1661 Louis XIV. began his personal autocratic rule, which lasted until 1715. He was called the "Grand Monarch," and his reign of 72 years was one of the most interesting in history. In the foreign and religious wars France obtained only minor advantages. The acquisition of Alsace was the really valuable gain from a historical point of view.

The age of Louis XIV. was one of astonishing activity and glory, but of little substantial advantage to France. The manner of the king in administration and war resembled a royal parade and spectacle. Near the conclusion of the reign it was seen that the military power and prestige of the monarchy were waning. As for the literary splendor and artistic fame of the period, these cannot be claimed as results of the influence of the king.

Louis XIV. was proud and arrogant. He had great abilities when he chose to use them and an instinct for choosing subordinates. Thus Colbert, the banker statesman, was placed at the head of the Department of Finance. Turenne and Condé were chosen as commanders of the French armies. Louvois, Noailles, Villars, and Tallard came afterwards. On the other hand, he made many serious mistakes in state policy, especially the revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685, the scheme for placing his grandson on the throne of Spain, and the correspondence with the English Jacobites. Battles were fought and some victories won by the king's armies, but the age was on the whole an era of proclamations and pageantry rather than of great deeds and marked progress.

The consequences of this false prosperity were quickly shown. During the first half of the eighteenth century, both the monarchy and the nation looked backward rather than forward. The English power in combination with the Netherlands gained at the expense of France. Louis XV., great-grandson of the Grand Monarch, came to the throne in

1715. So far from overriding the French people by his personal will, under Louis XV. the government of France became weak and contemptible, while at the same time the French nation began to manifest its power and genius. All that is significant in the reign of Louis XV. was a flowering of the French mind and its brilliant ascendancy in Europe. While the state was inert, French minds assailed the political, social, and religious structure of the age. A new learning came, a new science, and a new philosophy. Free thought clashed with despotism. The customs and traditions of a thousand years were set at naught. New opinions sought expression in literature. The Encyclopedists were awake with a new system of learning, a new category of the achievements of mankind. Meanwhile, the French lost their colonial empire in India and in North America. While the country was the most intelligent and the richest in Europe, the government was on the verge of bankruptcy.

Louis XVI. came to the throne on the death of his grandfather in 1774. Neither he nor the French aristocracy saw that a new era was about to begin. For thirteen years the old methods of government and society were accepted as though they were eternal. In reality they had been destroyed by the slow-moving forces of history. The French monarchy could never recognize nor accept this fact and thus fell before the attack of modern ideas.

The French Revolution began as a struggle against political privilege; it quickly developed into a struggle for "*liberté, égalité, fraternité*" — personal freedom, legal equality, brotherhood. Feudal rights were destroyed; then the monarchy was put on a constitutional basis (1791). Then came an up-rising from the depths — a republic was established, the king and queen were executed, gradually the rabble of Paris got control of the Convention and the management of the government. The result was the Reign of Terror (1794), which led to anarchy. The only way out was to form a Directory, a dictatorship of a group. Military support was necessary. In 1795 the young Napoleon protected the Convention against a Royalist uprising and presently became the victorious leader of the French armies, repelling invasion and spreading the ideas of the Revolution in conquered lands.

In 1803 Napoleon declared himself Emperor of the French. In a series of wars he defeated Austria, crushed Prussia, occupied Holland, destroyed Spain, and threatened Russia. In 1809 Austria attempted to throw off the French yoke, but was defeated at Wagram; and in 1812 Napoleon declared war upon Russia, invaded it, and occupied Moscow in triumph. The Russians, however, destroyed the city and the French were forced to a disastrous and frightful defeat. In 1813 the German nations rallied and at the great battle of Leipzig the French were defeated and Napoleon retreated to the Rhine.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

The allies invaded France's territory entering Paris March 30, 1814, and Napoleon abdicated and was exiled to Elba. In March, 1815, Napoleon landed in France and began his wonderful "Hundred Days." The alliance was renewed against him; on June 18 he was overwhelmingly defeated at Waterloo, and the empire was abolished for the second time. The House of Bourbon was restored, but without enthusiasm or hope on the part of the French people.

The reigns of Louis XVIII. and his brother, Charles X., were but interludes between the past and the future. Then came the Revolution of 1830 and the substitution of the Orléans monarchy of Louis Philippe, modeled on the English basis. The Citizen King was tolerated by the nation until the Revolution of 1848, when the short-lived Second Republic served as a stepping-stone for Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, on which he mounted to the empire in 1851.

The temper of France showed itself to be imperial and the *coup d'état* of Napoleon III. was ratified with enthusiasm. For 19 years he ruled France, partly by diplomacy and partly by military power. His court was the most glittering in Europe. After the Crimean War, the opening of the Suez Canal, and the International Exposition of 1867, his prestige was greater than that of any other ruler of his time.

From 1852 to 1860 this rule was autocratic and repressive; from 1860 to 1870 it was forced into a form which paid some attention to the rights of the people. Napoleon III. was an intensely modern man, interested in works of utility and improvement and humanity. Hospitals and asylums and relief agencies were founded, laborers were given the right to strike, banks were organized so that the farmers might improve their holdings, railways were built and canals begun. In the midst of this prosperity the court was openly and unblushingly corrupt. The Empire was losing thousands of the troops and military credit in the effort to make Mexico a dependency.

The rise of Prussia, particularly after the successful war with Austria in 1866, seemed to the French to upset the balance of power. "Revenge for Sadowa" — the critical battle in that war — was the cry of the French press. This meant that France must increase in area and power to counterbalance the growth of Prussia. The diplomats and the press harbored the idea that ultimately a war must come between France and Prussia. Not so the people. The pretext was found in 1870 in a controversy over the Spanish throne, skillfully aggravated by the Ems dispatch which Bismarck so edited as to arouse German popular opinion. The emperor took the bait. Ollivier, the French minister, announced that he accepted war "with a light heart." The empress declared that "this is my war."

A few days of actual war brought down this house of cards. The scandalous lack of preparation of the French was revealed before the efficiency of the Prussians. Fighting began August 2, 1870, and on September 1 at Sedan a whole French army of 120,000 men was destroyed or captured, including the surrender of Emperor Napoleon III. The empire at once collapsed and a republic was proclaimed. Fighting continued until February, 1871, and included the siege and final capitulation of Metz and of the capital city of Paris.

For this war Germany exacted from France the then unprecedented money indemnity of five billion francs (about $1,000,000,000) and tore away the two French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, including the important military fortress of Metz. Alsace was German in origin and speech, but had been French for two centuries, and in 1870 was French in spirit and nationality. The possession of Lorraine by Germany gave control of rich coal and iron deposits as well as a point of departure for future invasion of France. To France the loss of these provinces was an affront and an injury which never could be forgotten and which some day must be redressed.

The Third French Republic was proclaimed September 4, 1870, and its first act was to renew the war. When victory proved impossible it had to bear the odium of the hard terms of the German peace. Even greater difficulties faced it. In Paris the anarchistic Commune in 1871 seized the city. Civil war was waged for six weeks, during which Paris suffered even more than during the German bombardment. The Republic regained the city and overthrew the Commune amid frightful bloodshed. Thousands of the Communists were deported.

Although the republican government of France was thus restored, it had no constitution. The sole power was in the hands of the National Assembly, which exercised all legislative and executive powers. It was also the only body capable of making a constitution. The Assembly was not in favor of a republic; and the old Bourbon line would have been restored but for the refusal of the heir to the throne to accept the tricolor flag. Bonapartists also hoped and plotted. In 1875 the constitution of the Third Republic was formed, which still left the way open for a monarchy. In 1879 the republic was accepted as permanent and Jules Grévy was elected president.

This republic has lasted for nearly fifty years, and in spite of dangerous crises has proved acceptable to France and has fought through the World War. There seems little likelihood of a change in the form of government. The history and development of the republic may conveniently be grouped around six important movements: (1) church and state; (2) the army; (3) colonial empire; (4) civil control of the military; (5) socialism and labor; (6) relations with Germany.

In the long struggle between republicans and monarchists the Roman Catholic Church supported the monarchists, which caused Gambetta to exclaim, "Clericalism, that is our enemy." In 1880 the Jesuits were expelled from France and the new free and compulsory educational system, established 1881–1882, attempted to free the schools from clerical control. In the struggles over the Dreyfus case the Clerical party sided with the army, which caused the formation in the Chamber of Deputies of the coalition called the "bloc," composed of Radicals and Socialists, which attacked the church.

Under the leadership of Waldeck-Rousseau, laws were passed suppressing all religious orders except those authorized by the government, and no religious order was allowed to teach. In 1905 the Concordat, or treaty with the Pope, dating from 1801, was abrogated and thenceforth church and state in France were separate. Legally organized "associations of worship" were given the privilege of occupying the church buildings. Bishops and priests were deprived of state aid; but, on the other hand, the church was free from state interference in ecclesiastical affairs.

The army has twice been the cause of political crises. From 1886 to 1889 General Boulanger, a high officer in the army, attempted by securing election to the Chamber from different constituencies to prove his popularity; and he watched the opportunity for a military *coup d'état*. He failed to raise the necessary following and ignominiously broke down.

The Dreyfus case, which lasted from 1894 to 1906, began in the conviction and degradation of an obscure artillery captain. He insisted that he was the victim of a combination of enemies. Gradually evidence accumulated that the traitor was not Dreyfus at all, but a protégé of the chiefs of the army and perhaps a minister. Dreyfus was a Hebrew and the anti-Semites in France charged that his race associates were controlling the politicians and the army by their money. The monarchists joined in the hunt, eager to discredit the republic. The Clerical party was against Dreyfus. On the other side the *bloc* of radical republicans insisted that the army should be subordinate to civil authority, that clerical influence should be kept out of politics, and that the republic should be preserved. A series of investigations showed that Dreyfus was an innocent man, his enemies were held up to public scorn, and the attacks on the army were checked.

During the early years of the republic a distinct movement was made to carry trade-unionism over to socialism. During the eighties the socialists lost ground and disintegrated into groups. About 1900, however, the various socialist elements united and in the ministry of Waldeck-Rousseau an "independent socialist" received a portfolio. In 1905 a formal Socialist party was formed, on the platform of transforming the capitalistic organization of society into a collectivist or communistic organization, through the political organization of the working classes (proletariat). In the elections of 1910 the popular vote polled by the Socialists was 1,200,000 and 105 Socialist deputies were elected. The election of 1919, the first after the World War, showed a reaction; and the Socialists and Radicals lost 126 seats in the Chamber of Deputies, while the Republicans of the Left and the Progressives gained 122 and the Liberal Action party (Catholic), 42.

From 1871 until 1892 France stood almost alone in Europe. Through the defeat by Germany, she sank for a time to the position of a second-rate power. The loss of Alsace-Lorraine was not serious in a territorial sense, but the policy of *revanche* (revenge) was never abandoned. The French always hoped that the lost provinces might some day be restored. Nevertheless, France accepted the loss as an accomplished fact for the time being, and turned her energies to building up a colonial empire.

As far back as 1830 France had sent a fleet to threaten Algiers; war followed, and by 1847 France controlled the whole of Algeria. Under Napoleon III., the Senegal valley in Africa was annexed, and in Asia Cochin China was acquired (1862). During the Third Republic, Tunis was made a "protectorate" (1881), and the French possessions in West Africa were expanded until France controlled most of the western coast of Africa from the Mediterranean to the Congo. The region thus brought under French influence is nearly eight times as large as France and has a population of over 14,000,000. In Asia the kingdom of Annam became a protectorate in 1883 and Tonkin was annexed in 1885. In 1896 Madagascar was declared a French colony.

The French long looked with desire toward Morocco, but Germany was a rival contestant for territory both in the interior of Africa and on the northern coast. In 1906 the emperor asserted the interest of Germany. This was contested by France and Great Britain, and by the Conference of Algeciras French primacy in Morocco was acknowledged — a settlement proposed by the representative of the United States. Again, in 1911, Germany sent the *Panther* to Agadir, an act which almost caused war. Once more Germany was forced to yield and to recognize the French interests; in return France ceded extensive territories in Kamerun and the French Congo.

These incidents showed that France had powerful friends in Europe; the long isolation was broken. The change goes back to 1892, when an alliance was made with Russia. Thenceforward the two powers were united, if need be, against the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy. France's position in Europe was made more secure. The rivalry with Great Britain continued and became serious in 1898 over conflicting colonial claims in Africa (the Fashoda incident). Neither party desired war, and the matter was settled by compromise.

In 1901 Edward VII. became King of Great Britain and used all his influence to bring about a military understanding between France and England — the *Entente Cordiale* of 1904. France recognized England's special interests in Egypt, and England the special interests of France in Morocco. The adjustment of colonial questions was the smaller part of the result. Without any formal public alliance, England became the firm friend of France; then settled old differences with the ally of France, Russia; and thus the germ of a rival *Triple Entente* was formed to offset the famous Triple Alliance.

The early years of the twentieth century saw Europe divided into two camps. Germany's universal military service compelled her neighbors to adopt the same policy in self-defense. In spite of proposals made at the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907 to disarm or to limit the military establishments, a contest in military preparedness went on. In this Germany set the pace and France perforce had to follow. There is no evidence that France had in her alliances and the increase of her armies any aggressive design; she aimed to protect herself. Nor is there evidence that France planned attacking Germany or her allies.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

Nevertheless, when in 1914 Germany, asserting that she was surrounded by an "iron ring" of enemies, seized the Austrian demands on Serbia after the murder of the Austrian Crown Prince as the occasion for war on Russia, France was deeply involved. She was bound to defend her ally against a two-power war; and she could readily see that Germany would seek her destruction. Hence on August 3, 1914, German troops being already in French territory, war was declared on Germany.

Germany recognized that France, well armed and close to German centers, was the most immediately dangerous opponent. Therefore, leaving the eastern frontier weakly defended, Germany struck through Belgium directly at France. By the end of August Germany had almost reached Paris; but by the battle of the Marne she was thrown back on lines which still included a large part of the industrial section of France, threatening the Channel and the capital.

During the war France suffered as almost no other country. She was deprived of a large portion of her most valuable industrial resources, a large part of the male population was mobilized in the army, and industry was paralyzed. In the territory occupied the Germans were guilty of frightful devastation and destruction beyond what was necessary for military purposes. Their clear and avowed purpose was so to cripple the economic resources and organization of France that she should cease to be a trade rival after the war.

In the early years of the war there were frequent changes of ministry; but just as in military affairs the war produced one supreme leader, Foch, so in political affairs, Clemenceau became the most powerful influence in France. With no thought of surrender, in spite of reverses and in the face of a defeatist party, Clemenceau maintained his steady course and upheld the policy of Foch.

At the close of the war France demanded compensation, not only for the "crime of 1870" and for the enormous military losses, but also for the devastation which the Germans had wrought. The treaty restored Alsace-Lorraine to France, gave to her an undetermined sum by way of reparation, and in particular assigned the occupation of the valuable coal mines in the Saar region as a compensation for the willful devastation of the Lens and other French coal fields. Thus, after being deprived of her provinces for nearly half a century, France was able to redress the wrong of 1870 and to receive partial compensation for her losses.

Organization.

Government. The Constitution of France does not consist of a single document submitted for approval to the electorate, but of a series of statutes passed by the Assembly. The foundations are five laws, sometimes referred to as the Constitution of 1875, which provide for the organization of the public powers, the relations of the public powers, the election of senators, and the election of deputies. To these have been added the Laws of 1879, fixing Paris as the seat of government; of 1884, for the abolition of life senators; of 1885, 1889, and 1913, for the election of deputies. The power to amend and alter this constitution is vested in the National Assembly, which consists of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies sitting in joint session.

The executive power is vested in a president chosen by the National Assembly for a term of seven years. Nominally the president has wide and important powers; practically, like the king of England, he personally exercises few of these powers, all real executive acts being performed by ministers. The ministry in France, while nominally appointed by the president, is directly responsible to the Chamber of Deputies, and thus a cabinet system of government is established, similar to that in England.

In actual practice the French parliamentary system is quite different, since the Chamber of Deputies is divided into numerous groups, no one of which generally possesses a clear majority; hence, every ministry is responsible not to one organized party, but to a temporary coalition. Since the election of 1898, which resulted in the formation of the *bloc*, or coalition of the Radical and Socialist parties, somewhat more consistent support has been given to the various ministries. Yet, as compared with England the ministries in France are short-lived and shifting.

The legislative power is vested in a bicameral legislature. The Chamber of Deputies is apportioned, one for every hundred thousand inhabitants. After various experiments between the election of each member from one district (*scrutin d'arrondissement*) and of all the deputies from a department upon a common ticket (*scrutin de liste*) or general ticket, the latter was accepted in 1919, combined with proportional representation. It was hoped thus to check the control which the local politicians and the prefects of the departments exercised, and by proportional representation to give to minorities more adequate representation.

The Senate is at present composed of 300 members elected by an indirect method for terms of nine years, one third retiring every three years. By the original constitution some seats were allotted to life members; but by the amendment of 1884 vacancies in life memberships were filled as they occur by election in the ordinary manner for the nine-year term. It was hoped that the Senate would serve as a balance wheel to the Chamber of Deputies, and to some extent that has been accomplished. Although the ministers are not responsible to the Senate, it has not sunk to the position of the British House of Lords, and still exercises considerable influence on legislation and administration.

The Assembly has full legislative power and when in joint session as the National Assembly may amend the constitution, without reference to the electorate.

The unit of local government in France is the commune, which varies in size. In the whole country there are 36,241 communes, each electing a municipal council, which council elects a mayor. A number of communes, twelve on an average, are grouped in a canton; several cantons make up a district, or *arrondissement* (Paris, however, is divided into 20 *arrondissements*); a group of *arrondissements* constitutes a department; and of these departments there were 87 before the recovery of Alsace-Lorraine.

Through all this gradation the strong hand of the central government is felt. Even the local mayor is its agent, and the prefect at the head of each department and the subprefect over every *arrondissement* are the powerful representatives of the executive branch. Paris itself has a mayor for each of its 20 *arrondissements*, while the place of mayor of the city is taken by the prefects of the Seine and of police.

This centralization of governmental power in a single national organization has prevailed in France, alike under monarchy, empire, and republic. The power of the people manifests itself in a frequent change of the head, whether by revolution or under constitutional forms, rather than by a distribution of authority among many individuals and bodies, as in the English-speaking nations.

Industry and Labor. France is an important agricultural country. Out of an area of 132,000,000 acres, 98,000,000 acres are cultivated, 24,000,000 are in forests, and only 9,500,000 are classed as moorland or uncultivated land. As in most other countries in modern times the ratio of agriculturists to those engaged in other industries is decreasing. In 1910 more than 5,000,000 people were engaged in manufactures, 375,000 in mining and metal work, and 500,000 in fisheries.

The soil of France is rich and of varied quality and produces readily all the vegetables, grains, and fruits of the north temperate zone. The more important crops as returned in 1913 were potatoes, wheat, oats, sugar beets, rye, and barley. The vineyards of France have always been famous and nearly 4,000,000 acres are devoted to the cultivation of the vine, which in 1914 produced 1,316,849,000 gallons of wine. Cider is also produced in large quantities. In addition the production of nuts, fruits, and particularly of olives is very important. Silk culture is encouraged by the government and is carried on in 24 departments. In 1913 there were 90,000 producers and the total value of the product was over 15,000,000 francs (about $3,000,000).

France possesses valuable metal deposits, and in 1913 produced 40,000,000 tons of coal and lignite and 21,000,000 tons of iron ore. In addition lead, silver, zinc, antimony, arsenic, and gold were produced in smaller amounts; and in 1913 the value of the output of the quarries amounted to $58,000,000.

The French manufactures are among the finest and most profitable in the world. The handiwork of the French has always been celebrated, and their skill and taste are shown in the manufacture of delicate machinery and beautiful articles. The industries of France are varied. Measured by the numbers of persons employed, the more important (apart from agriculture, mining, commerce, and transport) are the manufacture of clothing; the textile industries (manufacture of cotton, wool, lace, and silk goods, etc.); woodworking; manufacture of iron, metal, and leather goods; building; and baking.

The most important exports of the country are woolen, silk, and cotton goods, raw wool, raw silk, wine, Parisian goods, automobiles, skins, and furs. The industrial condition of France is a matter of constant concern to the government. The fact that four ministries of the government out of fourteen have to do with industrial questions shows the preëminent importance of industry in the consideration of the republic.

The general condition of the laborer in France has long been above that in any other country of Europe. Hence there was no exodus of French workingmen from their own country. The French laborer, though a peasant, is generally a small landowner. One of the beneficent results of the French Revolution was the breaking up of vast estates and the creation of more than 4,000,000 small holdings. The French laborer is generally contented and happy. If he be prosperous he has his own house and vineyard. He retains to a passionate degree his attachment to his own land and his devotion to France and his obstinate determination not to emigrate.

Religion. For ages France has usually stood by a policy of regarding the church as a national rather than an international institution. Kings of France maintained a Gallican church as against the claims of Rome to ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The church under the old régime was closely allied with the nobility and its privileges. Hence the Revolution attacked it, and for a time proscribed it. When France returned to a settled government, the church was restored. Even Napoleon found it expedient to make terms with the pope, by the Concordat of 1801. One of the watchwords of the restoration and reaction in 1815 was "to strengthen the altar and the throne."

After various fluctuations, the policy of France under the republic was to secularize the state, but to make a grant of funds to any sect numbering 100,000 adherents. The Roman Catholic Church, the Protestants both of the Reformed, or Calvinist, Church and of the Lutheran or Augsburg Confession, and the Jewish Religious Community all received these grants. By the law of 1905 all the communions were put upon the voluntary or self-supporting basis, the state paying no more stipends, except that clergy over 45 years of age, or who had served over 25 years, were to receive a grant for a time. Of late years the government has come into friendly relations with the papacy.

Education. The most important laws concerning education were those of 1881, when primary education was made free; and of 1882, when it was made compulsory between the ages of six and thirteen. Later laws have made it entirely secular: no religious instruction is given in the state schools, and all the teachers are appointed from the laity. Even private schools and tutors must be certified by the state. There were, in 1913, in France and Algeria more than 69,000 primary and higher schools, of which 57,000 were public and 12,000 private, with a total attendance of 5,669,000 pupils. The effect has been remarkable. Illiteracy has dropped from 25% to 4%, and in 1913 only 2% of the conscripts could neither read nor write. The annual cost of this primary education in 1913 was about 225,000,000 francs ($45,000,000).

Secondary education for boys is supplied in two types of schools, by the state in *lycées* and by the communes in *collèges*, both corresponding nearly to American high schools. The course extends for seven years. In 1913 there were 112 *lycées*, with over 62,000 pupils and 231 communal *collèges*, with over 37,000 pupils. For girls there were in 1914 52 *lycées*, with 14,000 pupils and 70 *collèges*, with 7,000 pupils. Higher education is provided for by the state in universities and special schools. A decree of 1885 created a general council of faculties and the creation of universities was accomplished in 1897. There are 14 faculties of law, 8 of medicine, 16 of sciences, 16 of letters. The state faculties confer the degrees. In addition professional and technical instruction is given in special courses, including admirable normal schools, and institutions for training teachers.

Defense. France has a coast line of 1,304 miles on the Atlantic and 456 on the Mediterranean. Before the World War its land frontier of 1,575 miles touched the borders of Belgium, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Spain. An army and navy and internal fortifications are a prime necessity to France. Paris is the center of defense, and along the boundaries is a belt of fortifications which up to 1914 were supposed to be formidable barriers, the most important line being Verdun, Toul, Épinal, and Belfort. This line was held against the Germans in the World War, Verdun being subjected to repeated attacks.

Military service in France is compulsory and universal, no exemptions being allowed except for physical disability. Liability for service extends from the twentieth to the forty-eighth year and involves active service in the army for three years, eleven years in the reserve, seven years in the territorial army and seven years in the territorial reserve. The active army is mobilized for training and maneuvers twice in the period of reserve service, for four weeks on each occasion. The peace establishment of the army in 1914 was 846,188. During the World War, however, more than 128,372 officers and 5,064,000 men were mobilized. The casualties were 1,385,300 dead, 2,675,000 wounded, and 446,000 prisoners or missing. No great army in history has ever made such a sacrifice of man power in the defense of its land.

The minister of marine has the supreme command of the navy. In 1919 the navy consisted of seven dreadnoughts, 13 predreadnoughts, numerous cruisers and gunboats, 80 destroyers, 153 torpedo boats, and over 100 submarines. The navy was not equal to the British in quality of ships. In the World War its service was almost wholly in the Mediterranean.

Area and Population. The area of continental France is 212,659 square miles and the population (1911) 41,475,523. These figures include the recovered provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, which have an area of 5,605 square miles and which in 1910 had a population of 1,874,014.

FRENCH COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.

France in the eighteenth century possessed a vast colonial empire. Almost the whole was transferred to Great Britain in 1763. Napoleon built up a great complex empire of subject and protected lands in Europe, and attempted to take over the Spanish American empire. All that was forfeited in 1814. In 1830 France began a third and successful drive for external territory; and in 1920 possesses 4,660,000 square miles with an estimated population of about 50,000,000. Algeria is not regarded as a colony, but as a part of France. Most of the colonies enjoy some measure of self-government and have elective councils to assist the government. The older colonies also have direct representation in the French legislature, usually by functionaries. The colonial empire is not self-supporting, and France in 1917 expended on it over 200,000,000 francs ($40,000,000), of which 190,000,000 francs was for military services.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

ALGERIA.

Algeria, like all northern Africa, was conquered by the Arabic Moslems in the seventh century. In the sixteenth century Khaireddin Pasha, the great admiral of Sultan Solyman I., imposed for a time the authority of the Ottoman Empire. This control was never more than nominal and was repudiated in 1705. Piracy was the chief occupation of the Algerines, as of their neighbors. Great Britain and other states paid protection money. The United States in 1801–1805 made war on the Algerines, who, however, soon returned to their evil practices. In 1815 Commodore Decatur with an American squadron punished them; and a joint British and Dutch squadron then destroyed the Algerine navy and a great part of the capital.

This ended the freebooting era. A little later came the French conquest by war lasting till 1847. Resistance continued until 1870, when France established a civil administration of the country.

Government. Algeria is considered a part of France, and each of the three departments into which it is divided sends one senator and two deputies to the National Assembly. A governor-general at Algiers represents the French government and exercises large authority. He is assisted by an advisory council. There is no other legislative authority for Algiers than the Assembly in Paris.

Industry and Labor. A small area of highly fertile land near the coast is cultivated scientifically, but the greater part of the country is of little value for agriculture. The northern portion is mountainous and better adapted to grazing and forestry. Some tropical fruits grow abundantly and the production of olive oil is an important industry. The cork oak is cultivated and, in 1916, 4,000 tons of cork were obtained. The chief exports are wine, sheep, wheat, wool, fruit, and tobacco.

Education. There are over a thousand primary schools, with 146,000 pupils, 16 secondary schools, and a university in the city of Algiers, besides numerous Moslem schools.

Religion. The native population is entirely Moslem. The French population is Roman Catholic, with the exception of about 60,000 Jews.

Defense. Before the World War the military force consisted of one army corps. French residents are under the same obligation to serve as in France, and natives are required to give three years' service under the colors and seven in the reserve.

The **area** of Algeria is about 222,180 square miles and its **population** (1911) 5,563,828.

TUNIS.

Tunis was long a vassal state of Turkey. As with Algiers, its main industry was piracy. In 1871 the Turkish sultan released the bey from payment of tribute. The French had long coveted the country, and in 1881 it was forcibly made a protectorate.

Government. The former reigning family still nominally occupies the throne, but the government is carried on by a special department of the French foreign office. The French minister resident is also the Tunisian minister of foreign affairs. For administrative purposes Tunis is divided into 19 civil and military districts, each under a French governor. The subordinate officials, however, are natives. An army of occupation of about 17,000 men is made up of a nucleus of French troops supported by native regiments. During the World War, 35,000 native troops served in Europe under the French colors.

Industry and Labor. In the north the mountains shelter fertile valleys, suitable for intensive cultivation and the raising of citrous fruits and olive trees. In the center the high table-lands afford pastures, while the south is famous for its oases and gardens and dates. The chief agricultural products are wheat, barley, and oats. In 1918 the wine yield was 14,000,000 gallons; olive oil, 3,000,000 gallons. The date crop for 1918 was estimated at 88,000,000 pounds. The important mines are of lead, zinc, iron, and manganese. The fisheries are valuable.

Religion and Education. The natives are Moslem; the foreigners, Roman Catholics and Jews. There are 287 public schools, 8 *lycées* and *collèges*, and 23 private schools, all together harboring 30,000 pupils. A Mohammedan university exists in the Great Mosque at Tunis, and there are numerous Moslem schools.

The **area** is about 50,000 square miles and the **population** (1914) is estimated at 1,940,000.

MOROCCO.

See Morocco, as a separate country, page 128.

FRENCH WEST AFRICA.

South of the western Sahara is a region belonging to France of about 1,682,000 square miles with a population (1917) of about 12,000,000. The historical nucleus of this region is the French colony of Senegal, which dates back nearly three centuries. The French occupation of this region was bitterly resisted by the natives. In 1904 French West Africa was reorganized and divided into Senegal, French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, Dahomey, the territories of Senegambia (now Upper Senegal-Niger), the Military Territory of the Niger, and the "Civilian Territory" of Mauretania.

Government. A governor-general, assisted by a council, has authority over all French West Africa. In each of the colonies there is a lieutenant governor under the direction of the governor-general.

Industry and Labor. In all the colonies this is of a similar character; — primitive agriculture in a rich region of spontaneous tropical products.

Religion. Throughout French West Africa Mohammedanism and the Negro faiths predominate, although there are many Christian missionaries.

Education. Schools are founded in large numbers by Catholic and Protestant missions under the French government. Everywhere the French have attempted to civilize and benefit the country by force while reaping the material advantages. Some progress has been made in the introduction of railroads, telegraphs and telephones, and highways.

Senegal is the most western part of Africa. For administrative purposes it is divided into four municipal communes, whose inhabitants are regarded as Frenchmen and elect one deputy to the French National Assembly, and about a score of districts in which the government exercises absolute authority and whose natives are not French citizens. The soil is generally sandy and the natives cultivate groundnuts, corn, and some rice. Other products are castor beans, gum, and rubber. The area is 74,000 square miles and the population 1,444,621.

French Guinea lies on the Atlantic coast between Portuguese Guinea and the British colony of Sierra Leone. The chief product is rubber. The area is 93,000 square miles and the population 1,812,000.

The Ivory Coast extends between Liberia and the British Gold Coast and reaches inland to the colony of Upper Senegal-Niger. There is an excellent harbor. The natives cultivate corn, plantains, and other fruits. In the inlands the mahogany forests are worked, and gold is found near Grand Bassam. Rubber is a valuable export. The area is about 125,000 sq. miles and the population 1,562,000.

Dahomey lies on the coast between Togoland and Nigeria. France obtained a footing in 1851 and annexed the kingdom in 1894. The colony has only seventy miles of coast, but spreads out as it extends inland. The natives are of pure Negro stock and are industrious agriculturists in the coast regions. The forests abound in coconut and oil palms which furnish the chief exports. The area is 39,000 square miles and the population 911,000.

The colony of **Upper Senegal-Niger** was founded in 1904. It includes more than two thirds of the course of the Niger and a large part of the Sahara. The chief exports are groundnuts, cattle, and rubber. The area is 473,273 square miles.

The colony of the **Upper Volta** was formed by a decree of March, 1919, from the southern section of Upper Senegal-Niger. It lies within the bend of the Niger and has an area of 95,000 square miles. The total population of the Upper Senegal-Niger and Upper Volta colonies is about 5,600,000.

The **Military Territory of the Niger** comprises that part of the Sahara to the east of the Niger and was established in 1904. It has an area of 533,000 square miles and a population of 850,000.

Mauretania, the western end of the Sahara, was formed into a protectorate in 1903, and in the following year established as a "Civilian Territory." It has an area of 344,967 square miles and a population of 256,000, mostly Moslem.

THE SAHARA.

This name is given to the enormous region extending from the Nile basin west to the Atlantic and south from the Mediterranean colonies. In 1898 Great Britain recognized this vast territory of over 1,500,000 square miles — half the size of the United States — as French. It contains numerous oases and some grazing country, but immense areas are sterile. The population of nomads has never been counted. For administrative purposes nearly all of the region is divided between Algeria and three of the colonies of French West Africa — Upper Senegal-Niger, Military Territory of the Niger, and Mauretania.

FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA (FRENCH CONGO).

French Equatorial Africa lies on the Atlantic coast, south of what was formerly the German Kamerun and of the territory of the Belgian Congo. French occupation began in 1841. This possession is divided into three colonies, each under a lieutenant governor, who in turn is under the governor-general for French Equatorial Africa.

Little has been done to develop the natural resources of forests and mines, but whale fisheries were started in 1912.

The **area** is about 672,000 square miles and the estimated **population** (1915) 9,000,000.

FRENCH SOMALI COAST.

French Somali Coast lies on the east coast of Africa between the Italian colony of Eritrea and British Somaliland. The country has scarcely any industries, but the coast fisheries and inland trade are important. In 1912, 11,000 tons of salt were exported. Many of the exports from Abyssinia pass through the colony. It has an area of about 5,790 square miles and an estimated population of 206,000.

MADAGASCAR.

Madagascar was claimed by the French on the basis of a grant of Louis XIII. to a French trading company, which the natives refused to recognize. Protestant missions had good success in the early nineteenth century. The French secured concessions from the different native chiefs; and at length, in 1885, after severe fighting, obtained control of the island. A formal protectorate was established in 1890; and in 1896 Madagascar was recognized as a French possession and the island and its dependencies declared a French colony.

Government. Madagascar is ruled by a French governor-general, assisted by a council of administration, but has no elective assembly, nor is it represented in the French National Assembly. Natives are employed to a large extent in subordinate positions, in both civil and military administration.

Industry and Labor. Madagascar is largely agricultural. The chief vegetable products are rice, sugar, coffee, vanilla, and rubber. The forests abound in valuable woods and there are profitable mines of graphite. Silk and cotton weaving and the manufacture of Panama hats are carried on. The chief exports are hides, rice, gold dust, and wax.

Religion and Education. The Christian population, under numerous missionary societies, is estimated at 450,000 Protestants and 50,000 Roman Catholics. The outlying tribes are still heathen. Education is nominally compulsory from 8 to 14 years of age and there are 745 official schools, with 76,000 pupils, and 432 private schools, with 43,000 pupils. The children are obliged to learn the French language.

Defense. In time of peace the troops in Madagascar consist of 2,411 Europeans and 6,376 natives. During the World War Madagascar sent to France a large contingent of native officers and men.

The **area** is estimated at 228,000 square miles and the **population** (1917) at 3,545,000.

Mayotta and the **Comoro Islands** are north of Madagascar, and are administered under the government of that island. Sugar cane and vanilla, spices and perfume plants are cultivated. The area is 790 sq. miles; the population (1914) about 96,000.

RÉUNION.

Réunion, or **Bourbon**, discovered by the Portuguese in 1545, occupied by the French in 1649, and conceded a French possession since 1767, is an island 420 miles east of Madagascar, controlled by a governor-general, with the assistance of a privy council and an elective council-general; it is represented in the French Assembly by two deputies and one senator. The annual rainfall is very high — 150 inches. Sugar, rum, coffee, tapioca, and vanilla and spices are the chief exports. The area is 970 square miles and the population (1912) 173,822.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

French India is made up of the petty fragment of the vast colonial empire which was attempted by Dupleix and broken to pieces by Clive in 1757. It comprises widely separated towns on the coast of India and is represented in the French Assembly by one senator and one deputy. Pondicherry is the most important of these towns and has a population of 47,000. The principal crops are paddy, groundnuts, and raggee. In 1917 there were over 50,000 acres of rubber trees, which produced over a million pounds. The total area is about 196 square miles and the estimated population (1918) 266,000.

FRENCH INDO-CHINA.

French Indo-China consists of five states, Cochin China, Cambodia, Annam, Tonkin, Laos, and the port of Kwangchow. The entire territory is under

Development of the Merchant Marine from the Earliest Phœnician Time.

[In part this picture is supplementary to the picture showing the development of the Navy, as the captain of the early Merchantman was compelled at times to defend his ship and goods from attack.]

1. The Pharos. Lighthouse at Alexandria, Egypt.
2. Egyptian River Boat. Source of reconstruction same as Egyptian Man-of-War.
3. Modern Chinese Junk.
4. Phœnician Fifty-Oared Boat. Oars at rest. Vase painting.
5. Greek Merchantman. Open in the middle, showing cabin at bow and stern.
6. Viking Trader. Covered cabin around mast. Decoration on sail Odin's eight-legged horse.
7. The Colossus of Rhodes. (Statue of Apollo) in the distance. Used as a lighthouse. Inserted here to correct the common error, for which there is no authority, that the figure was placed *astride* the entrance to the harbor. It was *beside* the harbor and was one hundred and five feet high, above a lofty pedestal.
8. French Merchantman. Fourteenth century.
9. Hanseatic Merchantman (Kogge). Fourteenth Century. Basket beacon on headland.
10. Venetian Galley.
11. The "Santa María." Flagship of Admiral Christopher Columbus. Decoration on sail F(erdinand) Y(sabell), with the crown and coat of arms of Castile and León between the letters.
12. The "Mayflower." Conveyed Pilgrim Fathers to Plymouth, Mass.
13. American Clipper Ship.
14. The "Clermont." Built by Fulton and used on the Hudson River.
15. The "Savannah." First steamship to cross the Atlantic ocean. The paddle wheels were so arranged as to enable the captain to unship them when the wind was fair.
16. An Ohio or Mississippi River Steamboat. Flat bottom and stern wheel.
17. Modern Five-Masted Steel-Built Sailing Vessel. Sails hoisted by steam.
18. A Long Island Sound Boat.
19. Grain Elevator. Loading a whaleback.
20. A Whaleback. Latest type of freight carrying steamboat.
21. An Ocean Greyhound. Latest type of ocean passenger and freight steamship.

E FROM THE EARLIEST PHŒNICIAN TIME.

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a governor-general, assisted by a secretary-general. Each of the states has a resident-superior, except Cochin China, which, being a French colony, has a governor. The area is about 256,000 square miles and the population (1914) was nearly 17,000,000.

Cochin China. The chief occupation is rice culture. River and coast fishing is also extensively carried on. As a French colony it sends one deputy to the French Assembly. The capital is Saigon, which possesses wharves, repair and dry docks, and a navy yard which makes it one of the important ports in Asia. The estimated area is 20,000 square miles and the population 3,000,000.

Cambodia is north of Cochin China. The chief products are rice, betel, tobacco, and indigo. Pepper is an important article of export, and the growing of cotton is increasing. The province contains amazing ruins of vast temple-cities built by an unknown race. The area is 45,000 square miles and the population 1,634,000.

Annam lies northeast of Cochin China and Cambodia. The French occupation began in 1787 and the protectorate was established in 1884. Mines of iron, copper, zinc, gold, and coal are worked. Sugar, rice, spices, cotton, and silk are produced and exported. The area is 52,100 square miles and the population 5,200,000.

Tonkin was annexed to France in 1884. It is situated south of the Chinese Empire and north of Siam and Annam. Since 1902 its chief town, Hanoi, has been the capital of French Indo-China instead of Saigon. There is a school of medicine for natives, which united in 1917 with the European college into the University of Indo-China. The chief crop is rice, but much silk is raised, which is woven by the natives. Maize, animal products, sugar, cardamoms, cotton, coffee, and tobacco are also exported. The area is 46,100 square miles and the population 6,119,720.

Laos has been a French protectorate since 1893. The soil is very fertile, producing rice, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and fruits, and vast teak forests from which the logs are floated down to Saigon. Gold, tin, lead, and precious stones are also found. The natives, however, are so opposed to foreigners that for commercial purposes the country is almost inaccessible. The area is 98,000 square miles and the population 640,877.

Kwangchow was leased from China in 1898 as an offset to the Russian, German, and English annexations in the north. It is a valuable seaport, lying on the China Sea, but is little used at present. It is under the authority of the governor-general of Indo-China. The area is 190 square miles and the population 168,000.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.

French Guiana lies between Dutch Guiana and Brazil. It is the only French possession on the mainland in the Western Hemisphere, and was first occupied by the French in 1604. Since 1855 Guiana has been a penal settlement for habitual criminals, and the penal population numbers over 4,000. On the île du Diable, Captain Dreyfus was confined from 1895 to 1899. There is little agriculture in the colony, and the most important industry is gold mining. Silver, iron, and phosphates are also found. The area is about 32,000 square miles and the population (1911) about 49,000.

Martinique is one of the West Indies. It was settled in 1635 by the French, who soon exterminated the natives. It has twice been taken by the British during wars, but restored at the conclusion of peace. It is represented in the French Assembly by one senator and two deputies. Sugar, rum, and cocoa are the chief productions, after which come tobacco, coffee, and cotton. The island has suffered terribly from tornadoes and earthquakes, notably twice in 1902 from eruptions of Mont Pelée. The area is 385 square miles and the population (1916) 193,087.

Guadeloupe is the name commonly given to two closely adjacent islands (Guadeloupe proper and Grande-Terre) in the West Indies. Dependent on it are the five smaller islands of Marie-Galante, Les Saintes, Désirade, Saint-Barthélemy, and Saint-Martin. Guadeloupe was occupied by the French in 1635; they lost it several times in war, but always regained it when peace was made. It is represented in the French Assembly by one senator and two deputies. The chief products are sugar, coffee, and cacao. The total area is 722 square miles and the population (1912) 212,430.

Saint-Pierre and Miquelon, each the largest of a small group of islands, with an area altogether of 93 square miles and a population of 4,652, are the last remnant of the once magnificent colony of New France. They lie in the north Atlantic, south of and near the coast of Newfoundland. The islands are hardly more than bare rocks. The catching and drying of fish is the sole occupation.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN THE PACIFIC.

New Caledonia is an island lying east of Australia, with an area of 7,650 square miles and a population (1911) of 50,000, 5,671 of whom were of convict origin and 28,000 black. The transportation of convicts to New Caledonia was discontinued in 1898. The chief agricultural products are coffee, copra, and cotton. Attention is being given to local industries, such as grain storage and meat-preserving works; and furnaces for smelting nickel ore have been erected. Valuable mines exist of nickel and chromium ores.

Five groups of islands are dependent upon New Caledonia, with a total area of about 898 square miles and a population of less than 7,000. Of these the Loyalty Islands are perhaps the most important.

The New Hebrides, situated northeast of New Caledonia, are under a joint Anglo-French commission of naval officers. The area is about 5,000 square miles and the population about 50,000. Most of the natives are Papuans, formerly cannibals, but converted by the missionaries. Corn, copra, coffee, and kauri wood are exported.

FRENCH ESTABLISHMENTS IN OCEANIA.

Scattered in the eastern Pacific are a number of island groups belonging to France. **Society Islands, Marquesas Islands, the Tuamotu Archipelago, the Leeward Islands, the Gambier, Tubuai, and Rapa Islands.** The entire area is about 1,544 square miles and the population was supposed to number (1911) 30,600. In 1903 these various islands were united to form a single colony under a governor.

The Society Islands were discovered in 1606 by Spanish navigators, were several times visited by Captain Cook, but were claimed by no one till France annexed them in 1880. Tahiti is the largest and most important of the group. All the natives are Christians, and practically all can read and write. Tropical fruits are raised in abundance, and the chief exports are copra, mother-of-pearl, vanilla, cocoanuts, and oranges.

Chronology — France and French Possessions.

For earlier events, see Medieval Period and Early Modern Period, *Chronology.*
For French in America and India, see Canada and India.

1648. France takes part in the proceedings leading to the **Peace of Westphalia.** The kingdom is still imperfectly organized. The Huguenots have a legal status as a privileged religious community. The country is drawn into conflicts in Germany by rivalry with Austria; and in Italy by rivalry with Spain. A child is on the throne.
Civil wars of the Fronde distract France; an insurrection occurs in Paris against **Mazarin,** and the faction of the people and of the Parliament constructs barricades, August 27, Normandy and Provence revolt.

1649. *March.* **Peace of Rueil** ends first war of the Fronde and quiets Paris.

1650. Leaders of the opposition to the French court, Condé and Conti, and the Duke of Longueville, are seized and imprisoned by the direction of Mazarin. Revolt in south. Spaniards approach Paris from the north.

1650–1680. Exploration of the upper waters of the St. Lawrence and enlargement of settlements in Acadia and Canada (see Canada).

1652. The Fronde makes another campaign, but the faction, overcome by the forces of Turenne, collapses; Condé goes over to the service of Spain.

1653. End of the Fronde; nobles discredited.

1659. **Peace of the Pyrenees** ends the war with Spain, which began in 1635 (England having joined France in 1657 receives Dunkirk. See Great Britain). France receives a portion of the Spanish Netherlands and Roussillon.

1660. Louis XIV. marries Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain.

1661. *March 9.* Cardinal Mazarin dies.
Louis XIV takes control of the government.

1662. Colbert is controller-general of finances.

1664. French **East India Company** is established.

1666. French **Academy of Sciences** is founded.

1667. War begins in Spain for Netherlands. Louis XIV. claims sovereignty of Spain through his wife, though contrary to Salic law, and begins series of **wars which ruin France.**

1668. **Triple Alliance** formed by England, Holland, and Sweden **against France.** Louis occupies Franche-Comté. **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle** ends the struggle; France yields Franche-Comté to Spain; concessions are made in the Netherlands to France.

1670. Louis XIV. makes a **secret treaty with Charles II.** of England, and then occupies Lorraine.

1672. England joins France in a declaration of **war against Holland.** Brandenburg and Spain come to the aid of Holland. Brandenburg withdraws (1673), but France loses in Holland.

1674. French once more occupy Franche-Comté, whereupon **German Empire declares war.** An army under Turenne lays waste the Palatinate and triumphs over the German forces sent to meet it.

1675. Turenne gains the decisive **battle of Turkheim.**

1676. *April.* Dutch and Spanish fleet is overcome by Duquesne off coast of Sicily.

1677. *April.* **William of Orange is defeated** in Flanders and Freiburg is captured by the French.

1678–1679. Treaties of peace signed at Nimwegen (Nijmegen) by which France obtains Franche-Comté and a part of Flanders. Right of France to Alsace is confirmed. (See Early Modern Period.)

1681. Louis occupies Strassburg and attempts to take Luxemburg.

1682. Declaration of the French clergy, drawn by **Bossuet,** and signed by the king, makes a bold affirmation of the **liberties of the Gallican Church.** [tack is repeated.
French fleet bombards Algiers, and in 1683 the at-
Discovery of the lower Mississippi (Louisiana) by La Salle; foundation of claim to the whole Mississippi Basin (see United States).

1683. Louis makes an **invasion** of the **Spanish Netherlands,** and in the following year obtains the mastery of Luxemburg.

1684. Extraordinary efforts to convert Huguenots: persecution ("the dragonnades") follows, due mainly to the influence of the king's bigoted mistress, Madame de **Maintenon.**

1685. The king **revokes the Edict of Nantes;** 300,000 Huguenots leave France to escape the violence of their enemies, going to Holland, England, Brandenburg, and America.

1688. Louis XIV. claims the **Palatinate,** which in October is **devastated** by his troops. Cruelties arouse the Germans.

1689. **Louis declares war** against **England** and the **Grand Alliance** of Germany, Sweden, Spain, Savoy, and Holland. (See *Grand Alliance,* under Grand, *a.*, in the *Dictionary.*)

1690. *July 12.* A body of French troops, sent with James to Ireland, is **routed at the Boyne.**

1692. Allied Dutch and English defeat French off the fort of **La Hogue,** thus taking control of sea from the French.

1697. *Sept. 20.* Louis is compelled to sign the **Treaty of Ryswick** (Rijswijk). He yields the larger part of his conquests, and officially recognizes William of Orange as the English sovereign.
Oct. 30. Peace with the Empire, by which Louis retains Alsace, including Strassburg.

1699. Settlement of **Louisiana** begins at Biloxi.

1700. Charles II. of Spain dies on November 1, having named as his heir **Philip of Anjou,** grandson of Louis XIV. The other powers object to the sovereignty of Philip.

1701. England, Holland, Germany, and Austria form the **Grand Alliance against France** (see *Grand Alliance,* under Grand, *a.*, in the *Dictionary*); France declares in favor of James, the Pretender, son of James II., for the English throne.
War of the Spanish Succession follows; in America called **Queen Anne's War** (see United States).
Prince Eugene, imperial commander, at first successful over the French, but his victorious career is soon checked.

1702. An insurrection among the Protestants of the Cévennes, known as the **War of the Camisards;** suppressed by 1705 after much fighting.

1704. *Aug. 13.* English under Marlborough with the forces of Prince Eugene defeat the French at **Blenheim.** Louis loses Bavaria.

1706. *May 23.* Marlborough defeats Villeroi at **Ramillies;** the Spanish Netherlands are lost to France. Allies invade France and lay siege to Toulon. Conquests of France in Italy given up.

1707. *March.* French fleet dispatched to enforce the claims of the Pretender James; it is cut off by the English.

1708. *July 11.* Allied armies of Marlborough and Prince Eugene overcome the French at **Oudenarde;** Lille is captured.

1709. *Sept. 11.* Villars leads the French to a battle with the allies at **Malplaquet;** French retreat.

1710. In Spain, Charles of Austria has been placed on the throne by the allies; the Duke of Vendôme defeats Charles and restores the crown to Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis.

1711. *April 11.* Emperor Joseph dies. Charles now heir of *all* Hapsburg possessions. **Grand Alliance dissolves,** and allies favor Philip as against Charles in Spain.
August. Fall of Whig ministry in Great Britain brings in the peace party, enemies of Marlborough.

1713. *April 11.* General treaty of **peace** is signed at **Utrecht.** Louis renounces all claims to the crown of Spain, and declares that he will no longer aid the Pretender in his claims to the British throne; he closes the harbor of Dunkirk, and signs a treaty for the regulation of commerce with Great Britain and Holland.
France cedes Acadia (Nova Scotia) and claims to Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay region to Great Britain. Beginning of loss by the French of their American colonial empire.

1714. Germany continues war; but Eugene loses and the Emperor makes **peace at Rastatt,** March 7.

1715. *Sept. 1.* **Louis XIV. dies; Louis XV.,** his great-grandson, **succeeds** to the throne, with Philip, duke of Orléans, as regent.

1716. **John Law** establishes his **bank** in Paris under the protection of the regent, by which the national debt is to be paid off. The shares rise to a value twenty times that of all the specie current in France in 1719; the scheme collapses in 1720 and causes general bankruptcy. (See MISSISSIPPI SCHEME *or* BUBBLE, in the *Dictionary.*)

1717. **Triple Alliance** is formed by France, Great Britain, and Holland against the intrigues of Peter of Russia, Charles XII. of Sweden, and Spain.

1718. Spain invades Sicily; as a result, France, Great Britain, Holland, and Austria form a **Quadruple Alliance,** and the fleet of Spain is defeated off Cape Passaro.

New Orleans founded; it becomes the capital of Louisiana.

1719. French under Berwick make an attack on Spain (see SPAIN).

1723. Duke of Orléans, the regent, dies, and the Duke of Bourbon becomes prime minister.

1725. Louis angers Philip of Spain by marrying a daughter of the king of Poland.

1726. **Fleury** takes the conduct of affairs and introduces a policy of caution, by which, in 1729, the **Treaty of Seville** is made with Spain and England.

1733. Louis engages in the **War of the Polish Succession** against Russia and Austria, to restore his father-in-law in Poland.

1735. Spain and Sardinia join France; the theater of war is Germany and Italy.

By a preliminary **treaty signed at Vienna** Augustus III. is recognized as king of Poland, but Stanislas is granted the duchy of Lorraine; Lorraine is to pass to France on his death.

1738. *November.* By the **Treaty of Vienna,** the provisions of the preliminary treaty are confirmed. France guarantees the **pragmatic sanction.**

1741. France joins other powers, in violation of pragmatic sanction, to wrest territory from Maria Theresa of Austria.

War of the Austrian Succession. French and Saxons take Bavaria and Bohemia for a time.

1742. Army under Belle-Isle forced to withdraw from Prague.

1743. *June 27.* British defeat the French under Noailles at Dettingen.

1744. Prussians renew war in Austria.

1745. *May 11.* Saxe defeats the allied British, Hanoverians, Dutch, and Austrians at **Fontenoy.**

1746. *Oct. 11.* After conquering the chief towns of the Austrian Netherlands, Saxe again routs the allies at **Rocourt** (Rancoux).

1747. British twice triumph over the French fleet off Cape Finisterre, and off Belle-Île-en-Mer.

1748. *May 7.* Maastricht captured by Saxe and the war ends with the **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.** October 18, all conquests restored. General result of the war to France is loss of prestige without territorial advantage.

1751. Formal outbreak of **French and Indian War** caused by rival claims of France and Great Britain to the Ohio country. (See UNITED STATES.)

1756. *May.* As the result of a diplomatic revolution France forms an **alliance with Austria** against Frederick the Great of Prussia, at Versailles. **Seven Years' War** begins, with Prussia, Great Britain, and some of the smaller German states arrayed against France, Saxony, Russia, Sweden, and at a later date, Spain.

June. French capture island of Minorca.

1757. *June 23.* Downfall of French power in India assured by Clive's victory at the **battle of Plassey** (see *India,* under BRITISH EMPIRE).

Nov. 5. Frederick II. routs French and Imperialists at **Rossbach.**

1758. French driven from Hanover by Ferdinand of Brunswick, and beaten by him at Krefeld, June 23.

1759. **French** again **routed** by Ferdinand, at Minden, August 1. British take Guadeloupe from France. In America, the French yield. Wolfe invades Canada, and **Quebec** is taken September 12.

1760. British under Clive destroy **French** power in **India.** Conquest of **Canada** completed by the British.

1761. *August.* Belle-Île-en-Mer taken by the British. August 15, family compact between the Bourbon princes of France and Spain negotiated by Choiseul. (See FAMILY COMPACT, in the *Dictionary.*)

1762. *Nov. 3.* Conquest of Martinique by the British.

1763. *Feb. 10.* **Peace of Paris** signed by Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal. Canada, territory east of the Mississippi, and islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago are ceded to Great Britain; and western Louisiana to Spain. France receives Martinique, Guadeloupe, Santa Lucia, Pondicherry, and Gorée, while yielding to England Minorca and the Senegal settlement.

1764. By the suggestion of Choiseul, and after a decision against it by the Parliament of Paris in 1762, the king orders the **suppression** of the order **of the Jesuits** in France.

1766. By the death of Stanislas Leszczynski **Lorraine reverts to France.** (Cf. 1735, above.)

1768. Corsica is ceded to France by Genoa.

1770. Dauphin of France, later **Louis XVI.,** marries **Marie Antoinette** of Austria.

1774. *May 10.* **Louis XV.** dies; succeeded by his grandson, **Louis XVI.** Maurepas becomes minister of state and Turgot minister of finance.

1777. The king appoints Necker minister of finance. **France in financial straits.**

1778. *Feb. 6.* **France recognizes** the independence of the **United States,** and concludes treaties of alliance and commerce.

July 10. War is declared against Great Britain (see UNITED STATES).

1779. **French** fleet, aided by the Spanish, undertakes a **blockade** of **Gibraltar.**

1781. Necker resigns, and publishes the facts about the desperate state of the public finances.

1782. *Sept. 13.* Great bombardment of Gibraltar fails to force a surrender.

1783. *Sept. 3.* **Peace of Versailles and Paris** by France, Great Britain, the United States, and Spain; Great Britain recognizes the independence of the United States and cedes Tobago and Senegal to France.

1787. Assembly of notables and **Parliament of Paris** demand the calling of the States-General. Calonne, favorite of the queen, minister of finance, shows reckless extravagance.

1788. Necker restored to office.

1789. **Crisis in** history of **France** — social economic, and political. *Ancien régime* is worn out. **France,** a rich and intelligent country, is **crushed** by clumsy and unequal taxation and by feudal obligations. Privileges no longer correspond to conditions. Much of the peasantry and town population is in misery. Ideas of republican virtue and democratic government spread through study of weak Roman republics and ideas of the social contract (see in *Dict.*) as a basis of government. Success of the American Revolution increases the pressure.

May 5. The **States-General** meets at Versailles. Deputies of the Third Estate, or the people, in distinction from the nobility and the clergy, constitute themselves the **National Assembly.**

June 17. Numbers of the nobility and clergy become identified with this body. June 20, "Oath of the Tennis Court" not to separate without reform. King orders the dissolution of the body, but the Assembly, under the guidance of Mirabeau, refuses obedience June 23. June 27, the two upper orders join the Third Estate by command of King Louis. July 11, Necker is dismissed; the national guard is formed.

These measures fail to check the revolution; July 14, the mobs **storm the Bastille** and destroy it. July 15, **Lafayette** is made commander of the national guard. The nobles begin to flee from the dangers of the insurrection. The king recalls Necker to office. Uprisings of peasants in the provinces destroy feudal system.

Aug. 4. Assembly abolishes all the rights and privileges known as feudal. August 27, **Declaration of the Rights of Man** is adopted. September, Assembly decrees that the legislative power shall be vested in a single chamber of deputies; in the following month Louis accepts the decree of the Assembly.

Oct. 5. People of Paris, in insurrection, march to Versailles. Assembly, with the king, forced to remove to Paris.

November. It is decreed that church property be confiscated for the uses of the state.

1790. *January.* France is divided into departments, thus breaking up the old provinces and unifying government. In February, the **law of primogeniture** in connection with inheritance is **repealed.** In June, all **titles** and other formal usages of the aristocracy are **abolished.** July 12, the constitution of the clergy is made secular and, July 14, a festival in celebration of the federation occurs in Paris. September, Necker is dismissed. An issue of **assignats,** or paper money based on the land confiscated from the church, follows.

1791. *June 20.* King and his family make an attempt to **escape from France;** they are intercepted at Varennes, and forced to return.

August. Declaration of Pillnitz by Austria and Prussia.

Sept. 3. Assembly completes the **constitution.** September 14, the king makes oath of loyalty to its provisions. In this month the Assembly also decrees the incorporation of Avignon and Venaissin with France.

Sept. 30. National Assembly ends; none of its members eligible for the new Legislative Assembly, which convenes on October 1.

Insurrection occurs in Haiti; the Negro slaves and mulattoes arm against the whites, following the revocation of the decree of May 15 granting citizenship.

1792. *February.* Property of the "emigrants" (*émigrés*) confiscated. In March, Louis XVI. forms a Girondist ministry. April 20, the king is compelled to make a **declaration of war against Austria,** and the forces of France and Austria engage in Flanders. Anstria joined by Prussia, other German states, and Sardinia; the Duke of Brunswick issues a threatening manifesto, July 25.

Aug. 10. Municipal government of Paris forms an insurrectionary commune; the mobs attack the Tnileries and **massacre the Swiss Guard.** Three days later the royal family is imprisoned.

Aug. 17. A Revolutionary Tribunal established by the **Jacobins,** who are now in control of the Assembly.

August. Army of Prussians and Austrians invades France. A Royalist rising takes place in the western part of France; it soon fails. In September, the French take possession of Chambéry and Nice. September 20, Kellermann, at the head of the French army, gains a victory at Valmy. Custine leads a triumphant advance into Germany in September and October. November 6, Austrians are beaten by Dumouriez at **Jemappes,** and the French occupy Belgium. Nice and Savoy are annexed in November.

Sept. 2. **Prison massacres** in Paris begin.

Sept. 21. National Convention replaces the Legislative Assembly, and the next day the Year One of the new French **Republican era begins.**

Dec. 11. King Louis XVI. placed on trial by the revolutionists; he is convicted.

1793. **Blacks** of Haiti are **declared free** by the French commissioners.

Jan. 21. The **king is put to death.** Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, the German Empire, Spain, Naples, and Holland, with other lesser states, at once form a **coalition against France.**

March. Revolutionists establish a new Tribunal of Justice; Danton, Marat, and Robespierre institute the **Reign of Terror.** A powerful Royalist rising occurs in the Vendée.

March 18. Dumouriez routed by the Austrians. He deserts to the enemy, and France loses Belgium. April, a force from Spain makes a campaign in Roussillon. [tuted.

April 6. **Committee of Public Safety** insti-

April 8. **Genest** arrives in the United States as French minister, expecting sympathy and aid. He is confronted by President Washington's declaration of neutrality and fails in his purpose (see UNITED STATES). Naval war with England involves neutrality of the United States and causes anti-French feeling.

May. Revolt breaks out in Corsica.

June 2. **Girondists** fall from power. June 9–10, Royalists in the Vendée win victories at Saumur. July 13, **Marat assassinated** by Charlotte Corday.

Aug. 27. British force Toulon to capitulate.

Sept. 27. Convention enacts the **law of the suspected.** October 5, **Revolutionary calendar** (see in *Dict.*) prepared by Romme instituted. Convention forces defeat the Royalists in the south. October, Carrier commits the atrocities at Nantes called the **noyades** (see in the *Dict.*).

Oct. 15–16. Austrians routed by Jourdan at Wattignies.

Oct. 18. **Marie Antoinette executed;** on October 31 the **Girondists,** and on November 6, Philippe Égalité (Orléans), of the royal house, suffer the **same fate.** November 10, **worship of Reason** instituted by a decree of the Convention. December, Royalists of the Vendée are overcome.

Dec. 19. Toulon taken from the British. In this engagement **Napoleon Bonaparte** commands the artillery.

1794. *April 6.* Danton, Camille Desmoulins, and associates are put to death by the extremists, headed by Robespierre. [second time.

June. Belgium conquered by the French a

July 27. **Robespierre falls** from power and **Reign of Terror ends.** July 28, he and his companions are executed.

August. Jourdan wins on the Rhine and Pichegru invades Holland. [Convention.

1795. *April 1.* Insurrection in Paris against the

April 5. **Peace of Basel** with Prussia. German territories on the west side of the Rhine left in the possession of France.

May 20. Second rising against the Convention occurs in Paris. October 5, Royalists aronse the mob of Paris ("Day of the Sections"); but the Convention is protected, by **Napoleon Bonaparte,** who **restores order.**

July 22. Spain and France make peace at Basel; Santo Domingo ceded to France.

Aug. 22. **Constitution of the Year III.** formally adopted. It provides for a directorate of five members; practically an absolute government based on military support, although having a nominal Parliament of two houses.

September. Invasion of Germany by Jourdan and Pichegru.

Oct. 26. Convention closes its sessions. Oct. 28, Council of Ancients and Council of Five Hundred hold their first session. Nov. 1, **Directory** established. **Institute of France** founded.

1796. **Napoleon Bonaparte** is put in command of the **Army of Italy;** repeated defeats of the Austrians and Sardinians, especially at **Lodi.** May 15, Milan occupied. Jourdan and Moreau conquer southeastern Germany; but Archduke Charles of Austria drives both back to the Rhine in August and September. Bonaparte continues his triumphs over the Austrians at **Lonato** (August 3) and **Castiglione delle Stiviere** (August 5) and **Rovereto** (September 3–4).

October. Spain declares war with England, while Ferdinand IV. of Naples makes peace with France. In November, Moreau makes a skillful retreat from the Rhine, and Bonaparte overwhelms the Austrians at **Areole** (November 15–17). In December, France sends an expedition to Ireland without effect.

1797. *Jan. 14.* Bonaparte beats Austrians at **Rivoli Veronese;** in February, he takes **Mantua** and makes agreement with the pope; forces Austrians to accept preliminaries of Leoben, April 18.

Sept. 4. Majority of the Directory execute a *coup d'état* over the Royalist section of that body.

Oct. 17. **Peace of Campoformido** signed between France and Austria, by which Austria gives up her possessions in Belgium and Lombardy, but receives a large part of the Venetian dominions. France receives the Ionian Islands.

December. Bonaparte returns to Paris.

1797–1798. XYZ Mission and a naval war with United States (see UNITED STATES).

1798. *February.* French occupy Rome, and the **Roman Republic** is proclaimed.

April. Switzerland is revolutionized and the **Helvetic Republic** constituted, Geneva being added to France.

May. Bonaparte sets out on an **expedition to Egypt.** In June, he dispossesses the Knights of St. John and occupies Malta. Reaching Egypt, he overcomes the Mamelukes in the battle of the Pyramids, July 21. August 1–2, French fleet destroyed by Nelson, in battle of the Nile (see BRITISH EMPIRE; also *Egypt*, under BRITISH EMPIRE).

December. **Second coalition** formed against France by Russia, Austria, Great Britain, Portugal, Naples, and Turkey.

1799. *January.* Naples reduced by the French. In March, Russians and Turks seize the Ionian Islands. In April, Russians and Austrians overwhelm Moreau in northern Italy. Ferdinand of Naples is restored.

Aug. 22. **Bonaparte,** after an unsuccessful campaign in Syria, **returns alone to France.**

Nov. 9. A *coup d'état* against the Directory undertaken by Bonaparte.

Nov. 10. Council of Five Hundred dispersed by force. December 24, **Consulate proclaimed,** the three members being Napoleon, Cambacérès, and Lebrun; **Bonaparte First Consul.**

1800. *May.* Bonaparte leads his forces over the Great St. Bernard. June 14, Austrians defeated by him at **Marengo.** In September, Malta falls into the hands of the British.

Oct. 1. Spain secretly retrocedes Louisiana to France as a part of a vast project for renewing the French colonial empire.

Dec. 3. Austrians under Archduke John defeated by Moreau at **Hohenlinden.**

1801. *Feb. 9.* **Austria** makes **peace** at **Lunéville.** All of Germany west of the Rhine yielded to France. German princes are promised indemnification east of the Rhine (see GERMANY).

March 21. **Treaty of Madrid** with Spain. Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla apportioned to France, in return Tuscany to become the kingdom of Etruria under son of Duke of Parma. July 15, Bonaparte concludes a concordat with Pope Pius VII.; **Catholic worship restored** in France, under the control of the state.

September. **France** is **forced to withdraw from Egypt,** and a preliminary treaty of peace with Great Britain is promulgated in October, when, also, a treaty with Russia is made. Bonaparte sends an expedition under Leclerc to subdue **Toussaint l'Ouverture,** leader of the revolted blacks **in Haiti,** who is captured and imprisoned in France.

1802. **Legion of Honor** instituted by Bonaparte. Cisalpine Republic reconstituted: **Bonaparte** becomes **president** of the **Italian Republic.**

March 27. **Peace of Amiens** between France, Spain, and the Batavian Republic on the one part and Great Britain on the other. Great Britain recognizes the changes in the governmental structure of Europe that have been wrought by France. In June, a treaty of peace is made with Turkey.

Aug. 2. **Napoleon** is declared **Consul for life.** In September, Piedmont is united to France.

1803. *Jan. 1.* Bonaparte threatens war on Great Britain because of retention of Malta.

Feb. 19. Bonaparte reorganizes the Swiss confederacy. In May, **Great Britain** again **declares war.** Hanover is occupied by the French a month later. In **Haiti** the **blacks** succeed in **driving out the French** from the island.

April 30. Treaty for **cession** of the whole of **Louisiana** to the United States for $15,000,000, caused by Bonaparte's failure to reoccupy Haiti and the renewal of naval war (see UNITED STATES).

1804. Napoleon plants an army at Boulogne and prepares to cross the Channel if his fleet can hold off the British fleet.

February–March. **Conspiracy against Bonaparte** discovered in France.

March 21. Civil code of the French (**Code Napoléon**) published.

Napoleon executes the Duke of Enghien, a Bourbon prince, seized in German territory.

May 18. **Napoleon** proclaimed hereditary **emperor of the French.** December 2, Pope Pius VII. officiates at the coronation of Napoleon and Josephine in Paris. [**of Italy.**

1805. *March.* **Napoleon** proclaims himself **king** Great Britain, Austria, Sweden, and Russia make an **alliance against France,** but the states of southern Germany take the side of Napoleon. In June, France annexes the Ligurian Republic. September, Bavaria invaded by the Austrians, and the French cross the Rhine. October 17, Austrian army of Mack surrenders at Ulm.

Oct. 21. Combined French and Spanish fleet decisively beaten at **Trafalgar** by Nelson, who is killed in action. This victory ends all danger of an invasion of Great Britain.

Nov. 13. Vienna occupied by Murat. December 2, Napoleon at **Austerlitz** defeats the combined armies of Austria and Russia, commanded by the two sovereigns, Francis and Alexander.

Dec. 15. Convention with Prussia at Schönbrunn by which that nation cedes Ansbach, Bayreuth, Cleves, and Neuchâtel, but is promised Hanover.

Dec. 26. **Peace of Pressburg** signed by France and Austria. Austria yields up her Venetian territories to the Italian kingdom; Bavaria receives the Tyrol, Augsburg, and part of Swabia; Baden and Württemberg are enlarged; Austria receives Salzburg.

1806. Napoleon agrees to the Confederation of the Rhine, including much of western Germany, thus practically **destroying the Holy Roman Empire.** Emperor Francis abdicates title of Holy Roman Emperor. Maximilian I. of Bavaria and Frederick I. of Württemberg are made kings.

Napoleon makes war on Prussia, which relies on the military system of Frederick the Great. October 14, decisive defeat of Prussian army at **Jena.** Western part of kingdom collapses and Napoleon enters Berlin.

Nov. 21. **Berlin decree** against neutral commerce; very unfavorable to the United States. Part of the **Continental system** of defeating Great Britain by boycotting British trade. Napoleon insists that his dependencies and allies shall accept the system (see UNITED STATES).

1807. *Feb. 7–8.* Allied Prussians and Russians meet the French in **battle of Eylau;** indecisive. May 26, French capture Danzig. June 14, Napoleon triumphs over the Russians at **Friedland.** Napoleon and Alexander thereupon meet for a conference on a raft on the Niemen, and the outcome is the **Treaty of Tilsit,** July 7. Prussia, July 9, agrees to the terms of peace, gives up her territories west of the Elbe and dominions in Poland, from which Napoleon forms the duchy of Warsaw, which he confers on Frederick Augustus of Saxony. August, Napoleon creates the kingdom of **Westphalia,** of which his brother, Jérôme, is declared king. Napoleon now seizes the possessions of the Swedes in Germany.

Sept. 2–5. Second bombardment of Copenhagen by the British.

November. Junot invades Portugal; Portuguese court leaves the kingdom (see BRAZIL). December, Napoleon takes possession of the kingdom of Etruria, and, December 17, issues the **Milan decree,** still further pushing illegal seizures of neutral trade.

1808. *February.* French occupy Rome. March 25, **Murat marches into Madrid.** April, Napoleon adds the Papal States to his Italian kingdom.

May. Ferdinand VII. and his recently abdicated father, Charles IV. of Spain, meet Napoleon at Bayonne and are forced to renounce their claims to the Spanish throne. June 6, Napoleon's brother, **Joseph,** proclaimed **king of Spain.** In July the Spaniards cut off and capture French army at Bailén. British army under **Wellesley,** later Duke of Wellington, begins a campaign against the French in Portugal, and compels Junot to evacuate that country.

Aug. 1. **Murat,** Napoleon's brother-in-law, proclaimed **king of Naples,** as Joachim I.

September, October. Napoleon has conferences at Erfurt with Alexander I.

1809. **Austria** once more **takes up the conflict** with Napoleon. In April, her armies are overcome by Napoleon at Abensberg, Landshut, Eggmühl, and Regensburg (Ratisbon). May 13, French emperor enters Vienna. May 21 and 22, battles of Aspern and Essling; the army of the Archduke Charles gains an advantage. July 6, Napoleon is victorious over the Austrians at **Wagram.** July 12, armistice signed. October 14, **Peace of Schönbrunn** follows. Dalmatia and region north to Carinthia surrendered to France, and are constituted the Illyrian Provinces (see JUGO-SLAVIA).

May. Bonaparte decrees the formal annexation of the Papal States to the French Empire. June, excommunication of the emperor by Pius VII. Napoleon arrests the pope and imprisons him in France. [Napoleon, **divorced.**

December. Empress **Josephine,** childless by

1809–1812. Diplomatic controversy with United States over neutral trade (see UNITED STATES).

1810. *April.* Napoleon espouses **Marie Louise,** daughter of the emperor of Austria. In July he annexes Holland. At Busaco, Masséna is repulsed by Wellington, who, however, in October, retires beyond the lines of **Torres Vedras.** In October the French annex Bremen, Hamburg, and Lübeck. Mauritius taken by the British.

1811. *March.* Masséna forced to retreat from Portugal; but Badajoz captured by the French.

1812. *January.* Valencia is captured by Suchet. **Wellington** besieges Ciudad-Rodrigo. In April, he **storms Badajoz.** July 22, he defeats Marmont. In August, British enter Madrid. Southern Spain lost to the French.

June 22. Napoleon declares **war against Russia,** and the **Grand Army** of 400,000 men, including Italians, Poles, and Germans, moves to invade the czar's territories. In August the **Russians** are **beaten** at **Smolensk.** September 7, force of Kutuzov routed by the French at Borodino (the Moskva), and, September 14, the **French enter Moscow** in triumph. City is set on fire, and French begin, October 19, the **frightful retreat** from Russia, overtaken by early winter and pursued by the Russian army. November 26–28, dreadful passage of the Berezina River; great part of the army destroyed or captured. **First terrific defeat** in **Napoleon's** history. Bonaparte leaves army and hastens to Paris, where he arrives in December.

1813. **German nations now rally** and take up arms against France. February, Russians form an alliance with the Prussians at Kalish. The Swedish army is sent against Napoleon by **Bernadotte,** his former marshal, now crown prince of Sweden. In May, the French emperor beats the allied Russians and Prussians at Lützen and Bautzen.

June 21. French are overcome at Vitoria by **Wellington,** who **pursues the French** into their own territory.

Aug. 12. Austria declares war against France. Various French defeats follow, culminating, October 16–18, in the **battle of Leipzig** ("battle of the Nations"); **Napoleon routed.** Defeat of the French leads to the dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine and the kingdom of Westphalia. Napoleon moves back of the Rhine, and his army in Holland withdraws.

1814. **France is invaded by the allies.** In January Murat deserts the French cause. A congress is held at Châtillon in February–March to sound the French, but no settlement is reached.

March 9. Blücher drives back the French at Laon. French troops withdraw from the Papal States. In March, Ferdinand VII. of Spain set at liberty and resumes throne.

March 20. **Allies besiege Paris;** March 31, they make their entry into the French capital. April 1, French Senate under the direction of **Talleyrand** establishes a provisional government. April 11, **Napoleon abdicates** at Fontainebleau. April 16, in Italy, Beauharnais, totally defeated, makes a covenant with his conquerors. May 3, **Louis XVIII.,** brother of Louis XVI., recalled to be **king of France** by the action of the Senate and the allies, enters Paris with all solemnity. This is the **First Restoration.** May 4, **Napoleon banished** by the allies to the island of **Elba.** June 4, Louis XVIII. issues the *Charte Octroyée*, a conservative constitution including provision for a limited parliament.

September. **Congress** of all European powers assembles at **Vienna** to reorganize the Continent.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *Feb. 26.* **Napoleon escapes from Elba** and lands in France, March 1. Ney passes over to him and carries over the army. March 20, Louis XVIII. flees from Paris; Napoleon **enters the capital in triumph.** (See HUNDRED DAYS in the *Dict.*) Alliance of the powers against him is at once renewed. Murat joins Napoleon, but is defeated by the Austrians at Tolentino, May 2–3.

June 9. General acts of the **Congress at Vienna** signed. (See NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.) France permitted to retain the limits possessed by her in 1792.

June 16. Napoleon defeats Blücher at Ligny, but Ney is worsted at Quatre Bras, and, June 18, **Napoleon is overwhelmed at Waterloo** by the forces of Wellington and Blücher. The empire

1815 (*continued*).
is extinguished and the **emperor abdicates for the second time,** at Fontainebleau, June 22. July 7, the **allies enter Paris.**

July 8. Louis XVIII. makes a second entry into the capital and the **Second Restoration** occurs. July 15, Napoleon throws himself on the generosity of the British nation; he is sent to St. Helena, October 16. Murat attempts to gain possession of the kingdom of Naples, but is taken and shot by order of a court-martial, Oct. 13.

Nov. 20. **Second Peace of Paris** signed. Boundaries of 1790 restored to France.

1818. **Congress** of the great powers is held **at Aix-la-Chapelle** (for France and Holy Alliance, see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD), and soon afterwards the armies of the allies are withdrawn from France. In December, the king dismisses the Richelieu ministry, and the administration is intrusted to the Duke Decazes.

1820. *February.* **Assassination of the Duke de Berry,** the king's nephew, on whom the succession depends. Decazes dismissed, and Villèle made premier.

1821. *May 5.* **Napoleon dies** at St. Helena.

1823. **French army sent to Spain** to restore the authority of Ferdinand (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD). In May, the king of Spain is reëstablished on the throne. [his brother, **Charles X.**]

1824. *Sept. 16.* **Louis XVIII. dies;** succeeded by

1825. Government of France decrees an indemnity of $200,000,000 to the *émigrés,* and recognizes the independence of Haiti.

1827. *July 6.* Treaty of London on Greece (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1828. Villèle succeeded by Martignac and Polignac.

1830. French begin **conquest of Algeria;** July 5, Bourmont captures Algiers, but fighting with Abd-el-Kadir and other tribesmen continues until 1847.

July 26. King proclaims a series of unconstitutional ordinances, dissolving the chamber and suppressing the public journals. **Revolution in Paris,** July 27–29, overthrows the Bourbons Charles X. abdicates, August 2, and escapes. August 7, the chambers declare for **Louis Philippe,** duke of Orléans; two days later he is crowned as **king of the French.**

1831. **Constitution made more liberal.** Casimir Perier premier. Legislature abolishes hereditary peerage.

1831–1832. France and Belgium (see BELGIUM).

1832. *October.* **Soult** forms a coalition ministry including among its members Thiers and Guizot.

1836. *February.* Cabinet formed by **Thiers.** In August, Thiers resigns and the premiership is given to Molé. **Louis Napoleon Bonaparte,** nephew of Napoleon I., makes a futile attempt to start a revolution.

1839. *March.* Molé ministry goes out, and two months later Soult becomes premier.

1840. **Fortifications of Paris begun.** In March, Thiers ministry is formed.

July. France in alliance against Mehemet Ali (see *Egypt,* under BRITISH EMPIRE, and NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

August. **Louis Napoleon** tries a second rising; **imprisoned** at Ham.

October. Cabinet resigns; Soult again premier with **Guizot** as minister of foreign affairs.

Dec. 15. Remains of Napoleon brought to Paris and interred in the Hôtel des Invalides.

1844. *Oct. 24.* Treaty with China. [Guizot.]

1847. *September.* Soult resigns; succeeded by

1848. *February.* **Rioting in Paris,** occasioned by widespread hostility to the government. Guizot dismissed and a new ministry formed by Thiers.

Feb. 24. Revolutionary insurgents force **Louis Philippe to abdicate** the throne. Provisional government is established under **Lamartine** and others. Second Republic is formally proclaimed.

March. A workingman's convention assembles in Paris, over which **Blanc** presides. April 27, **slavery in French colonies abolished.** May 4, National Assembly sits. May 15, **rioting in Paris.**

June. **Cavaignac** chosen as chief of the executive, and a republican constitution is adopted on November 4. December 20, **Louis Napoleon Bonaparte** is elected **president** of the republic.

1849. Original assembly dissolved, and a new legislative assembly meets in May; a Bonapartist ministry appointed, October 13. French expedition is sent to the aid of Pope Pius IX (see ITALY).

1851. *Dec. 2.* President Louis **Napoleon** executes a *coup d'état,* violently breaks up the legislative assembly, and establishes himself as **dictator** in France. December 21, he secures his election to the presidency for a term of ten years by a plebiscite.

1852. The question of an Empire is approved by a popular vote. December 2, **Louis Napoleon** is proclaimed as **emperor of the French,** with the style of **Napoleon III.**

1854. France joins Great Britain in the contest against Russia known as the **Crimean War** (see RUSSIA).
Napoleon III. marries the Spanish countess **Eugénie de Montijo.**

1855. The first **French International exhibition** is held in Paris.

1856. Paris center of the diplomatic world; Peace of Paris (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1857. Anglo-French expedition against China (see CHINA).

1858. *Jan. 14.* Orsini makes an attempt to assassinate Napoleon III. as recreant to early vows as one of the *Carbonari.* Shakes the emperor's absolutism.

1858–1860. Napoleon III. and Italy (see ITALY and NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1860. Privileges of the legislative body are much increased.

1861–1865. French imperial government unfriendly to Union government of the United States during the Civil War.

1861–1867. **French forces in Mexico,** nominally to collect debts, actually to form a colony (see MEXICO). [France by Annam.]

1862. *June 5.* Lower **Cochin China** ceded to

1866. Napoleon neutral in war between Prussia and Austria (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1867. French extend dominion in Cochin China. An expedition sent against Garibaldi at Civitavecchia in October (see ITALY).

1869. Emperor grants some of the demands of the Liberals.

1870. Ministry of Ollivier begins, January 2. Napoleon III. submits new laws of importance. May 8, a plebiscite expresses **confidence in the Empire** by a great majority. May 15, **Gramont** made minister of foreign affairs.

July 2. Spain decides to offer the crown to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern. France protests, and Bismarck ("Ems dispatch") fans French excitement into the war for which he has prepared Prussia.

July 19. **France declares war on** Prussia. August 2, advanced forces of the two countries meet at Saarbrücken (Speichern). August 6, **MacMahon is defeated by Frederick William,** crown prince of Prussia, at **Wörth.** Another battle, disastrous to the French, is fought at **Courcelles,** August 14, and the French under Bazaine encounter the Germans under Prince Frederick Charles at **Mars-la-Tour,** August 16. Bazaine defeated at **Gravelotte,** August 18. September 1, MacMahon and the emperor in person vanquished at **Sedan.** MacMahon's army surrenders and **Napoleon III.** is made a **prisoner.**

Sept. 4. In Paris the catastrophe results in the **proclamation of a republic;** a temporary government for the defense of the nation is established. September 19, Paris is surrounded by hostile forces and a siege begins. **Toul surrenders,** September 23, and Strassburg, September 27. Gambetta gets out of the city and makes a proclamation from Tours. October 11, von der Tann occupies Orléans. October 27, Bazaine surrenders Metz and a large army to Prince Frederick Charles. Revolutionary outbreaks occur in Paris. Through November and December vain efforts are made by France to head off the Germans in the west.

1871. *January.* Renewal of desperate attempts to hold the Germans in the south and east: all in vain. January 28, **Paris capitulates,** and a temporary armistice is signed.

Feb. 8. A National Assembly is elected and begins its sessions at Bordeaux, February 12. February 17, **Thiers** chosen as chief of the executive.

Feb. 26. Preliminary **Treaty of Versailles** is signed by France and Germany, and on March 1 it is ratified by the French Assembly. **Alsace,** German **Lorraine,** and Metz are **ceded** to Germany. France to pay a billion dollars; German occupation until the money is paid. March 1, the Germans make a triumphal entry into the French capital. May 10, definitive treaty of peace is signed at Frankfurt.

March 18. Two days before the meeting of the Assembly at Versailles, the **War of the Commune** breaks out. The **Red Republicans** make themselves **masters of Paris,** and another epoch of confusion and slaughter ensues. MacMahon made commander of the military forces of the government. Forces of the republican government enter Paris, May 21. Montmartre yields, May 23, and on the following day the Communists burn the public buildings of the city; Archbishop Darboy and other hostages are slaughtered. May 28, **civil war ends** with execution or deportation of the radicals. [public.]

Aug. 31. **Thiers** elected **president** of the re-

1872–1875. Efforts to restore the Bourbon monarchy; Count de Chambord, heir to that line, refuses to accept the tricolor flag.

1873. *May 24.* **Thiers resigns** the presidency; succeeded by **MacMahon.** September 16, evacuation of France by the German troops completed. November 19, term of MacMahon's **presidency** fixed by the Assembly at **seven years.** Bazaine tried on a charge of treason, and found guilty.

1875. National legislative body composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies created by vote of the Assembly, thus establishing a republican constitution.

1875–1883. France and Egypt (see *Egypt,* under BRITISH EMPIRE).

1878. **International exhibition** of arts and industries held at Paris.

1880. *March 19.* **Ferry educational bill** becomes a law. March 30, Freycinet cabinet publishes an ordinance against the Jesuits. July 10, amnesty is granted to the Communists. In September, Ferry, on the resignation of the Freycinet ministry, forms a cabinet.
Society Islands annexed to France.

1881. *May 12.* **Protectorate over Tunis** established by treaty, which Turkey reluctantly acknowledges. **Italy,** estranged, **forms Triple Alliance** (1882) with Germany and Austria. **France isolated.** [Ferry.]

October. **Gambetta ministry** succeeds that of

1882. **Gambetta resigns; Freycinet** succeeds as **premier.** In July, Freycinet gives place to **Duclerc.** Gambetta dies, December 31.
Tonkin War begins. French storm Hanoi, April, in attempt to secure delta of the Songka, but encounter the "Black Flags," piratical Chinese rebels. Annam assists the "Black Flags" and seeks Chinese aid.

1883. *January.* Duclerc resigns; **Fallières premier.** In February, **Ferry succeeds** Fallières.

May 19. French defeated by "Black Flags." In August, the French storm Hué, capital of Annam, and, August 25, **Annam** by treaty becomes a **French protectorate.** December 17, capture of Sontai by French brings China into the war. War begins in Madagascar; June 13, Tamatave bombarded.

1884. *June.* Defeat of French by Chinese at Langson. August 23, French fleets destroy fleet and arsenal at Foochow. Formosa blockaded.

August. **Revision of French constitution;** princes no longer eligible for the presidency.

1885. *March 23.* French again defeated at Langson, which causes fall of Ferry ministry; **Brisson ministry** succeeds. In June, treaty of **peace with China;** French **protectorate** over **Tonkin** and **Annam** recognized.

June 8. Scrutin de liste adopted.

Dec. 17. Treaty with **Madagascar;** French **protectorate.**

Dec. 28. **Grévy** elected **president.** Brisson cabinet resigns.

1886. *January.* **Freycinet** again **premier.** Exile of Orléans and Bonaparte princes decreed. In December, **Goblet** succeeds Freycinet as **premier.**

1887. *April 21.* Germans arrest Schnäbele, a French police officer accused of spying, after having invited him to a conference across the border. French aroused, but war is averted.

May. Goblet resigns and **Rouvier** forms a cabinet. November, Rouvier goes out. December 2, **resignation of** President **Grévy.** December 3, **Carnot** elected **president,** and **Tirard** becomes **premier.**

1888. Attempts to form a party on basis of a revision of the constitution, supposed to be a Bonapartist plot; headed by General **Boulanger.** Tirard resigns in March, and a month later **Floquet** is named as **premier.**

1889. *February.* **Tirard** again **premier.** Attempt to make **Boulanger** chief power in the state; an order for his prosecution by the Senate, and he flees from France.
International exhibition of the industrial and fine arts is held at Paris. Eiffel Tower erected.

1890. Elections result in **victory for the Republicans,** 325 members of the Chamber against 246 in opposition. Boulangists reduced to ridicule. Ministry of Tirard resigns in March, and **Freycinet** again becomes **premier.**

1891. France enters into relations of friendship with Russia; French fleet received with enthusiasm at Kronstadt.

August 22. **Secret** defensive **alliance** signed between **Russia and France,** thus restoring France to the position of a great power whose friendship is sought.
Anti-German demonstration in Paris on the performance of Wagner's *Lohengrin,* September 16. Order is issued by the government for stopping pilgrimages to Rome; **French pilgrims in Italy** are attacked by the Italian populace for alleged insults to the tomb of Victor Emmanuel.

1892. Excitement over **anarchist outrages.** February, ministry of Freycinet overthrown; **Loubet** becomes **premier.** Cholera reaches Paris.

September-October. French troops make a victorious campaign in Dahomey.

November. Frauds in connection with the finances of the **Panama Canal Company** are discovered. **De Lesseps** and his associates are **arrested.** In the year following, a trial results in their conviction and the revelation that many senators, deputies, and ex-ministers have been personally and politically dishonest. In December, Loubet ministry is overthrown and succeeded by that of Ribot.

1893. Conflict and treaty with **Siam** (see SIAM).
January. Government reconstructed under Ribot with a view to eradicate Panama scandal.
1894. *May.* Ministry overthrown; Dupuy ministry succeeds.
June 24. President **Carnot assassinated** at Lyon. June 27, **Casimir-Perier** elected his successor.
October. Agitation begins over arrest, trial, and condemnation of **Captain Dreyfus,** a Jewish officer in the French army, charged with selling secret information regarding the army and the military service to the agent of a foreign government; Dreyfus sentenced to transportation for life, January 5, 1895.
1895. *Jan. 14.* Resignation of Dupuy ministry because of financial scandals, followed, January 15, by **resignation** of President **Casimir-Perier.** January 17, **Faure** elected **president.** January 26, Ribot ministry formed. October 28, Ribot resigns because of railway scandals; Bourgeois forms a Radical ministry.
May. Interference in Japanese-Chinese peace terms (see CHINA).
1896. *April 23.* Bourgeois ministry retires; April 28, Méline forms a new ministry of Moderates and Republicans.
Aug. 6. Madagascar declared a French colony.
Sept. 30. **Commercial treaty** between France and Italy.
Oct. 5. Czar and czarina of Russia arrive in France and are received with great enthusiasm.
1897. *March 30.* Trial of the deputies accused of participation in the Panama scandals; several are convicted.
1898. "Dreyfus Scandal" of 1894 revived. Public agitation led by **Zola,** the novelist, who publishes "*J'accuse!*", denouncing the government and the court-martial which convicted Dreyfus, on the ground that Dreyfus is a victim of military domination and producing evidence of his innocence. Opposition to militarism aroused, but **Zola condemned** to fine and imprisonment, February 23
April 10. In the grab for Chinese territory France secures the lease of Kwangchow.
1899. *Feb. 16.* President **Faure dies** of apoplexy; February 18, **Loubet elected** his successor.
Sept. 9. **Dreyfus,** brought back to France for second trial by court-martial, is again found guilty; pardoned, Sept. 19, which is virtually an exoneration for him and a defeat for the militarists.
1900. Boundary dispute between Brazil and French Guiana settled by arbitration.
Boxer Rising (see CHINA).
April 14–Sept. 15. Paris Universal International Exposition.
1901. For trouble with Turkey, see TURKEY.
Long-standing difficulties with the pope and church in France, development of Socialism, growth of religious communities and their vast holdings of real estate, considered a menace to the state, cause lengthy controversy in Parliament. July 1, **Act of Associations** for the strict regulation of religious orders, especially for the restriction of property. Many Jesuits and Benedictines withdraw from France. All unauthorized religious orders to be abolished, October 1. Education to be regulated by the state.
Oct. 19. Santos-Dumont makes a successful trip in his dirigible balloon, and wins the Deutsch prize of $20,000.
1902. *January.* Census returns show increase in population of only 444,613 in five years. Total 38,961,945.
May 9. **Humbert swindle** exposed. On pretended securities sealed and deposited in a safe, Mme. Humbert borrowed several million francs.
May 15. President Loubet visits St. Petersburg; his cordial reception strengthens the Franco-Russian alliance.
June 3. Waldeck-Rousseau resigns; **Combes,** Radical leader, becomes **premier,** June 7.
June 27. **Decree closing many religious institutions** that have not complied with the Law of Associations. This causes disturbances in Paris and Brittany, and wins support for the government from the Socialists.
1903. Continued trouble as to the religious associations; stringent enforcement of the law; authorization refused to preaching fathers. March 26, Carthusian monks refused permission to remain in France. In April, measures are taken to expel unauthorized orders from the country.
July 6. President Loubet visits England, thus returning King Edward VII.'s visit of May.
Oct. 14. Agreement made with Great Britain to submit judicial questions in the interpretation of treaties to the **Hague Tribunal.**
1904. The government, because of relations with Russia, is now concerned with the **Russo-Japanese War.** During the year French investors take up a Russian loan of $160,000,000. February 20, rumors of a general European war.
March 5. Court of Cassation grants a **new trial to Dreyfus.**
March 28. Bill prohibiting all teaching by the monks and nuns except in private passed by a vote of 318 to 230.
April 8, October 3. British and Spanish agreements (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).
April 24. President Loubet visits the king of Italy at Rome; a defiance of the pope who has forbidden Catholic rulers to do so. July 29, diplomatic relations with the Vatican cease. October 22, Chamber of Deputies supports Combes ministry against the Vatican by a vote of 318 to 230
Nov. 16. War Minister **André resigns** after a bitter debate on the espionage of army officials (reflex of Dreyfus affair).
1905. *Jan. 18.* **Combes** ministry **resigns; Rouvier** becomes **premier,** January 24.
March 17. Chamber votes to reduce the active term of military service to two years.
March 29. **Difficulty with Germany over the Moroccan question** becomes acute (see MOROCCO). German chancellor insists on maintenance of German commercial interests in Morocco, in direct communication with the sultan. March 31, German emperor lands at Tangier, and publicly criticizes the French policy. June 3, Foreign Minister **Delcassé resigns** under German pressure, Rouvier taking the office. Sultan, under German inspiration, and against the wishes of France, invites the powers to an international conference. July 8, the French and German governments come to an agreement to hold the conference.
July 3. Chamber of Deputies passes the government bill for the **separation of church and state** by a vote of 181 to 102.
1906. *January–April.* Moroccan **Conference at Algeciras.** United States represented, and suggests a settlement which is adopted (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).
Feb. 1–3. Rioting occurs in many Paris churches over separation law providing that churches and other religious establishments may be owned and used only by associations formed according to the civil law.
Feb. 17. **Fallières** elected **president.**
Pope issues encyclical against the separation law.
March 7. Rouvier ministry resigns, having been defeated over taking of church inventories under separation law. March 12, new ministry with Sarrien as premier.
July 12. **Supreme Court reverses conviction of Dreyfus** and exonerates him completely. He is restored to the army with advanced rank, and on July 21 is decorated with the Legion of Honor, — a triumph for law and justice against military arrogance.
Aug. 10. Pope issues encyclical instructing French Roman Catholics to offer passive resistance to the separation law.
Oct. 17. Sarrien ministry resigns. October 21, **Clemenceau** becomes **premier;** Picquart, defender of Dreyfus, minister of war.
Dec. 11. **Separation law** goes into effect, with almost no disorder. Pope orders clergy not to make declarations under the law. During remainder of the year a few churches are closed; others are kept open through declarations filed by laymen. Government ousts Cardinal Richard from his palace, and arrests and deports the secretary of the papal nunciature at Paris, but acts slowly in enforcing the new law.
1907. *March 25–28.* In exacting reparation for the murder of Mauchamp by Moors, France occupies Oudjda. August, Casablanca is occupied (see MOROCCO).
June 9. Vast demonstrations demanding government action to relieve situation caused by low price of wine. A strike of civil employees, mutiny of a few troops, and a promise by the government to check adulteration result.
1908. *June 13.* Parliament almost unanimously adopts the **secret ballot** system.
June 25. War balloon, *La République,* makes successful ascent at Nantes.
June 26. Parliament passes a bill for the purchase and operation of the *Chemin de Fer de l'Ouest* (Western Railway).
International **Woman's Suffrage** and Equal Rights Congress opens at Paris.
Aug. 8. **Wilbur Wright,** of Ohio, **flies** three kilometers in one minute and forty-six seconds at Le Mans in a heavier-than-air machine.
Sept. 25. **Casablanca Incident;** German ships and authorities undertake to protect certain Germans in French military service (see MOROCCO).
1909. *Feb. 9.* Agreement with Germany as to administration of Moroccan affairs (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).
March 15. **General strike** of government postal and telegraph employees. Government employs soldiers to fill strikers' places and refuses concessions. Its attitude is sustained in the Chamber of Deputies by 368 to 211. Strike gradually collapses, but is later revived and again suppressed vigorously. May 13, Deputies again sustain the course of the government by 454 to 59.
June 7. Cabinet approves a **naval program** involving expenditure of $600,000,000 in ten years.
July 20. **Clemenceau ministry** is defeated and resigns; new cabinet formed under **Briand.**
July 25. Louis **Blériot,** in a monoplane, first to cross the English Channel.
1910. *Feb. 20–29.* Southern-central France suffers from floods; Paris suffers, also.
March. **Old Age Pension Bill** passed; in effect January 1, 1911. Pension to wage earners after 30 years of service. [for the government.]
April 24. General election results in a victory
Oct. 11. **Strike on the state railroads** becomes so serious that Premier Briand calls the striking employees back as army reserves. His action is sustained by the Deputies.
1911. Serious riots in the champagne districts.
Feb. 27. **Briand** cabinet **resigns. Monis** forms a new **ministry.**
March 10. Meridian of **Greenwich** is adopted as the prime meridian of France.
April 12. Prier flies in monoplane from London to Paris without a stop.
April–May. Renewed outbreak of Moroccan tribesmen. French troops scatter them and occupy Fez. [forms new **ministry.**]
June 23. Monis ministry resigns; **Caillaux**
July 1. **German gunboat** *Panther* anchors at **Agadir, Morocco,** signifying Germany's unwillingness to give France a free hand in that country. Indignation in France; Great Britain lends moral support. France's claim to a protectorate in Morocco is recognized on November 3, Germany receiving as compensation 96,520 square miles in northern French Equatorial Africa (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD). [inces.]
September. **Food riots** in the northern prov-
Sept. 25. Battleship *La Liberté* is destroyed in Toulon harbor by the explosion of one of her magazines.
1912. *Jan. 13.* French ministerial crisis ends in the formation of a strong cabinet under Poincaré.
March 19. About half the coal miners of northern France are reported on strike. Settlement reached March 24.
April. The French troops in Morocco quell a **Moorish uprising,** and overthrow the southern pretender El Hiba. Fez is recaptured. The city is fiercely attacked May 26.
May. Announced that France will concentrate her naval strength in the Mediterranean (see BRITISH EMPIRE).
May 28. **Birth rate** for 1911 (742,114) is **lowest on record** in recent times.
Sept. 10. **Teachers' unions** are **dissolved** by government, on account of antimilitary and syndicalist tendencies.
Sept. 27. First review of an **airplane armada,** held at Villacoublay, 72 military airplanes passing before the minister of war.
Nov. 27. Franco-Spanish treaty regarding Morocco is signed (see MOROCCO). Tribesmen continue interminable war against foreign control.
1913. *Jan. 17.* **Poincaré** elected **president;** inaugurated February 18. January 21, new cabinet, headed by **Briand,** takes office.
March 18. Briand cabinet is defeated in Senate on electoral reform bill and resigns. New ministry formed by **Barthou,** March 21, adopts a vigorous defense policy and increased appropriations. **Army bill** with provisions for a three-year term of military service is bitterly **opposed** by Socialists. By May the **antimilitarist agitation** becomes formidable, and finds expression in a twenty-four hour general strike, threats of mutiny in the army, and widespread disorders.
June 24. President Poincaré visits England as the guest of the nation.
Aug. 7. **Army bill** is **adopted** by Senate, providing for three-year service and increasing the peace strength of the army to 673,000 at an increased cost of $35,000,000 annually. Families whose sole supporter is in the army to receive subventions. The passage of the law arouses fresh opposition.
Sept. 23. Garros, French aviator, flies across the Mediterranean from France to Tunis (558 miles) in 7 hours, 53 minutes.
Nov. 18. Electoral reform bill adopted by the Deputies, restoring in modified form the clause providing proportional representation.
Dec. 2. Following the government's defeat in the Chamber of Deputies on the question of exempting the new *rentes* from taxation, Barthou ministry resigns.
Dec. 8. **Doumergue** forms **ministry,** made up of Socialists, Radicals, and Radical Socialists.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. For military and diplomatic events during the year, see WORLD WAR.
Jan. 15. Aviator Legagneux breaks world's altitude record by ascending to height of 6,150 meters (20,177 feet).
March 16. **Madame Caillaux,** wife of the minister of finance, kills Calmette, editor of *Figaro,* because of his caustic criticism of her husband. She is **acquitted** of murder on July 28.

1914 (*continued*).

April 21. King George and Queen Mary of England enthusiastically welcomed in Paris, on the tenth anniversary of the establishment of the *Entente Cordiale*.

May 9. **French** column occupies Taza, **in Morocco** (see MOROCCO).

June 1. Cabinet under Doumergue resigns. **Ribot** accepts the **premiership**, June 8, but four days later resigns on being defeated in the Chamber. **Viviani** (Socialist) forms **cabinet**, June 13.

July 22–Aug. 1. Crisis between Austria-Hungary and Russia. France desires peaceful settlement, but acknowledges engagement to aid Russia (see WORLD WAR). [assassinated.

July 31. Jaurés, leader of the Socialists, is

Aug. 3. **State of war** acknowledged to exist **between Germany and France**; ambassadors are withdrawn and each nation accuses the other of hostile acts (see WORLD WAR).

Aug. 26. Cabinet is reconstructed with Viviani still premier; Delcassé, who was dismissed at Germany's desire in 1906, foreign minister; Millerand, war minister; Briand, minister of justice; Ribot, minister of finance; Doumergue, colonial minister. Cabinet is considered the strongest in the history of the Third Republic.

Sept. 3. **Government withdraws** temporarily **from Paris** to Bordeaux. Germans within a few miles of Paris.

Sept. 5. France, England, and Russia agree not to make peace separately.

Dec. 9. **Government returns to Paris,** Germans having been defeated on the Marne.

Dec. 13. **French protectorate over Morocco** formally recognized by Great Britain.

Dec. 22. National Assembly votes $1,700,000,000 for the war, the greatest sum pledged up to that time by any legislative body in the history of the world.

1915. For military and diplomatic events during the year, see WORLD WAR. [prohibited

Jan. 7. Sale and transportation of absinthe is

February. Stringent regulations governing the sale of all **alcoholic liquors.**

April 22. Cabinet decides that children made orphans by the war shall be cared for by the state.

June 25. Deputies, by vote of 492 to 1, adopt an appropriation of $1,120,000,000 to cover war expenses during the ensuing three months.

July 8. Decree is published prohibiting the export of gold except by Bank of France.

Aug. 21. Following England's example, cotton is declared contraband.

Aug. 27. Every traveler leaving the country is now required to declare the amount of coin in his possession.

Oct. 13. Delcassé, minister of foreign affairs, resigns. Premier Viviani assumes the portfolio.

Oct. 28. Viviani coalition ministry, formed shortly after the outbreak of the war, resigns. **Briand** (Socialist) forms new **cabinet**, with himself as foreign minister; Gallièni, minister of war; Viviani, minister of justice; Ribot, minister of finance; Doumergue, colonial minister. Briand announces (Nov. 3) that France is determined to carry the war to victory and durable peace.

Dec. 31. **War expenditures** amount approximately to $6,089,760,000.

War loan of 15,000,000,000 francs ($3,000,000,000), "the loan of victory," is raised by over 3,000,000 subscribers. The country thus far has not resorted to taxation in order to finance war.

1916. For military and diplomatic events during the year, see WORLD WAR.

March 27–28. **War conference** held in Paris by the premiers of Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, and Serbia, and the foreign minister of Russia, together with military leaders.

May 7. **Rove Tunnel** on the Marseilles-Rhône Canal completed, opening a way for the canal through a ridge into the Bay of Marseilles. Greatest tunnel in the world.

June 8. Daylight-saving bill is passed, legal time being advanced one hour from June 14 to September 30.

June 14. **Economic conference** of the Allies in Paris. Plans for economic solidarity after war.

June 22. Chamber of Deputies reiterates its confidence in the Briand ministry, and agrees to refrain from interfering with the direction of military operations; but will supervise industrial and military preparation.

June 30. Total expenditures from August, 1914, amount to $9,400,000,000, including $7,400,000,000 for purely military purposes.

Nov. 9. Appropriation bill for the first quarter of 1917 is introduced, carrying a total of $1,894,600,000 ($21,000,000 a day); the second national war loan amounts to $2,300,000,000, with 3,000,000 subscribers.

Nov. 20. Post of director-general of transports and importations is created, with control over all traffic by rail or water.

Dec. 12. **Parliamentary crisis ends** with the formation of a smaller ministry, headed by Premier Briand; **war council of six is established,** consisting of Briand (premier and foreign affairs), Ribot (finance), Lyautey (war), Lacaze (marine), Painlevé (labor), Thomas (national industry — including munitions and transportation).

Dec. 13. **Joffre** hands over command of the French armies of the north and northeast to **Nivelle,** the commander at Verdun, newly appointed commander in chief. Joffre becomes consultative technical adviser to the war council of the cabinet, and president of the Allied military council.

Dec. 29. For reply to German peace proposal, see WORLD WAR.

1917. For military and diplomatic events during the year, see WORLD WAR.

Jan. 11. For reply to President Wilson's "peace note," see WORLD WAR. [tive tactics.

March 17. Briand retires because of obstruc-

March 19. Ribot forms a new cabinet, somewhat more conservative than its predecessor.

May 15. **Pétain replaces Nivelle** as commander in chief.

June 5. By a vote of 453 to 55 the Deputies declare that peace terms must include the **restoration of Alsace-Lorraine** and **reparation** for the damage done in occupied territory.

Sept. 10. Painlevé (minister of war in the Ribot cabinet) becomes prime minister.

Sept. 18. Painlevé declares that France will require guarantees against future aggression.

Sept. 19. Deputies vote confidence in the Painlevé cabinet, 378 to 1; Unified Socialists abstain from voting.

Sept. 29. Arrest of **Bolo Pasha** as a German spy and propagandist; information from the United States shows him to have had control of enormous sums of money.

Nov. 13. Painlevé resigns as premier, having been beaten in the Deputies by 277 to 186.

Nov. 15. **Clemenceau** at the age of 76 forms a new cabinet, preponderantly Radical-Socialist, but composed of younger men who have not been actively associated in the conduct of the war.

Nov. 20. Deputies sustain the new Clemenceau cabinet by a vote of 418 to 65. [1918 to 1920.

Nov. 22. General elections are postponed from

Nov. 29. Fifteen nations are represented in a **conference of the Allies** at Paris.

Dec. 22. The Chamber of Deputies withdrawing parliamentary privilege authorizes the **trial of Caillaux,** former premier, for treasonable dealings with the enemy ("defeatist" propaganda). Final trial does not take place until 1920; convicted, April 21, 1920.

1918. For military and diplomatic events during the year, see WORLD WAR.

Jan. 13. War minister puts **postal, telephone, and telegraph services under military control.**

Jan. 14. **Caillaux** arrested on the strength of new evidence; further evidence in intercepted dispatches of Ambassador Bernstorff.

Jan. 30. German **air raid** over Paris. Many such follow, with destruction of life and property.

Feb. 15. **Bolo Pasha convicted** by court-martial of treason against the French government, and sentenced to death. [**mile gun.**

March 23. **Germans** first shell Paris with **76-**

March 26. **Foch,** chief of staff of the war ministry, becomes commander in chief of the Allied armies in France. [less days a week

April 27. Government proclaims three meat-

April 28. **Duval,** director of the newspaper *Bonnet Rouge*, brought to trial by court-martial on charges of treason in connection with Bolo Pasha and is sentenced to death, May 15, and executed, July 17.

May 19. The government threatens to withhold shipments of coal should Switzerland maintain her recent commercial agreement with Germany under which Swiss cattle are to be exchanged for German coal, iron, and steel.

July 15. **Malvy,** minister of the interior under three war premiers, is brought to trial before the Senate sitting as a high court of justice. Found guilty of communicating with the enemy, Aug. 5. **Foch** awarded a marshal's baton.

Nov. 11. **Armistice** and victory in the war.

Dec. 3. **French "Liberation Loan"** campaign, extending from October 20 to November 24, realizes $3,950,000,000.

Dec. 9. President Poincaré receives an official welcome at Strassburg, capital of Alsace-Lorraine.

Dec. 14. President Wilson enters Paris attended by Poincaré, Clemenceau, and others.

Dec. 16. President Wilson presented with the gold medal of the city of Paris. [Academy.

Dec. 19. Joffre made a member of the French

Dec. 30. Clemenceau indicates his adherence to the "old system of alliances, called the 'balance of power.'"

1919. For international negotiations during the year, see WORLD WAR.

Jan. 14. Henceforth German prisoners to be employed in reconstruction work in liberated districts.

Jan. 18. **Peace Congress opens** in the *Salle de la Paix* (Hall of Peace) in Paris. Clemenceau chosen permanent chairman; address of welcome by Poincaré, and brief speeches by Wilson, Lloyd George, and Sonnino. For subsequent proceedings, see WORLD WAR.

Jan. 22. Paris reports a "wave of crime"; thought to be due to the activities of former prisoners recently freed from the army.

Jan. 25. **General strike** on the transportation lines of Paris ended only by threat of the government to take over and operate all lines.

Feb. 18. **Clemenceau, wounded** by a youthful anarchist. Recovers quickly.

March 21. Commission on **Reparation** states that Germans left 7,000,000 acres of France unproductive; work of reparation being carried on, soldiers and prisoners of war assisting.

April 23. An **eight-hour-day law** enacted. In effect July 2; carries increase of 25% in wages.

May 1. May Day demonstration passes without serious disorder, troops being prepared for emergencies.

June. **Strikes** are numerous; due largely to adjustments under new eight-hour law.

June 26. **Electoral Reform Act;** restores *scrutin de liste*, or general ticket; also compromise on proportional representation.

June 28. **Treaty of Versailles** with Germany signed (see WORLD WAR).

Franco-Anglo-American treaty of alliance; Great Britain and United States to go immediately to assistance of France in case of an unprovoked attack by Germany. Signed by President Wilson, but not ratified by United States Senate.

July 14. Bastille Day and **victorious peace celebrated** by a great parade in Paris.

July 21. Damage by German occupation of France placed at $40,000,000,000.

Oct. 13. France ratifies Treaty of Versailles, including League of Nations covenant. Censorship is terminated.

Nov. 11–30. Newspapers of Paris during a strike combine to publish a single paper called *La Presse de Paris*.

Nov. 16. Elections of Deputies result in overwhelming defeat of Socialists; government upheld.

Dec. 31. **National debt** announced as $40,772,000,000, gold; about $1000 per capita.

1920. *Jan. 17.* **Desehanel** elected **president;** Clemenceau defeated as candidate at a preliminary caucus. **Clemenceau** ministry **retires,** January 18. **Millerand** becomes **premier.** Deschanel inaugurated, February 18.

Jan. 27. Supreme Council of Natality created to encourage **increase in birth rate.**

Feb. 4. Francs quoted in New York at 15.15 to a dollar (normal rate of exchange, about 5.18 to a dollar).

GEORGIA.

GEORGIA is the region extending from the eastern end of the Black Sea eastward into the Caucasus, including the city of Tiflis. It has been a part of many different territorial organizations and is renowned for the purity of the race and the beauty of its women, many of whom have become the wives of Turkish princes. For more than two thousand years (from 300 B. C.) the Georgians had a kingdom of their own; but in 1801 they were annexed to Russia, though the Russians were obliged for years to make their claim good by fighting. They attempted to Russianize the population and the Georgian Church, and they included the region in their provinces (governments) of Tiflis and Kutais.

In 1917 when the Russian Empire broke down, the Georgians set up a temporary government, and a year later, 1918, declared themselves a republic under President Noah Zhordania. The country includes many race elements each strongly maintaining its language and national spirit.

Georgia has well-developed educational institutions, comprising about 4,000 elementary schools, 150 secondary and professional schools, and the University of Tiflis, with 1,500 students.

The agricultural resources of the country consist of wheat, barley, maize, cotton, tobacco, and tea. The production of grapes for wine is a leading industry and the country is rich in other fruits. Many minerals are found, the most important being manganese.

The **area** is 35,500 square miles and the **population** about 3,176,000.

1917. *November.* Transcaucasian Republic formed; made up of Armenians, Georgians, and Azerbaijanians.

Nov. 22. National Council of Georgia elected by Georgian National Assembly.

1918. *February.* Diet, or *Seim*, of Transcaucasia convoked at Tiflis.

May 26. Republic dissolved, owing to divergent political tendencies of the three nationalities. **Georgia forms** a separate, **independent state.**

1919. *March 12.* Act of Independence of Georgia ratified by the Constituent Assembly. [Allies.

1920. *Jan. 16.* Georgia receives recognition from

GERMANY.

Historical Outline.

THE GERMAN REPUBLIC was proclaimed November 9, 1918. In order to understand its peculiar constitution and the events which led to the World War, it is necessary to trace the successive steps which transformed the empire of Charlemagne into the Holy Roman Empire and that in turn into the German Empire under the hegemony of Prussia, and finally resulted in the present republic.

Of the later Teutonic invaders, the Franks were the first to establish a kingdom with the attributes of a modern state. Under Charlemagne, this kingdom became an empire and in gratitude for his assistance against the Lombards, the Pope, Leo III., on Christmas Day, 800, crowned Charlemagne Roman emperor. His empire extended from the Elbe across the Pyrenees, and from the Baltic to the states of the Church in Italy. Although in name a Roman empire, in fact it was Teutonic in race and in culture.

The successors of Charlemagne found it impossible to preserve intact the territory of the empire he had created, and by the close of the ninth century the disintegration was complete.

In the early years of the tenth century, Henry I., a Saxon, founded a German monarchy. He was succeeded by his son, Otto I., who went to the aid of the pope and, in 962, was crowned emperor of the "Holy Empire of the German Nation." Thus began the ill-fated influence of Germany in Italy which was continued by Austria until the World War. Until the beginning of the nineteenth century, when the imperial dignity was finally abolished, the emperor was almost the sole unifying element in the rivalry of the petty kingdoms, duchies, states, and cities which went to make up Germany.

Although the imperial dignity was elective in form it tended to become hereditary. The election was made by seven great princes of the empire known as electors. They were, before the Peace of Westphalia (1648), the archbishops of Mainz, Treves, and Cologne, king of Bohemia, count palatine of the Rhine, duke of Saxony, and margrave of Brandenburg.

In theory, any Christian prince was eligible to the imperial dignity, but all the emperors belonged to reigning German houses, except the two contesting claimants: Richard, Earl of Cornwall (son of King John of England), who was elected in 1257 by a part of the electors; and Alfonso of Castile, elected at the same time by the rest of the electors. This international character of the emperor accounts for the hopes of election cherished by Francis I. of France and Henry VIII. of England.

MODERN PERIOD.

In 1519 Charles I. of Spain became emperor under the title of Charles V., and there ensued not merely the struggle with France but the far more terrible religious wars, which closed in 1648 with the Peace of Westphalia. By the terms of this treaty the empire was thoroughly reorganized, but still presented many anomalies. For example, during the eighteenth century the archduke of Austria was usually emperor. At the same time, as king of Bohemia he was an imperial elector, and inside the empire he was ruler of the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium). Outside the empire he was king of Hungary and duke of Milan. Again, the margrave of Brandenburg was an electoral prince in the empire, while outside of it he was king of Prussia and later duke of Silesia. The duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg was made an imperial elector in 1692, being commonly called the Elector of Hanover; and in 1714 the Elector of Hanover became king of England.

This empire, a political abnormality, at one time about 300 sovereign states, was powerless to resist the onslaught of Napoleon. By the Treaty of Lunéville (1801), the states on the left bank of the Rhine were ceded to France. This dispossessed many princes who were promised compensation elsewhere. At the dictation of Napoleon, in 1803, the process of consolidation was carried still further and the territories of the ecclesiastical states (those ruled by bishops and abbots) and all but six of the free cities were added to the possessions of the more important princes. Napoleon also allowed Austria and Prussia to take over portions of the empire.

In 1805 Austria was crushed at the battle of Austerlitz, and in the following year Napoleon organized the Confederation of the Rhine. This Confederation included practically all the Holy Roman Empire except Austria, Prussia, Brunswick, and Hesse. The Confederation entered into an alliance with France. This was the death blow to the old empire, and Francis II., the last emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, resigned the office of Roman emperor and was thenceforth known by the title of hereditary emperor of Austria, which he had assumed in 1804. Although resigning the title, Austria still hoped to exercise leadership in the German states.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

The Congress of Vienna (1815) established a confederation of German states. This new body consisted of 38 sovereign states, including one empire (Austria), five kingdoms, of which Prussia was the largest, one electorate, seven grand duchies, and four free cities. By the territorial settlement of the Congress, Austria lost in German lands and gained in Italy. The question of the future was to be whether a new and stronger union of German states should grow up around Prussia or around Austria as the leading and central power.

An important stage in the development of the German Empire under Prussian leadership was the formation of customs unions among groups of states which established free trade and, consequently, close commercial relations inside the group. The first group, including Prussia and several smaller states, took shape in the years 1819–1830. In 1824 a second customs union was formed by Bavaria and certain of the smaller states. In 1833 members of both these groups united, forming the basis of the *Zollverein* (customs union), which was fully organized in 1837 and comprised the Prussian group and eight other states (among them Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg), with a total population of 26,000,000. It was significant and prophetic that Austria was not in this nucleus of the later German Empire.

In 1848 the Liberals of Germany held an assembly at Frankfurt and offered the title of German emperor to Frederick William IV. of Prussia, who declined the honor unless all the princes of Germany should give their assent. In 1862 Count von Bismarck became president of the Prussian ministry, and the process of the unification of Germany began to move more rapidly. In 1866 Prussia proposed a Germanic confederation which should exclude Austria and when the Diet rejected this plan, Bismarck persuaded William I. to proclaim that the old German confederation was dissolved. This brought on war between Austria and Prussia, in which Prussia was overwhelmingly successful. As a result the North German Confederation (*Bund*) was established, in which Prussia was all-powerful. Although the southern states of Germany were not included, they soon formed customs unions with the new *Bund*, and after Prussia's successful war with France (1870–71) joined the new empire which was then created.

The struggle of 1870–71 between the Gaul and the Teuton, in which Prussia took the leading part, brought the Germans together as the machinations of statesmen and years of peace could not have done. It was a fitting climax when, on January 18, 1871, in the palace of Versailles, built by Louis XIV., the archenemy of Germany, the German Empire was constituted and King William of Prussia proclaimed German emperor.

From its foundation until his resignation as chancellor in 1890, the history of the German Empire centers around the activity of Bismarck. It was his mind which put in form the unusual federal institutions of the empire and it was his manipulation that gave them their development. As soon as the empire was fairly established, Bismarck was involved in two constitutional conflicts, in neither of which he was successful.

In the new German Empire a small majority was Protestant and the large Catholic population had long looked to Catholic Austria rather than to Protestant Prussia for leadership. In the first elections of the empire the Catholic party, called the Center, won 63 seats. Apparently the Church meant to interfere in politics. This aroused Bismarck, who inaugurated the struggle known as the *Kulturkampf*. The Reichstag forbade the religious orders to engage in teaching; in 1872 the Jesuits were expelled from Germany, and by the "May Laws" of 1873 to 1875, the Roman Catholic clergy were forbidden to interfere in civil affairs, were required to study their theology at a state university and to pass state examinations; the state took over the power of inspection of all Catholic seminaries, and suppressed the religious orders. Bismarck summed up his policy in the saying: "I shall not go to Canossa." Politically the policy was a failure, for in 1877 the Center grew to 92 votes, the largest fraction in the Reichstag. Convinced that the policy of suppression was useless, Bismarck tried conciliation. The anticlerical legislation was little by little repealed; and the Center, from being the irreconcilable party, became one of the supporters of Bismarck's measures.

A second and lasting domestic problem was socialism. The Socialist party, founded by Lassalle in 1848, was broken up; but it reappeared in 1863 in two groups which united in 1875. In its original platform the party demanded the abolition of capitalistic society and the foundation of a socialist state which should control the instruments of production. It also demanded a free state in which there should be universal suffrage for men and women of the age of 20, the secret ballot, free speech, free association, and a free press. The growth of the party was phenomenal. In 1871 it cast a popular vote of 142,000; in 1874 it more than doubled; and in 1877 it grew to nearly 500,000. Owing to the artificial distribution in the Reichstag, by which the great cities were underrepresented, the Socialists obtained only nine seats; but outside among the people the party was the growing and popular one.

Bismarck determined to crush the Socialists by a two-fold policy — repression and "inoculation." By a law of October, 1878, associations, meetings, and publications having for their object "the subversion of the social order" were forbidden. Police officers received large powers of arrest and the right to expel Socialists from the country. If martial law were proclaimed — an easy matter — the ordinary courts ceased to protect the liberties of the Socialists. This law was vigorously applied; over 14,000 publications were suppressed, 1,500 Socialists were imprisoned, and 900 were banished. The first effect of the law seemed to justify its passage, for in the election of 1881 the Socialist vote decreased by about 190,000; but in 1884 it rose to nearly 500,000, in 1887 to over 760,000, and in 1890 to 1,427,000. Suppression of the Socialists, like that of the Catholics, meant only a larger number of more active opponents.

Bismarck's policy of inoculation consisted in trying to break the force of the movement by improving the condition of the working class. He drafted and secured a comprehensive system of insurance against accident, sickness, old age, and incapacity. He aimed to prevent pauperism by pensions to the dependent. This was virtually a kind of state socialism. The Socialists still refused to support the government. They were democrats, while Bismarck was an absolutist.

Three other features of Bismarck's policy should be mentioned. The first was his system of protective duties. He believed that Germany to be strong must be rich and prosperous, and, therefore, framed tariffs which assured to the Germans greater control of German markets; thus he encouraged the agrarian party of agricultural Prussia and the industrial party of the rapidly developing manufacturing centers.

The second great state policy was that of foreign alliances. After a period of the *Dreikaiserbund*, Three Emperors' League (Germany, Russia, and Austria), in 1879 he definitely adopted the policy of a close alliance with Austria, which provided that if either power were attacked by Russia both countries would coöperate with the whole of their military power and conclude no peace except conjointly. If either Germany or Austria should be attacked by any other power, the ally might remain neutral, unless Russia should take part, when both would act together. In 1882 Italy, irritated at the French seizure of Tunis, joined Austria and Germany, thus forming the Triple Alliance which until 1914 was one of the dominating features in European diplomacy.

A third policy of Bismarck's was the acquisition of colonies. Long after 1871 he was opposed to colonization or colonial conquests, but energetic merchants began to trade in Africa and the Pacific, and German settlements were made in the tropics. In 1880 the Colonial Society was founded; and in 1884 Bismarck himself adopted a vigorous colonial policy, which after his retirement resulted in the establishment of a colonial empire in Africa and the Pacific. The spirit of German colonization differed from that of England. With little regard for the rights or welfare of the natives, the Germans concentrated their attention upon the development of the material resources and the making of the colonies as profitable to Germany as possible.

Emperor William I. died March 9, 1888, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick III., who reigned only until June 15. Had Frederick lived, it is supposed that more liberal ideas might have been adopted. He was succeeded (June 15, 1888) by his son, William II., a young man of twenty-nine years, as Emperor and King of Prussia. The German constitutional system gave to the sovereign of Prussia tremendous power and influence; the federal constitution gave the kingdom of Prussia predominance, and the personality of the ruler was significant. William II. was a man of active mind and fertile imagination, self-confident, ambitious, versatile, and vigorous. He attempted to excel in everything; in war, in music, in art, and in literature; and he concentrated in his own hands the vast political power which William I. had exercised through his chancellor. In 1890 Bismarck was dismissed, and from that time on, although there were seven chancellors, there was but one ruling personality — the emperor.

The reign of William II. is remarkable for the wonderful economic development of Germany. The high protective tariff gave German merchants the advantage in the domestic market, and state aids and subsidies helped to build up a vast export and shipping trade. Germany prospered in a material way, and began to rival England in commerce. The colonial empire founded by Bismarck was developed and exploited for the benefit of the German merchants. The army, the strongest in Europe in 1870, became even stronger and was the most perfectly equipped, drilled, and prepared military force which the world had seen. Not content with possessing the strongest land force in the world, the emperor attempted to rival England's naval power, in particular by the law of 1897, which instead of simply providing for the building of a certain number of ships adopted a comprehensive naval program that was designed to be permanent and which was later greatly increased.

The prosperity of Germany and her desire for "a place in the sun," taken in connection with this overwhelming military and naval force, made her arrogant in dealing with other states. Thus she joined in the protest which deprived Japan of the fruits of her victory in the war with China, while in China she was the most ruthless in exacting the reparation that resulted in the virtual annexation of Kiaochow. With France in 1906 and again in 1911 relations were strained because of Germany's attitude over French influence in Morocco. Secure in her own strength and in that of her allies, Italy and Austria, Germany felt able to defy the rest of Europe.

On Bismarck's retirement (1890) Emperor William II refused to renew the oppressive laws; and the Socialists rapidly gained both in popular vote and in representation in the Reichstag. In 1893 they polled 1,800,000 votes and elected 44 members; in 1896 over 2,000,000 votes and elected 57 members; in 1903 the party polled over 3,000,000 votes and gained 79 seats in the Reichstag. In 1912 it received 4,250,000 votes and elected 110 members, even from the Potsdam district, in which the emperor resided. This vote was much greater than the strength of the Socialist party, for it offered the only effective means of opposing the government.

The Socialist organization instead of opposing all reforms undertaken by the government and attempting at once to establish a socialistic state, cooperated with the government in humanitarian legislation. When the World War broke out, the so-called majority Socialists would not face the odium of being the only party to oppose a nationalistic war. A small group, however, the minority Socialists, adhered to their original doctrines and refused to cooperate with the government either in war or peace.

Germany not only prospered in a material way, but in education she was in the lead of other countries. Her schools and universities were considered models. Her cities were the best governed in the world. Much was done to alleviate the condition of the poor and the working class. Her people seemed contented and prosperous. But her government was neither free nor democratic. The state controlled all activities, and by means of skillfully conducted propaganda swayed public opinion as desired. Hence, when Germany supported Austria in the dispute with Serbia and involved all Europe in the World War, the German subjects supported the emperor with little hesitation or objection.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

On the declaration of war in 1914 the German military machine functioned perfectly. The troops were mobilized, and the vast preparations made years in advance came into use. The initial victories brought great encouragement to the people. Even when the pressure of the blockade was felt, the victories in Russia and Italy and even in France were used to sustain the spirits of the people. Years of drill and state control had their effect in preventing risings against lack of fuel, food, and clothing. Not until the army in France was driven back and defeated and the military machine was incapable of pushing forward did the revolution come.

Although the emperor changed his chancellors twice between August, 1914, and October, 1918, in the effort to avoid parliamentary crises, there is no evidence that the course of the government was seriously affected by popular sentiment. In 1918, however, Prince Maximilian of Baden became chancellor, with the avowed intention of rehabilitating the government, which had suffered in prestige as the result of the military defeats. Reforms were promised, but it was too late; and on November 9 it was announced that the emperor had abdicated. On the same day a popular government was set up under Ebert and the emperor fled to Holland.

After several months of disorder, a national assembly was held at Weimar in February, 1919, at which Friedrich Ebert was elected president of the German Republic and a constitution was adopted July 31, 1919. The most humiliating act which the new government had to perform was the ratification of the treaty imposed upon Germany by the Allies on July 9. By this treaty Germany lost Alsace-Lorraine, the use of the mines in the Saar Valley, large belts of eastern Germany which were ceded to Poland, and all her colonial empire. In addition an indefinite war indemnity was imposed, the surrender of much of her mercantile fleet was demanded, her army was reduced to an internal police force and her navy to a fleet of the smallest dimensions.

Organization.

Government. The government of the modern German Empire established in 1871 was federal in form. However, unlike other federal states, unequal powers were given to the component members. The executive authority was invested in an emperor, who was entitled to it as king of Prussia; and also in the Bundesrath, an assembly of instructed delegates representing the states which composed the empire. The Bundesrath was the most typically Germanic institution established by the constitution. Of the 61 votes in this assembly, Prussia held 17, Bavaria 6, Saxony 4, Württemberg 4, Baden 3, Hesse 3, Alsace-Lorraine 3 (since 1911), Mecklenburg-Schwerin 2, Brunswick 2, and seventeen other states 1 apiece. Through internal arrangements, with three of the smaller states, Prussia controlled their votes.

Under all circumstances, Prussia was able to control enough votes to make a majority. The delegates to the Bundesrath were not chosen by the people, but appointed by the governments of the states, usually the prime minister and other high officials. Thus the emperor, as king of Prussia, appointed the delegates who cast the 17 votes of Prussia according to his instructions. As emperor he also controlled the three votes of Alsace-Lorraine, and as king of Prussia, those of Waldeck and Brunswick. The additional vote to make a majority could always be had from the weak northern states, which were really dependencies of Prussia.

The Bundesrath was the active power in the government, both legislative and executive. It prepared and introduced bills, which were discussed and voted on in the Bundesrath before submission to the Reichstag, and any amendment which the Reichstag made must be ratified by the Bundesrath as final. The executive authority of the Bundesrath consisted in the power to issue ordinances and, in conjunction with the emperor, to declare war, conclude treaties, and punish delinquent states. In addition, with the assent of the emperor, the Bundesrath might dissolve the Reichstag; and, with the emperor, it shared certain appointing powers.

The Reichstag consisted of 397 members, chosen by direct secret ballot from single-member districts which were constituted in 1871. The unprecedented growth of cities and the shifting of the population to industrial centers made the distribution of seats more and more unfair. In the Reichstag, Prussia had 236 members, a number less than she was entitled to by population. Laws were ordinarily initiated in the Bundesrath, where they were framed by the imperial chancellor, and where under the constitution Prussia, besides its normal influence, had a specific veto on any change in legislation concerning the army, navy, or taxes.

The emperor was commander in chief of the army and navy, represented the empire in foreign affairs, and negotiated treaties. As king of Prussia, he instructed the chancellor as to what legislation should be introduced in the Bundesrath and controlled the votes of Prussia in that body, votes which would prevent the change of the constitution or the alteration of any law concerning the army or navy or taxes. He was thus both constitutionally and actually the most powerful constitutional monarch in the world.

To assist him the imperial chancellor was appointed, who generally was head of the Prussian delegation to the Bundesrath and minister president of Prussia. It was this curious and complicated interlacing of imperial and royal powers which made Bismarck willing to consent to Prussia's apparent misrepresentation in the Reichstag and Bundesrath. It was this, also, that made Prussia and its king the almost absolute arbiter of German affairs.

The constitution of the present German Republic, adopted July 31, 1919, while nominally creating a federal state, actually provides for a unitary state. The powers which the national government exercise are wider both in legislation and execution than those of the former German Empire. The tendency toward centralization is emphasized in the new republic. The legislative power is vested in a Reichstag and National Council. The Reichstag is chosen for four years on the basis of universal equal suffrage, direct and secret votes, by all men and women over the age of 20, in accordance with the principles of proportional representation, but may be dissolved by the president of the republic. The National Council consists of one delegate from each state and one delegate for every million inhabitants which any state may possess in excess of the population of the smallest state. No state, however, shall be entitled to more than two fifths of all the members, and half of the Prussian delegates must be chosen by the provincial administrations of Prussia.

The president of the republic is elected by the voters for a term of seven years, but may be deposed by a recall vote if requested by the Reichstag. His executive power is exercised by a chancellor and ministers, who must retain the confidence of the Reichstag; thus, a government responsible to the people is at last introduced. Legislation requires the assent of the Reichstag and the National Council, but if the president decrees a law approved by the Reichstag, it may be referred to the people; and if the National Council shall twice refuse to accept a legislative proposal of the Reichstag, the president may refer it to the people; or if the Reichstag rejects the protest of the National Council by a majority of two thirds, the proposal becomes a law without the assent of the National Council. The constitution in great detail enumerates the rights and duties of citizens, their social, religious, and economic life, and provides for education. In many respects it resembles some of the state constitutions in the United States in that it seems to establish a code of laws in addition to a frame of government.

Industry and Labor. Before the war, Germany was both an agricultural and industrial country. In western Germany small holdings were the rule, while in the eastern part, vast estates with tenant farmers were customary. The chief agricultural products, in order of yield, were potatoes, hay, rye, oats, and wheat, but Germany was forced to import foodstuffs. Forestry was conducted on scientific principles and was of great importance. The mineral products were varied, the most important being coal, lignite, iron ore, and potassic salt. The coal and iron fields in German Lorraine were rich and important, and in 1911 Germany produced over $200,000,000 worth of pig iron. German manufactures include iron and steel, textiles of all sorts, beet sugar, glass, porcelain, earthenware, optical instruments, dyestuffs, beer, and machinery. Of her exports, in 1913, the most important were metals and manufactures thereof, agricultural products, textiles, and machinery. Her export trade went to all countries in the world, but in 1913 Great Britain was her largest customer, after which came Austria, Russia, France, and the United States.

Religion. Under the former empire there was entire liberty of conscience and no imperial state church though both the Catholic and the Protestant clergy were supported by taxation or the states. Under the republic the same liberty exists nor is there a state church. Sixty-one per cent of the population is Protestant and thirty-six per cent Catholic, while one per cent are Jews. In 1905 the Roman Catholics were in the majority in Alsace-Lorraine, Bavaria, Baden, and the Rhine provinces and Polish districts of Prussia; and in four other states they formed more than twenty per cent of the population.

Education. In the former empire, education was compulsory and general throughout the Empire; and in 1911 there were more than 61,000 elementary public schools, with more than 180,000 teachers and more than 10,000,000 pupils. Secondary education was highly organized, severe, and thorough and included technical schools. There were 23 universities, with a total of more than 53,000 students; the oldest was Heidelberg, founded in 1386.

The constitution of the new republic provides for compulsory education in the popular schools for at least eight years, to be followed by continuation schools until the eighteenth year. Instruction, books, and apparatus in all schools are free, and aid is provided for students in poor circumstances. State supervision of private schools is established. The former distinction between schools for the lower classes and the higher classes is abolished.

Defense. As a result of the treaty of 1919, Germany, from being the most militaristic of states, has become one of the weakest military states. Her army is fixed by the treaty at 100,000 and must be recruited on the voluntary basis by enlistment for 12 consecutive years, officers serving for 25 years. The activities of the general staff are reduced, military schools are to be suppressed, no reserves are allowed, and the amount of munitions and armaments is limited. The naval force is limited to 6 battleships, 6 light cruisers, 12 destroyers, and 12 torpedo boats; and the personnel of the navy must not exceed 15,000, recruited entirely from volunteers for periods of 25 years for officers and 12 for the men. Germany is allowed to retain a hundred unarmed seaplanes and an air force of 1,000 men.

In 1910 the date of the last census, the **area** of Germany was 208,780 square miles and the **population** 64,925,993. As a result of the treaty, Germany has lost Alsace-Lorraine on the west and on the east large portions of German Poland, Danzig, and part of southeastern Silesia. It is estimated that the present area (1919) is about 171,910 square miles and the population about 55,086,000.

FORMER GERMAN COLONIAL EMPIRE.

The German colonial empire, before the World War, had an area of 1,023,400 square miles containing an estimated native population of nearly 13,000,000. The white population, however, was only a little over 20,000. This territory was chiefly in Africa, where Germany was an aggressive participant in the partition of the continent. In addition, she held the very valuable naval base at Kiaochow in China and numerous islands in the Pacific.

These colonies were all under practically the same form of government. Each was administered by an imperial commissioner, who in almost every case was assisted by a council. Scant attention was paid to the needs of the natives, and the purpose of the colonies was to develop and expand German trade and to increase the prestige of the empire, with an unfounded expectation that part of the rapidly increasing home population would settle in these tropical possessions.

By the treaty of 1919, Germany ceded all her over-sea possessions to the Allied and Associated Powers to be disposed of as they should see fit. In the sections of the Peace Treaty dealing with the League of Nations, a system of mandatory powers was established. By this system, nations not able to maintain their independence, such as those be-

longing to the Turkish Empire and those in central Africa, southwest Africa, and the southern Pacific islands, are to be administered by a mandatory power under conditions prescribed by the League. The mandatary would have no right of exploitation, but would administer the country for its own benefit. A few such mandataries were established in 1920.

FORMER GERMAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

TOGO.

Togoland with its dependencies is on the Gulf of Guinea, between the Gold Coast colony and French Dahomey. It has an area of 33,700 square miles, and an estimated colored population (1913) of over a million. In 1918 the European population was 110, of whom one was German. The climate is cool for the tropics and the country is hilly. Tropical products abound, and there is a considerable amount of live stock. The principal exports are cocoa, palm kernels, palm oil, cotton, and rubber which in the year before the World War were valued at more than $2,000,000. By the treaty of 1919 Togo was divided between the British and French, the former obtaining about one third of the territory but no seacoast.

KAMERUN.

Kamerun protectorate lies between British Nigeria and the French Congo. In 1911 it was increased by cessions from the French Congo, and had an area of 191,130 square miles, with a population of 2,540,000, of whom 1,871 were whites. The soil on the coast region is fertile, and numerous valuable tropical vegetable products, particularly cocoa, grow in profusion, and the rubber tree and oil palms flourish. Experiments have been made in the cultivation of spices, and there is an active trade in ivory. Valuable hard woods, notably ebony, are found. The German government maintained four schools, which 868 pupils attended. There is a railroad 149 miles long. By the treaty of 1919, Kamerun passed under the joint administration of Great Britain and France.

PROTECTORATE OF SOUTHWEST AFRICA.

German Southwest Africa lies south of Angola (Portuguese West Africa), west of Bechuanaland, and north of the Cape of Good Hope Province. The area is 322,200 square miles and the native population was estimated (1913) at 150,000. The whole southern region and much of the east is desert. It was formerly occupied by six native races: the Bushmen, Hottentots, Damaras, Hereros, Ovampos, and Griquas (Bastaards). The Hereros were originally a nomad and pastoral people, but as a result of the war with Germany were reduced from 100,000 to less than 20,000. The Ovampos, living in the northern part, are the most numerous native race in the protectorate. They are an agricultural people and understand the working of iron.

The colony has been chiefly agricultural and pastoral, raising enormous herds of cattle, sheep, goats, and horses. Copper, lead, and diamonds have been found, the latter small in size, but of good quality. In 1912 the exports were nearly $10,000,000. The colony was conquered by the South African forces under General Botha in 1915, and is now (1920) administered by the Union of South Africa under a mandate.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

What was formerly German East Africa is a protectorate on the Indian Ocean, with an area of about 384,180 square miles and a population (1913) of 7,659,898. Although by German law every native born after 1905 was declared free, there were 185,000 serfs under German rule. In 1913 there were 109 government schools, with 6,000 pupils, and schools of 8 missionary societies, with over 100,000 pupils.

On the coast grow forests of mangroves, coco palms, and other tropical trees. Many plantations of coco palms, coffee, vanilla, tobacco, cacao, rubber, tea, sugar, and cotton have been set out. In 1912 the herds of cattle and sheep numbered over 10,000,000 head. The chief exports are rubber, copra, ivory, coffee, and vegetable fiber. German East Africa was invaded by General Smuts and conquered in 1918. By the treaty of 1919 it was placed under an English mandate and is now known as Tanganyika Territory.

FORMER GERMAN POSSESSION IN ASIA.

KIAOCHOW.

Kiaochow, in the province of Shantung, China, was seized by Germany in 1897 as a recompense for the lives of two missionaries. By the treaty of 1898 the town, harbor, and district were "leased" to Germany for 99 years, — practically a cession. The area is about 200 square miles and the population 192,000. The German district is surrounded by a "neutral zone," having an area of 2,500 square miles and a population of 1,200,000. The development of coal mines of the interior, the right to build a railroad to them, and the right to extend it to the west in Shantung province, were parts of the agreement. Germany thus acquired a favored and almost unassailable position in the trade of the rich province of Shantung, with 26,000,000 inhabitants. The exports are straw goods, silk, and coal.

The Japanese government called upon Germany to surrender this protectorate, August 15, 1914, and receiving no reply, declared war. The capital and fortified naval base, Tsingtau, was besieged and captured, November 7, and the control of the protectorate surrendered three days later, since which time it has been administered by the Japanese. By the treaty of 1919 Japan succeeds to Kiaochow and all Germany's "rights and privileges." This so offended the Chinese that they refused to sign the treaty.

FORMER GERMAN POSSESSIONS IN THE PACIFIC.

NEW GUINEA (FORMER GERMAN NEW GUINEA).

German New Guinea included the possessions which Germany formerly occupied in the western Pacific: Kaiser-Wilhelmsland, Bismarck Archipelago, the German Solomon Islands, Caroline Islands, Marshall Islands, Mariana (Ladrone) Islands. Kaiser-Wilhelmsland, Bismarck Archipelago, and the Solomon Islands were occupied by the Australian forces in September, 1914, and by the treaty of 1919 were assigned to the Commonwealth of Australia. By October, 1914, the Japanese had captured the island groups — Caroline, Pelew, Mariana, and Marshall — in the North Pacific and in 1919 the administration of them was assigned to Japan by the treaty.

Kaiser-Wilhelmsland was made a German protectorate in 1884. It has an area of 70,000 square miles and lies 2° south of the equator. The native population has been estimated at between 110,000 and 530,000. Tropical fruits grow abundantly, particularly coconuts; and the land is rich in mineral wealth, which is very slightly developed.

Bismarck Archipelago is the name given to several groups of islands east of New Guinea, having an area of approximately 15,570 square miles and a white population of less than 1,000. The products are copra, cotton, coffee, and rubber. The largest island is New Britain, on which is the seat of the government, Rabaul, with a population of 800.

The **Solomon Islands,** lying southeast of Bismarck Archipelago, were acquired by Germany in 1886. The natives raise tropical products and are skillful fishermen, but there is practically little European trade. The European population numbered 60.

The **Caroline, Pelew,** and **Mariana** (or **Ladrone**) **Islands,** with the exception of Guam, which was ceded to the United States, passed from Spain to Germany in 1899 by purchase. American missionaries entered the Carolines in 1852. The population is mostly of Malay origin and the chief export is copra.

Yap is an island in the western subdivision of the Caroline Islands. It was held by Germany at the beginning of the World War. Yap was transferred to Germany by Spain with the rest of the Carolines on June 30, 1899. It was occupied by the Japanese October 21, 1914. It was claimed for the United States during the conference in Paris in 1919, but was not transferred. Its value to the United States would be as a cable and coaling station on the transpacific route. The **area** is 79 square miles and the **population** 7,000.

The **Marshall Islands** came under German rule in 1885. They have an area of 150 square miles and a population of 15,000. There are extensive plantations of coco palms and the chief export is phosphate.

SAMOA ISLANDS.

The **Samoa Islands,** formerly called Navigators Islands, lie in Polynesia, south of the equator. Germany, Great Britain, and the United States all claimed rights in this group; but in 1899 Great Britain ceded her claims to Germany in return for several of the Solomon Islands. By agreement, in 1900, between Germany and the United States, the meridian 171° east of Greenwich was made a delimitation, leaving to Germany all to the west and to the United States all to the east. The area of German Samoa is about 1,000 square miles. The population (census 1917) was 41,128. Copra and cocoa beans are the principal exports. In addition to the government, the American, English, and French missionaries maintain schools, and have brought the natives into nominal acceptance of Christianity.

At the end of August, 1914, the British occupied German Samoa and the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 gave New Zealand a mandate over the islands.

Chronology

Germany and Former Possessions.

For events earlier in the history of Germany, see Medieval Period, *Chronology,* and Early Modern Period, *Chronology.*

1648. *Oct. 24.* **Peace of Westphalia** adjusts the political relations of Germany. Recognition of right of Protestant sovereigns to establish that religion in their domains. Holy Roman Empire continues in weak form. Large states, small states, free cities, and ecclesiastical sovereigns represented in the Diet. Eight electoral princes (later nine). Influence of France, Spain, and Sweden in German affairs admitted. Austria recognized leader in German affairs, but Prussia begins to rise.

1657. Poland by the Treaty of Wehlau gives up suzerainty over **duchy of Prussia** to **Brandenburg,** under the leadership of **Frederick William, the Great Elector.**

1658. *July 18.* Leopold I. elected emperor, a year after the death of Ferdinand III.

1661. **War with the Turks** begins.

1664. *Aug. 1.* Count Raimund de Montecuccoli, leader of the imperial forces, **defeats the Turks** in the battle of St. Gothard. Truce of twenty years concluded in favor of the Turks. German powers become involved in a war with France (see France). [(see France).]

1675. French under Condé defeat Montecuccoli.

1679. *Feb. 6.* **Peace of Nimwegen** (Nijmegen) signed by France and Germany.

1681 French occupy Strassburg; hold it till 1871.

1682. Second war with the Turks begins (see Austria-Hungary).

1687. Leopold compels the **Hungarians** to **recognize the Hapsburgs** as their hereditary ruling house. [many.]

1688. **French renew the campaign** against Ger-

1689. The Palatinate is harried by the French, but the Germans are victorious on the Rhine. Some of the dispossessed people find their way to the English colonies of Pennsylvania and New York.

1692. Hanover becomes an electorate.

1697. *Sept. 11.* Prince Eugene of Savoy defeats the Turks at **Zenta.**

1699. *Jan. 26.* **Peace of Karlowitz** with Turkey; end of the Turkish danger to Europe.

1700–1789. Germany, except some of the free cities, falls into the hands of petty rulers who set up absolute governments on the model of Louis XIV. Triumph of "*Kleinstaaterei*" (system of small states); at the same time a period of **great intellectual activity;** age of Schiller, Lessing, and Goethe. **German universities** become places of scientific research and teaching. Awful **witchcraft delusion** and persecutions cease. Judicial torture loses ground. Many Germans emigrate to Hungary, Bohemia, Russia, and the Baltic Provinces; others to America (Pennsylvania Germans or "Dutch," Moravians, Mennonites, Salzburgers). System of **standing armies introduced,** especially in Prussia, and used in four great European wars between 1689 and 1763, besides many local wars. Frederick the Great builds up the best army of the century and is the most renowned commander.

1701. *Jan. 18.* Frederick III. of Brandenburg, by the consent of the emperor, crowns himself king of Prussia, as Frederick I.

1705. *May. 5.* **Joseph I.** becomes emperor on death of his father, Leopold I.

1711. *April 17.* Joseph dies; succeeded as emperor by his brother, **Charles VI.,** October 12.

1713. *Feb. 25.* **Frederick William I.** succeeds his father, Frederick I., as king of Prussia.

April 11. **Peace of Utrecht** ends War of the Spanish Succession. Neuchâtel ceded to Prussia.

1724. Emperor Charles VI., having no sons, proclaims the **pragmatic sanction** (framed in 1713) in order to secure the succession of his Austrian dominions to the female line, after having negotiated for its acceptance with the other powers.

1725. Austria and Spain having formed an alliance to support the pragmatic sanction, Great Britain, France, and Prussia unite to oppose it.

1726. Austria and Prussia conclude the Treaty of Wusterhausen.

1731. Protestants are driven out of Salzburg by the prince bishop; some of the refugees make their way to America to become colonists in Georgia.

1733. *Feb. 1.* Augustus II., elector of Saxony and king of Poland, dies; succeeded in Saxony by his son Frederick Augustus II. In September, the Poles elect their former king, Stanislas Leszczynski, chiefly through the influence of Louis XV. of France. Thereupon the **War of the Polish Succession** begins. (See France and Russia.)

1738. *Nov. 18.* War ends with the Treaty of Vienna between Charles VI. and Louis XV.

1740. *May 31.* Frederick William I., king of Prussia, dies; succeeded by **Frederick II. (the Great).**

Oct. 20. Emperor Charles VI. dies; according to the pragmatic sanction, he is succeeded in Austria by his daughter, **Maria Theresa,** but this succession is disputed (see Austria). Frederick II. of Prussia demands the surrender of Silesia and makes a campaign into that province in December, beginning War of Austrian Succession.

1742. *Jan. 24.* Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, is chosen emperor of Germany as Charles VII.

1745. *Jan. 30.* Charles VII. dies. Maximilian Joseph, who succeeds him in Bavaria, makes peace with Maria Theresa of Austria. Francis Stephen, grand duke of Tuscany and husband of Maria Theresa, is elected emperor of Germany

1745 (*continued*).
as **Francis I.**, September 13. Treaty at Dresden, between Prussia, Austria, and Saxony, ends the war in Silesia, which is ceded (1748) to Prussia.

1748. *Oct. 18.* **War of the Austrian Succession** ends with Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (see AUSTRIA).

1756. Seven Years' War begins. Frederick invades Saxony, and captures Dresden (see AUSTRIA).

1757. Frederick the Great threatened with the ban of the empire, but Brunswick, Hesse, Gotha, and Hanover remain in alliance with Prussia. **Russia and Austria** form a treaty for the **division of Prussia,** January, and in May Austria makes a treaty with **France** of the same purport. **Great Britain,** on the other hand, allies herself with **Prussia.** Prussians invade Bohemia. August 30, Russians defeat the Prussians at Gross-Jägersdorf. November 5, Frederick defeats the imperial army and the French allies at **Rossbach;** Frederick then leads his army into Silesia.

1758. *June 23.* Ferdinand of Brunswick is victorious over the French at **Krefeld.**

Aug. 25. Frederick defeats the Russians at **Zorndorf.** Austrians are victorious at **Hochkirch,** October 14.

1759. *Aug. 12.* Allies overwhelm Frederick at **Kunersdorf,** and imperial army captures Dresden.

1760. *Aug. 15.* Frederick defeats the Austrians at **Liegnitz.** In October, Russians surprise Berlin. November 3, Austrians, under Daun, are routed at **Torgau.** [at Bunzelwitz.]

1761. Frederick opposes Austrians and Russians[

1762. *March 16.* Russia makes a truce with Prussia, and this is followed, on May 5, by the **Peace of St. Petersburg,** Russia restoring her conquests. The Peace of Hamburg with Sweden is concluded on May 22. Frederick defeats the Austrians at Berkersdorf, July 21; the Austrians are routed at Freiberg, October 29.

1763. *Feb. 15.* **Peace of Hubertsburg** is signed by Prussia and Austria; Silesia finally ceded to Prussia; thus ends the Seven Years' War.

1765. *Aug. 18.* **Joseph II.** elected emperor, succeeding his father, Francis I.

1772. In the **first partition of Poland,** Prussia receives West Prussia except Danzig.

1778. Death of Maximilian Joseph, elector of Bavaria, in December, 1777, without direct heirs, leads to the **War of the Bavarian Succession.** By the Treaty of Vienna, Joseph II. secures from Charles Theodore, elector palatine (the legal heir of Bavaria), a recognition of Austrian claims to Lower Bavaria and part of the Upper Palatinate. Prussia and Saxony oppose and an almost bloodless war results in Treaty of Teschen, in May, 1779.

1785. In order to oppose the designs of Austria in relation to Bavaria, Frederick the Great, in July, forms a **league of German princes,** including those of Prussia, Saxony, and Hanover; the league is afterwards joined by several other states.

1786. *Aug. 17.* **Frederick William II.** succeeds to the throne of Prussia on the death of his uncle, Frederick the Great. [(see NETHERLANDS).]

1787. Prussia interferes in the affairs of Holland[

1789. French Revolution greatly **affects Germany,** inasmuch as various German princes and lords hold feudal estates in France; and the movement to restrict royalty strikes at German absolutism. Danger to the French royal family rouses Austria and Prussia. French abrogation of all feudal rights affects the agricultural laborers, who in many parts are German and are serfs of the crown or of the owners of the estates.

1790. *Feb. 20.* Joseph II. dies. His brother, Leopold II., elected emperor, September 30.

1791. *Aug. 27.* Leopold II. and Frederick William II. meet at Pillnitz and proclaim their **support of the Loyalists of France** against revolution there.

1792. *March 1.* Leopold II. dies; his son, Francis, elected emperor as Francis II., July 5.

1793. Grand **coalition against France** is formed by Austria, Prussia, and the German Empire, with England, Holland, Spain, and Naples (see FRANCE). Austria acts independently of the empire at first, but on March 22, 1793, the Diet for the Empire declares war against France.
In the **second Partition of Poland,** Prussia acquires the western portion and Danzig.

1794. Prussia with Austria aids the Russians against the Poles (see RUSSIA).

1795. In the **third Partition of Poland** Prussia gains Warsaw.

1797. *Nov. 16.* Frederick William II. dies; succeeded by his son, **Frederick William III.,** as king of Prussia.

1801. Francis II. and Napoleon conclude the **Peace of Lunéville,** by which France receives all the territory west of the Rhine, February 9 (see FRANCE).

1803. *Feb. 25. Reichsdeputationshauptschluss* (main report of the imperial committee), for the indemnification of princes losing the territory ceded to France with territories made up from the imperial free cities and ecclesiastical states, which become "mediatized." These changes **secularize the Holy Roman Empire.** In the Diet of the old empire the Catholics had 56 votes to 44 of the Protestants. In the reorganized empire the Protestants have about 52 votes to 30 of the Catholics.

1804. *Aug. 14.* Emperor Francis II. assumes the new title of "Hereditary Emperor of Austria."

1806. *Aug. 1.* Formation of the **Confederation of the Rhine** by sixteen states of the empire and their consequent secession and allegiance with France announced.

Aug. 6. Francis II. under the dictation of Napoleon, **dissolves the Holy Roman Empire,** and announces that he will rule as Hereditary Emperor of Austria.

1807. *July 9.* **Treaty of Tilsit** with France signed by Prussia; Prussia cedes to France her territories west of the Elbe and her recently acquired dominions in Poland (see FRANCE). Kingdom of Westphalia created by Napoleon out of German states which have been part of the empire.
Reforms of Stein, the great Prussian Liberal minister, include the abolition of serfdom and judicial torture, founding of free schools for popular education, and the Scharnhorst military system.

1809. *January.* Stein forced to flee because of Napoleon's antagonism; he has also gone too far in reforms to suit the king. **Hardenberg** becomes **premier.** [many.]

1810. French annex a large **part of north Ger-**

1813. Confederation of the Rhine and kingdom of Westphalia abolished; **French driven back** to the Rhine (see FRANCE for fall of Napoleon's power over central Europe).

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *June 9.* General act of the **Congress of Vienna** (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD). A small part of the former Polish territory, also Pomerania, Danzig, and other German territories, including the right bank of the Rhine, go to Prussia, whose territory is thus divided into disconnected areas; the design, which is to weaken Prussia, in the end makes it a leading power. Ansbach and Bayreuth go to Bavaria. Brunswick, Hesse-Cassel, and Oldenburg established as independent states, and Hanover made a kingdom. Hamburg, Bremen, Frankfurt am Main, and Lübeck regain their autonomy. Most of the Lower Palatinate reunited to Bavaria. Baden confirmed in the possession of Heidelberg and Mannheim. Würzburg joined to Bavaria. The reorganized states unite in a **German Confederation** (*Bund*).

September. Monarchs of Prussia, Austria, and Russia unite in the **Holy Alliance** (see NINETEENTH CENTURY PERIOD).

1816. Representative government established in Saxe-Weimar by the grand duke, Charles Augustus. **Diet of the German Confederation,** composed of delegates appointed by the rulers of the various states, opens its sessions, November 5.

1817. Lutheran and Calvinist Churches of Prussia unite to form the **United Evangelical Church.** The three-hundredth anniversary of Reformation in Germany is celebrated. Student festival at the Wartburg gives great offense to the absolutists.

1818. Tariff reform in Prussia inaugurates the policy which is to lead to the **Customs Union** (*Zollverein*).

1819. Congress at Karlsbad, in which the influence of **Metternich** predominates; resolutions to establish a censorship of the press adopted.

1820. *May.* Final act, signed at Vienna, completes constitution of **German Confederation.**

1822–1829. Period of stagnation in Germany.

1830. *September.* Duke Charles expelled by **revolution in Brunswick;** at the same time radical agitations disturb Saxony and Hesse-Cassel.

1831. William II., elector of Hesse-Cassel, compelled to issue a **new constitution;** government of Saxony changed to a more democratic form.

1832. Liberals of Germany hold a congress at Hambach. Many persecutions follow.

1833. *April.* Attempts to foment a **revolution** occur at Frankfurt am Main; followed by reactionary legislation. In Hanover, however, a liberal constitution is granted by the viceroy, the Duke of Cambridge.

1834. *Jan. 1.* **German Customs Union,** or *Zollverein*, founded as result of the policy of Prussia.

1840. *June 7.* **Frederick William III. dies;** succeeded as king of Prussia by his son **Frederick William IV.**

1844. A Catholic movement begun. Multitudes of persons make pilgrimages to Treves to view the "holy coat."

1848. Revolutionary movements of magnitude begin in Germany, as result of the French Revolution. February 27, a popular assembly gathers at Mannheim under the leadership of **Itzstein,** and insists on a German parliament, trial by jury, a free press, and the right of assembly and organization. March 11, these changes are adopted in Hesse. March 18, conflicts occur in the streets of Berlin; the king orders the troops to withdraw from the city, March 19, and **anarchy** reigns in the capital. The king declares that pressure will unite Germany. March 20, Louis I. of Bavaria abdicates in favor of his son, Maximilian II. **Insurrections** also occur in Saxony, Hanover, Nassau, Mecklenburg, and Baden.

March 31. A preliminary parliament opened in Frankfurt under Mittermaier as president. Ultimately resolved to convene a constituent assembly for the purpose of preparing a **constitution** for a German empire. A **German National Assembly,** or Parliament, meets in Frankfurt, May 18, to prepare a constitution for a liberal and united Germany. John, archduke of Austria, elected administrator of the empire by the Assembly, and on June 11, he enters Frankfurt. The confederate council dissolves and the first federal ministry is formed, with Schmerling of Austria minister of foreign affairs.

November. **Tide of reaction sets in,** and in Prussia the troops enter Berlin without resistance, November 10, Prussian National Assembly removes the place of its session to Brandenburg.
In this year, **war with Denmark** breaks out over Schleswig-Holstein (see DENMARK).

1849. Constitution of the German Empire completed, providing a Diet, made up of a chamber of state, one half appointed by the governments, the other by popular representatives of the states, but retaining a monarchical head with only a suspensive veto. April 3, the **crown is offered to the king of Prussia,** but he declines the offer, nominally because it comes from the people and not from the sovereign princes, really because Prussia has not the necessary prestige. In May, the office of executive is abolished, and a central power is established, its execution going to Prussia and to Austria alternately.

1850. *Jan. 31.* King of Prussia grants a constitution to the kingdom. Suffrage so arranged as to give the superior power to landed nobility. Constitution lasts till 1918.

March 20. Parliament assembles at Erfurt, and on April 27 a **new German union** is formed. A congress of the princes of the states is held at Berlin in May. In Hesse strife arises over the constitution, and country is declared in a state of war.

Nov. 29. After an open rupture, Prussia and Austria meet in **Conference of Olmütz.** Prussia yields to Austria, agreeing not to strive for the headship — a great humiliation to Prussia.

1851. *May 15.* German **Confederation,** with the Diet, **restored.**

1858. Prince William of Prussia made regent for his brother, Frederick William IV.

1861. *Jan. 2.* Prince William becomes king of Prussia as **William I.** [ister in Prussia.]

1862. *September.* **Bismarck** becomes prime min-

1864. Prussia united with Austria in another war over **Schleswig-Holstein** with Denmark (see DENMARK); by Treaty of Vienna, Oct. 30, Denmark renounces Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg.

1865. Schleswig-Holstein is divided by the two powers, Prussia controlling Schleswig and Austria ruling Holstein, while Lauenburg goes to Prussia.

1866. Crisis and **war between Austria and Prussia** for control over the confederation brought about by Bismarck. June 14, confederation declares Prussia to be in opposition to the union and designates Austria to force it to obedience. Prussia maintains that this vote is unconstitutional, and she secedes from the confederation and invades Hanover and Hesse; Dresden is occupied on June 18. Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Baden, Hesse, and Württemberg side with Austria. **Italy forms** military **alliance with Prussia** (see ITALY).

June 28. Prussian troops having invaded Bohemia at Münchengrätz, the army of allied Austrians and Saxons is routed. July 3, **battle of Königgratz** results in a complete victory for the Prussians; Prague is occupied and an advance made on Vienna.

July 26. Through French mediation the **Truce of Nikolsburg** is signed. August 23, Prussia and Austria sign the **Peace of Prague.** Austria recognizes the dissolution of the German Confederation; consents to the formation of a new **North German Confederation** north of the river Main. Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfurt are incorporated with Prussia, thus building the territorial bridge needed to connect Brandenburg with the Rhine Province, completing a solid Prussia.

1867. *Feb. 24.* First Diet of the **North German Confederation** assembles, and a constitution is adopted; the **presidency of the confederation** is **united** with the **crown of Prussia,** and Prussia represents the confederation in all international relations. In the Bundesrath Prussia has 17 votes, the total of the other votes being 26. An imperial Diet, or Reichstag, is constituted by manhood suffrage. The centralized military system is under the command of the king of Prussia, and **universal military service** is made compulsory. **Bismarck** made chancellor of the confederation.

March. Diplomatic difficulty with France; she is about to annex Luxemburg when the German Diet interferes. Luxemburg remains practically a commercial dependency of Germany, but its neutrality is guaranteed by the powers, May 11.

1870. *July 19.* **War between France and Germany** (Franco-Prussian War) begins by a French declaration. The occasion is the election of a Hohenzollern to the throne of Spain. A conference of the French ambassador with King William is made by Bismarck's manipulation to appear an insult to France. Real cause of war is the conviction that Napoleon III. is the obstacle to the acceptance of the German Union by the south German states. Most of the frontier fortresses and the city of Paris are taken. The Second Empire falls and the Emperor Napoleon III. is made a state prisoner (see FRANCE).

November. Treaties are made by the North German Confederation with the states of south Germany. December 10, the **unification of Germany** having been thus secured, the Diet decrees the **restoration of the empire.**

1871. *Jan. 18.* All the sovereign princes and the three free cities baving offered the crown to **William I.** of Prussia, he is proclaimed at Versailles **German Emperor.**

Feb. 26. Preliminaries of peace signed with France at Versailles. **France cedes to Germany, Alsace** (with the exception of Belfort) and part of **Lorraine,** with Metz and Diedenhofen, besides agreeing to pay an **indemnity of a billion dollars,** the payment to be secured by German occupation of French territory.

March 21. First session of the Reichstag of the new German Empire opens.

May 10. Definitive **Peace of Frankfurt am Main** signed by France and Germany.

1872. *June.* Reichstag passes an act abolishing all houses of the Jesuits and of affiliated religious bodies in Germany. A **rupture of relations with the Vatican** follows this legislation, and it is not until 1878 that modifications of anti-Catholic legislation are secured.

August. Dreikaiserbund, or Three Emperors' League (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1873. *May 15.* Prussian government proclaims **laws against the Catholics** ("May Laws"); the resistance of the clergy to these enactments leads to the passing of the civil-marriage law and the civil registration of births and deaths. These laws are confirmed by the empire, January 1, 1876.

Sept. 16. Last of the German troops withdraw from France.

1878. *May 4.* An attempt is made upon the life of Emperor William by one Hödel, a German working lad, and on June 2, Karl Nobiling, an educated man, succeeds in inflicting a wound on the sovereign. These attacks are followed, in October, by **legislation against the Socialists.**

June 13. After the Turco-Russian War (see TURKEY and RUSSIA) a **congress of the powers** assembles at Berlin, under the presidency of Bismarck and a general treaty is signed, July 13.

1879. *Oct. 7.* Defensive **alliance** signed **between Germany and Austria-Hungary** aimed at Russia and France. [in Germany.]

1880. An **anti-Semitic movement** is set on foot

1880–1910. Unceasing efforts by the German government to Germanize Alsace-Lorraine, which is treated as a dependency and for years has no local legislature.

1882. *May 20.* **Treaty of the Triple Alliance** — Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy — signed at Vienna.

1883. *May 31.* Law providing for insurance of workingmen against illness passed by Reichstag.

1884. German **colonization in Africa** begins.

March 21. Revival of *Dreikaiserbund* (Three Emperors' League). [against accident passed.]

June 27. Law for the insurance of workingmen

Sept. 15–17. William I. confers with the emperor of Austria-Hungary and the czar of Russia at Skierniewice.

1886. Landtag of Prussia enacts measures for Germanizing the Prussian territories in Poland.

1887. After fourteen years of conflict with the Vatican, the Prussian government is compelled to **abandon** the severest of its **measures against the Catholic Church.**

Alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy renewed, the first of several renewals continuing the alliance down to the World War. Baltic ship canal from Kiel to Brunsbüttel is begun by the imperial government. Increase in German armaments.

1887–1890. Alienation of Russia (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1888. *March 9.* **William I. dies,** is suceeeded by his son, **Frederick III.** After a reign of ninety-nine days, Frederick dies, and his son **William II.** becomes German emperor.

1889. *May 24.* Reichstag enacts a law compelling the **insurance of workingmen** from disabilities caused by old age or accidents.

June 14. Treaty on **Samoa** signed by Germany, Great Britain, and United States, for independence and neutrality of the islands and autonomous government under joint control. Check to German aggression, but does not work satisfactorily. [MESOPOTAMIA).]

Nov. 27. Bagdad railway concession (see

1890. *March 15–19.* **International conference** in Berlin to consider questions affecting the **working classes.**

March 18. Disagreement with the emperor leads to the **resignation and retirement of Bismarck; Caprivi** becomes his successor. Great gain is made by the Radicals and Social Democrats in the elections; also an increase in the representation of the Clericals, or Church party.

July 1. **Anglo-German treaty;** Africa and Helgoland (see AFRICA and GREAT BRITAIN).

1892. Government makes strenuous endeavors to pass a severe **army bill** against the Liberals and Parliamentary Center, backed by the influence of Bismarck. Agitation known as the **Anti-Semitic War** revived on account of the supplying of arms to the army by the Jewish Loewe Company. The emperor defends the government.

August. Asiatic cholera becomes epidemic in Hamburg and Antwerp.

1893. German Socialism emerges with great vigor and asserts itself in the Reichstag. Reichstag rejects the army bill and is dissolved by the emperor, May 6. Labor troubles abound throughout the empire, and the **anarchists riot** in Breslau, June 20. July 15 new Reichstag **passes the army bill.**

1894. *Jan. 26.* Formal reconciliation effected between emperor and Bismarck; the latter by special request visits the Kaiser.

Feb. 10. Commercial treaty with Russia reduces duties on German manufactures and Russian grain.

Oct. 26. Emperor's autocratic temper leads to a break with Chancellor von Caprivi, who resigns to be succeeded by **Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst.**

1895. *May.* Interference in Chinese-Japanese Treaty (see CHINA).

June 29. **Baltic ship canal** (Kiel Canal) formally opened with an international pageant.

1896. *Jan. 3.* Emperor William congratulates President Kruger of the South African Republic on his victory over Jameson's force; the message is interpreted as hostile to Great Britain.

April 14. The emperor welcomed in Vienna by the emperor of Austria. October 20, he receives a visit from the czar of Russia.

Dec. 7. Prosecution of the German newspaper editors for libeling the minister of foreign affairs, Bieberstein, and others results in the conviction of all the accused except one.

1897. *Feb. 9.* Strikers in the dockyards at Hamburg riot, two men killed and nineteen seriously injured.

Nov. 14. Seizure of Kiaochow (see CHINA).

1898. *October–November.* Emperor William visits Constantinople and the Holy Land.

1899. *Dec. 2.* Second **Samoan treaty.** Germany and United States divide the islands. Great Britain compensated elsewhere.

1900. Boxer uprising in China (see CHINA).

Jan. 1. New German legal code goes into effect.

Oct. 17. **Von Bülow** succeeds Hohenlohe as **chancellor.**

1901. *June.* Failure of the Leipziger Bank, followed by a series of failures and severe **financial depression.** Bad harvests add to the trouble.

1902. *February–March.* Prince Henry of Prussia, emperor's brother, visits United States.

Dec. 14. New tariff bill passed. It places higher duties on farm products, and is in many ways favorable to agrarian interests.

1903. *February.* Government decides to **readmit the Jesuits,** who have been excluded since 1872. In the Reichstag elections of June the Socialists gain 25 seats.

March 5. Further Bagdad railway convention signed at Constantinople.

July 28. Commercial treaty with Russia. Evidence of official sympathy with Russia causes sharp debates in the Reichstag.

1904–1911. Moroccan difficulty with France (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD and MOROCCO).

1905. Government takes advantage of war in the Far East to strengthen friendly relations with Russia. Colonial affairs cause anxiety, especially in connection with the revolts of the natives in East and Southwest Africa.

January–February. Strike of 200,000 miners in Westphalia; finally settled by the promise of remedial legislation.

1906. *Feb. 23.* Reichstag votes to extend existing tariff arrangements with the United States temporarily.

April 7. **Algeciras Convention** (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

Dec. 13. Emperor dissolves the Reichstag because it refuses to appropriate $7,500,000 additional for the war in German African colonies.

1907. *Jan. 25.* Elections for the Reichstag result in large gains for the supporters of the emperor's colonial, military, and naval policy.

1908. *Jan. 4.* Maximilian Harden, Socialist, convicted of libeling von Moltke ("Eulenburg scandal"). Supreme Court orders new trial. January 10, Socialist crowds in Berlin demand universal suffrage; are suppressed by the police. January 21, **parade of 50,000 unemployed** in streets of Berlin. June 3, five **Socialists elected** to the **Prussian** Chamber of **Deputies** for the first time.

July 1. **Zeppelin** remains in the air twelve hours in his dirigible balloon, carrying fourteen men and maintaining an average speed of about thirty-four miles an hour. A national subscription enables Zeppelin to continue his experiments.

Oct. 28. Account appears of an **interview with Emperor William,** which arouses intense indignation throughout the empire. He sets forth his friendship for Great Britain, and his military suggestions for carrying on a war against the Boers. Chancellor von Bülow tenders his resignation, which is declined. November 10, for the first time a German emperor is made personally the subject of debate in the Reichstag. November 17, emperor formally promises that he will not henceforth act or speak on matters affecting the foreign relations of the empire except through the chancellor and his associate ministers.

1909. *Feb. 9.* Agreement with France regarding administration of affairs in Morocco; impracticable.

May 31–June 1. The **Zeppelin dirigible** balloon makes a flight of more than 600 miles, remaining in the air about thirty-four hours.

July 14. **Bethmann-Hollweg** appointed chancellor to succeed Bülow.

1910. *Jan. 27.* Severe rioting in Brunswick during a Socialist demonstration in favor of **electoral reform.** Similar troubles occur elsewhere.

Aug. 25. The emperor in a speech at Königsberg declares his belief in the rule of the Hohenzollerns over Prussia by "divine right."

August–October. **Great shipyard strike;** 22,000 men idle.

1911. *May 16.* Prussian Diet passes a **Greater Berlin bill;** extended city to have about 3,500,000 inhabitants.

May. **Alsace-Lorraine** made a member of the Federation; practically still remains under Prussian influence.

September. **Socialist Congress** at Jena unanimously **protests against any attempt to provoke a war** between Germany, Great Britain, and France.

1912. *January.* General election. Success of the Socialists increases; they elect about a third of the members of the Reichstag, one from the Potsdam district, the residence of the emperor. Maintenance of position of the Clerical (Center) party.

Jan. 28. National Defense League (*Wehrverein*) inaugurated in Berlin for promoting the interests of the army.

March 11. Coal strike begins in Westphalia. Ends March 24.

May 21. Reichstag passes **naval bill** providing $28,500,000 annually till 1920.

November. Mecklenburg Diet imposes a **tax on bachelors** of 30 years of age and upwards.

1913. *April 21.* Charges that manufacturers of arms and ammunition stimulate militarism with a view to selling war material. This leads to the **Krupp trial** in Berlin, July 31; several military officials and two high officials of the Krupp Company found guilty.

May 24. **Marriage of emperor's only daughter,** Victoria Louise, to Prince Ernst August of Cumberland (England), son of exiled Hanoverian claimant, ends a dynastic feud.

June 30. By passage of **army bill,** peace footing increased to 661,176, claimed to be forced by adoption of 3-year service in France.

August. Centenary of the War of Liberation celebrated.

Oct. 27. Federal Council votes unanimously, in spite of the crown prince's opposition, to place Prince Ernst August of Cumberland on the throne of the **duchy of Brunswick.**

Oct. 31. Bavarian Diet passes a bill for replacing the insane King Otto by the regent. Latter ascends the throne as **Ludwig III.,** November 5.

Dec. 1. Controversy in the Reichstag caused by brutalities practiced on civilian population of **Zabern** (Saverne) in Alsace-Lorraine by army officers, who, commended by the crown prince and backed up by the emperor, go unpunished. December 4, vote of "no confidence" in the government adopted in the Reichstag by 293 to 54 to mark disapproval of the action taken in regard to **Zabern affair.**

Dec. 14. Crown prince recalled to Berlin from Danzig to join the general staff of the army, thus ending his exile from the capital since 1911.

1914. *March.* **Socialists** hold a "red week" throughout Germany, the aggressive campaign bringing in thousands of new members.

March 22. Emperor leaves for Vienna on a visit to Francis Joseph, afterwards proceeding to Venice to meet the king of Italy.

April. Consequent to the Zabern episode, new army regulations are promulgated forbidding the military to intervene in civil disorders except "when in cases of urgent danger for public safety."

June 24. Reconstructed **Kiel Canal** formally opened by the emperor.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914 (*continued*).

July–August. For outbreak and progress of WORLD WAR, see that title.

August. **Paper currency is made legal tender,** thus relieving the Reichsbank of obligation to redeem its notes in gold.

September. First **war loan** of $250,000,000; more than four times oversubscribed.

1915. *January.* Second war loan of $1,125,000,000; almost 100% oversubscribed.

Feb. 1 Government seizes all private stocks of corn, wheat, and flour, and municipalities ordered to lay up stores of preserved meats. Limited bread ration, applicable to the entire population of the empire, fixed. Official order issued that all stocks of copper and other metals used for war purposes be reserved for military use.

March 20. Budget of $3,250,000,000, four times greater than any estimates ever before presented, adopted.

May. **Many Americans leave the country** owing to the unfriendly attitude of the nation at large and the fear of an actual rupture between the United States and Germany.

Sept. 24. Subscriptions to third war fund amount to almost $3,000,000,000.

Oct. 10. Estimated that the **cost of necessities** for a workingman's family has increased 75 to 100 per cent.

1916. *Jan. 15.* Direct passenger service between Berlin and Constantinople resumed.

February. **Food difficulties** in Berlin and elsewhere in Germany.

February. Bulgaria turns over to Germany the copper mines in Serbia to exploit during the war.

Feb. 25. New taxation methods announced, including imposts on war profits and increases in the rates on tobacco, in stamp taxes, and postal, telegraph, and telephone tolls. [gal.]

March 8. **Germany declares war on Portu-**[gal.]

March 15. Tirpitz resigns as minister of marine; succeeded by Capelle.

March 24. Subscriptions to the fourth war loan amount to $2,650,000,000.

April 7. Commercial treaty concluded with Roumania, to facilitate the purchase of Roumanian grain by the Central Powers.

May 1. All timepieces in Germany are set forward one hour as a daylight-saving measure.

Aug. 27. **Italy** formally declares herself **at war** with Germany from August 28.

Aug. 29. **Hindenburg** succeeds Falkenhayn as **chief of staff** of the German armies. [000.]

September. Fifth war loan realizes $2,650,000,-

Oct. 28. Reichstag authorizes a new war credit of $2,856,000,000, with only the Radical-Socialist vote in opposition.

Nov. 5. New kingdom of **Poland** is proclaimed by Germany and Austria-Hungary (see POLAND).

Nov. 21. Von Jagow resigns office of minister of foreign affairs; succeeded by Zimmermann.

Dec. 12. **Germany and her allies** (Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey) **propose to enter into peace negotiations** with the Entente powers.

Dec. 29. **Joint reply of the Allies** (Belgium, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Montenegro, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, and Serbia) to Germany's peace note of December 12 rejects the offer as "a sham proposal lacking all substance and precision."

1917. *Feb. 27.* Chancellor declares that the United States has forced Germany into isolation, while favoring the Allies and permitting illegalities on the part of Germany's enemies.

April. Sixth war loan brings in $3,280,000,000.

April 3. By a vote of 277 to 33, the Reichstag appoints a committee to **recommend changes in** the imperial **constitution,** with enlargement of the powers of the lower house.

April 7. The emperor issues a rescript promising changes in the electoral system of Prussia, to become operative after the war.

July 6. **Erzberger,** a leader of the Catholic Center in the Reichstag, attacks the Pan-German and antidemocratic factions, declaring himself for a **"peace without annexations."**

July 11. The emperor instructs the Prussian ministry to submit a bill, before the next elections, revising the electoral law "on the basis of equal franchise."

July 14. As a result of the political crisis which follows the Erzberger speech, von Bethmann-Hollweg retires from the office of chancellor. Foreign Secretary Zimmermann also resigns.

July 19. Reichstag, by a vote of 214 to 116, declares that, while repudiating forced annexations of territory, Germany will fight "as one man" against the Allies' threats of conquest.

New chancellor, Michaelis, tells the Reichstag that Germany will not continue the war for conquests and that she desires an honorable peace.

September. Seventh war loan amounts to $3,156,000,000.

Sept. 21. For the reply to the pope's peace message, see under ITALY.

Oct. 9. Chancellor Michaelis declares that so long as the enemy seeks German territory or attempts to separate the people from their emperor, Germany will not make peace. No concessions can be made in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, but other controversies could be settled by negotiation.

Oct. 10. Details given in the Reichstag regarding a naval mutiny which occurred at Wilhelmshaven several weeks earlier.

Oct. 30. **Hertling,** premier of Bavaria, succeeds Michaelis as imperial **chancellor.**

Nov. 29. The chancellor expresses to the Reichstag his hope that peace will result from negotiations with the Russian government.

Dec. 6. Government bill introduced in the Prussian Diet for the reform of the antiquated electoral system.

1918. *Jan. 7.* **Mutiny among submarine crews** at the Kiel naval base; 38 officers are reported to have been killed.

Jan. 24. Chancellor von Hertling, considering the peace terms suggested by President Wilson's recent address to Congress (see UNITED STATES, Jan. 8, 1918), rejects some of the most vital points. Cession of Alsace-Lorraine cannot be considered.

Jan. 26. **Peace demonstrations** reported from various parts of Germany. Scheidemann, leader of the Majority (less radical) Socialists, warns the military party that it will be hurled from power if it fails to make **peace with Russia.**

Jan. 30. **Strike in essential war industries** in Berlin, Hamburg, Essen, and Kiel. Workmen demand **peace without indemnities** or annexations, labor representation at the Peace Conference, electoral reforms, and full right of public meeting. February 4, strong action by the military authorities in putting **an end to the strikes** in various parts of the country.

Feb. 25. Chancellor von Hertling, in the Reichstag, declares that he "can agree fundamentally" with the principles laid down by President Wilson in his speech before Congress on February 11 (see UNITED STATES).

March 3. **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** with Russia (see RUSSIA).

April 10. At Limburg, Prussia, mutinous soldiers kill three officers.

April 15. Reichstag majority accepts the chancellor's new **proposed peace terms,** which substitute a war indemnity and annexation of parts of Belgium and France.

May 2. In Prussian Diet Reactionists defeat adoption of **equal manhood suffrage** 235 to 183. Meeting at German army headquarters, the **emperors of Germany and Austria-Hungary revise the terms of alliance** between their countries; provision for closer economic relations and for military coöperation for a period of 25 years.

June 12. Announced that the **eighth German war loan** produced $3,750,000,000.

June 22. Ludendorff, quartermaster-general, announces that no more food may be sent to Austria-Hungary in view of the shortage of army rations. Proposal that the clothing of dead persons should be taken over by the government.

June 24. **Dysentery and Spanish influenza** have spread rapidly in various parts of Germany, especially among the undernourished classes.

Von Kühlmann, foreign secretary, admits that peace cannot be expected by "military decisions alone."

June 25. The chancellor pledges himself to a firm prosecution of the war, thus rebuking von Kühlmann. [toral reform bill.]

July 5. Prussian lower house passes the **elec-**

July 9. Von Kühlmann resigns because of continued criticism; succeeded by Admiral von Hintze. [vote the budget.]

July 10. Socialists in the Reichstag refuse to

July 11. Chancellor von Hertling denounces the recent utterances of President Wilson and the British foreign secretary, who apparently demand the destruction of Germany. Peace must secure German territory, economic expansion, and security. Russian treaty must stand; but Germany has no intention of keeping Belgium.

Aug. 7. Fresh **mutinies** reported among German sailors at Wilhelmshaven.

Aug. 15. Behncke becomes minister of marine, succeeding Admiral von Capelle.

Sept. 3. At Plauen in Saxony only 12 of 6,800 women employees escape when a powder factory is destroyed by explosion.

Sept. 24. The chancellor, addressing the main committee of the Reichstag, declares that "the deep discontent which has seized wide circles of the population . . . far exceeds justifiable limits."

Sept. 28. Chancellor von Hertling and Foreign Secretary von Hintze resign.

October. Ninth war loan realizes $2,608,000,000; total war loans, $24,519,000,000. Later, war debt is officially announced at 157,700,000,000 marks (nominally $39,400,000,000).

Oct. 2. **Prince Maximilian** of Baden takes office as imperial **chancellor.**

Prussian upper house passes **electoral reform bill.**

Oct. 5. Solf, colonial secretary, appointed secretary for foreign affairs; Erzberger, Catholic leader, and several Socialists enter the cabinet.

Oct. 5–Nov. 11. For the diplomatic exchanges between Germany and other belligerents which preceded the close of hostilities, see WORLD WAR.

Oct. 21. Socialist newspapers demand the abdication of the emperor.

Oct. 26. Quartermaster-General **Ludendorff,** the real directing genius of the German forces in the later years of the war, **resigns;** succeeded by Goetner.

Oct. 28. **Emperor William,** in a letter to the chancellor, approves of transfer of "the fundamental rights of the Kaiser's person" to the people.

Nov. 3–5. **Mutiny spreads** throughout German naval bases, beginning at Kiel; there they organize "councils" (soviets), after the Russian plan, and refuse to obey orders.

Nov. 7. Almost the whole **fleet has passed into the hands of revolutionists.** The first detachments of soldiers sent to restore order at Kiel join the revolutionists; later detachments are driven back by machine-gun fire. In Berlin many deserters from the army march through the streets.

In Bavaria, after the Diet has deposed King Ludwig, a **republic is proclaimed.**

Nov. 8. **Emperor William** refuses to give way to the demands for his **abdication** made by the Socialists. Chancellor **Maximilian,** unable to maintain himself against the Socialist opposition, **resigns.**

Revolutionary movement in the great industrial district about Essen.

Nov. 9. Revolutionary movement among the sailors, soldiers, and workmen, which began at Kiel, spreads over nearly the whole northern portion of the empire.

A Workmen's and Soldiers' Council, establishing itself in Berlin, orders a **general strike. Berlin banks,** because of general panic, **stop payment.** Chancellor Maximilian announces that **Emperor William has decided to abdicate** and that Friedrich Ebert, the leader of the Majority Socialists, has been appointed chancellor, pending the convocation of a National Assembly. Having formed a cabinet composed mainly of Majority Socialists, **Chancellor Ebert** states that he proposes to form a **popular government,** confirm the liberty which has just been gained, and bring about peace as soon as possible.

Nov. 9–14. **Establishment of the republic in Bavaria;** followed by similar action in Brunswick, Württemberg, Saxony, Oldenburg, Mecklenburg, Reuss, Saxe-Weimar, Lippe, Waldeck, Anhalt, and Baden.

Nov. 10. **Emperor William flees to Holland,** becoming the guest of Count von Bentinck, twelve miles from the frontier.

Nov. 11. **Armistice declared.** End of active fighting on the western front and at sea. Trouble develops with Poles in Posen and Silesia (see POLAND).

Field Marshal von Hindenburg places himself and the German army at the disposition of the new German government.

Nov. 12. **Socialist government** in Berlin exercises authority.

Nov. 13. **Ebert government** appeals to President Wilson to send foodstuffs to Germany.

Nov. 15. Berlin government asks peasants to form local councils and regulate distribution of food.

Ebert reconstructs his cabinet and under the influence of Liebknecht, **admits** Independent (Minority) **Socialist.**

Nov. 20. Former crown prince makes his residence on the island of Wieringen, in the Zuider Zee.

Nov. 22. **Spartacides,** as the extremists following Liebknecht are called, attempt to seize police headquarters at Berlin.

Nov. 24. Conference of Workmen's and Soldiers' Councils proclaims Oldenburg, Oestfriesland, Bremen, Hamburg, and Schleswig-Holstein a **republic,** with its capital at Hamburg. Does not continue.

Ebert, after negotiating with the Spartacides, refuses to give way to them and reaffirms his determination to summon a national assembly.

Nov. 25. Ebert cabinet, making an **agreement with the Workmen's and Soldiers' Council,** admits it to a share of political power.

Nov. 26. Ludendorff takes refuge in Sweden.

Nov. 27. All German soldiers, except the 1898 and 1899 classes, are being discharged.

Nov. 29. Government makes public the text of a document in which the **former Emperor William renounces his rights** as king of Prussia and German emperor.

Nov. 30. German government proposes to the Allies that **responsibility for the war** shall be fixed by a neutral commission.

Dec. 1. Hindenburg, by proclamation, forbids conflicts with the Workmen's and Soldiers' Councils. He requests the central government to request the councils not to interfere with army commanders.

1918 (*continued*).

Dec. 2. In Berlin, a plot is discovered for the **restoration of the imperial régime** after demobilization had been completed. Mackensen among those implicated. [**food rioting** in Cologne.]

Dec. 5. Machine guns are employed to check [

Dec. 6. **Turbulence of the Spartacides** leads to great disorder in Berlin, where a considerable number of persons are killed.

Dec. 16. Delegates from Workmen's and Soldiers' Councils throughout Germany assemble in Berlin, the extremists being outnumbered. **General strike,** fomented by Liebknecht and the advanced Socialists, or Spartacides, assumes serious proportions.

Dec. 17. Congress of Workmen's and Soldiers' Councils shows itself hostile to radical attacks on the Ebert government and declines to bar the *bourgeoisie* from political recognition.

Dec. 19. By a vote of 400 to 70, the congress resolves to have a national assembly called for January 19, 1919.

Dec. 23. Radical sailor groups, called to Berlin by Liebknecht, after guarding the government buildings, resist soldiers sent to replace them and are besieged in the palace and royal stables.

Dec. 30. Moderate elements added to the Ebert cabinet after the resignation of Haase (foreign minister), Barth, and Dittmann, Minority Socialists.

Dec. 31. In Posen (German Poland) the Poles gain the ascendancy. Workmen's and Soldiers' Councils at various places proclaim union with the Polish nation. [eastern Germany.] **Bolshevist republic** established in Silesia, south-

1919. *Jan. 1.* German authorities in German Poland declare Posen under martial law. Chancellor Ebert and Foreign Secretary Scheidemann announce the **program of the newly constructed ministry.**

Jan. 5. Cabinet deposes Eichhorn, the Berlin chief of police, the only Independent Socialist remaining in an important post. Eichhorn defies the authorities.

Jan. 7. **Spartacide revolt** breaks out in Berlin. Many are killed and wounded in street fighting; public buildings seized by the revolutionaries.

Jan. 10. The **Spartacide revolt** spreads in German cities.

Jan. 11. **Spartacides** are defeated in Berlin. This is mainly due to a steady increase in the number of the government forces.

Jan. 12. Fighting resumed in Berlin, but the revolutionary leaders are duly arrested and their followers made prisoners. Hindenburg arrives in Berlin.

Jan. 13. In elections to the Bavarian National Council, the extremists (Independent Socialists and Spartacides) meet with defeat. In the elections to the Württemberg Diet the Independent Socialists poll less than one tenth as many votes as the Majority Socialists.

Spartacide forces are temporarily in control of the government of Bremen. In all other cities outside Berlin revolt has been suppressed.

Jan. 15. **Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg,** leaders of the Spartacides, **killed** in Berlin. This loss of leaders helps stop more serious disturbances.

Jan. 16. **Bolshevists in full control** in Bremen, Cuxhaven, and Düsseldorf.

Jan. 19. **Elections for National Assembly.** Out of 403 members Majority Socialists get 166, Centrists (Clericals) 93, Democrats (Liberals) 75, Conservatives (Monarchists) 34, Minority Socialists (Radicals) 24. 34 women delegates. [otic.]

February. Labor and political conditions cha-

Feb. 6. National Assembly meets at Weimar.

Feb. 11. **Ebert,** chancellor since the overthrow of the empire, elected **president** of German Republic. Coalition cabinet, with **Scheidemann** as **premier,** and composed of Majority Socialists, Centrists, and Democrats, formed February 13. Spartacide rising in Bremen put down.

Feb. 15. Officially announced that **war cost Germany** $40,000,000,000.

Feb. 21. **Eisner,** Socialist premier of Bavaria, **assassinated** by a reactionary officer. Auer, minister of the interior, and Rosshaupter, minister of war, killed in a *mêlée* in House of Deputies at Munich. Both Reactionaries and Spartacides start revolts there.

Feb. 25. Spartacide rising in Saxony.

March 2. Government appeals to the people for support in repressing the radical agitation.

March 3. **General strike** in Berlin, which spreads to other cities and becomes a revolt. **Noske,** government minister of defense in charge, declares a **state of siege at Berlin.** March 5, fighting between troops and Spartacides, who have been joined by some marines; continues for several days, with much destruction of properety. March 10, strike called off. Spartacides not suppressed until March 13. Acute unrest and disorder reported from all over Germany.

April 7. In Munich a **soviet government is proclaimed** for Bavaria, which the national government refuses to recognize. Rival communist government also started. Spartacide activities elsewhere continue to be a menace.

April 8. **Soviet congress** meets at Berlin.

April 12. Dresden declared in state of siege.

April 18. Soviet government in Brunswick, in power since November, overthrown.

May 4. **Red government at Munich** after a month of terror and fighting **overthrown** by national government troops. Damage done by communists reported as $63,000,000.

June 1. Declaration of independence and provisional government for Rhine Provinces at Wiesbaden, where French have charge. Soon dies out.

June 21. **New cabinet, headed by Bauer** and willing to sign peace treaty, formed. It tries first, though, to make reservations, especially as to responsibility for the war and punishment of violators of the rules of war.

Ships of the German navy interned at **Scapa Flow** sunk by their officers. French battle flags of war of 1870–1871, subject to return under treaty, burned at Berlin. [World War.]

June 28. **Treaty of Versailles** signed (see)

July 5. Scheme of Minister of Defense Noske for home guards regarded as violation of treaty requirement of maximum force of 100,000.

July 11. Blockade of Germany formally raised.

July 21. Another **general strike** in Berlin for one day. Due to Socialist factions. Clashes with troops.

July 31. National Assembly adopts a **republican constitution.** Proclaimed, August 13. (See Historical Outline, above.)

Aug. 21. **Inauguration of Ebert** as president under new constitution. National Assembly adjourns, to reassemble at Berlin. [tender.]

Sept. 10. Reichsbank notes cease to be legal

October. **Investigation of responsibility for the war** begun by a committee appointed by the National Assembly. Hindenburg coming to Berlin to testify, November 14, is cause of a royalist demonstration. [War).]

Nov. 6. Scapa Flow protocol (see World)

1920. *Jan. 10.* **Peace of Versailles** becomes **operative.**

Jan. 13. Radical mob attacks National Assembly at Berlin. Dispersed by troops; many killed and wounded. [**nals** (see World War).]

Feb. 3. **Demand** on Germany for **war criminal**

Feb. 10. First (northern) zone of Schleswig votes under peace treaty to unite with Denmark

March 13. **Junker (royalist) counter-revolutionists** take possession of Berlin. President Ebert proclaims a general strike, March 14. Revolt collapses, March 17. **Reds** take advantage of opportunity to **rise,** especially in the Ruhr mining district and Essen, and the government sends troops there, although it is within the neutral zone.

March 14. Plebiscite in second (southern) zone in Schleswig; decides to remain in Germany. Includes Flensburg.

March 22. Bauer ministry resigns because of Socialist-Labor opposition. **Müller ministry** succeeds.

April 6. French troops occupy Frankfurt and Darmstadt, because of German troops in the neutral zone.

GIBRALTAR.

See under British Empire, page 62.

GREECE.

Historical Outline.

From the conquest of Greece by the Romans in 146 B. C. until the acknowledgment of Greek independence in 1830, Greece existed as a part of the Roman Empire, the Eastern or Byzantine Empire, or the Turkish Empire. Notwithstanding these eighteen centuries of dependence and often cruel oppression, and in spite of frequent invasions and large admixtures of foreign population, the Greek spirit and the Greek language have been preserved. The center of Greek life, however, was long ago transferred to Constantinople, and the Greek influence was exerted not so much at Athens as in Asia Minor and Egypt, and even India, by Greek conquerors, merchants, and traders.

From 1483 to 1830 Greece was an integral part of the Turkish Empire, and like the other Turkish possessions in Europe, suffered from the extortion of the pashas and the misrule of the Turkish officials. During this period Greece was frequently raided by Christian fleets. During the 18th century the condition of the Greeks improved. Personal service was commuted into money payments and the tribute of children which the Turks exacted for the Janizaries was allowed to fall into abeyance. Toward the end of the 18th century, Greek commerce increased rapidly and spreading throughout the Mediterranean developed a sense of Greek unity. The Turks, moreover, employed Greek officials in the civil service and granted special privileges to the Greek clergy. Finally, education improved, new schools and academies were founded, and Greek nationality began to revive.

The Greek struggle for independence began with several insurrections which broke out throughout the country without plan or connection. The real revolution dates from Annunciation Sunday, April 6, 1821, when all the Peloponnesus burst into flames. The Turks, unaided, were unable to put down the revolution and called in the tributary Egyptians, who committed all manner of atrocities. This aroused Europe, which had begun to take an interest in the revival of Greece; and Great Britain, France, and Russia ordered an immediate armistice. Turkey refused to obey, and the battle of Navarino was fought October 20, 1827, in which the Turkish and Egyptian ships were destroyed by the British, French, and Russians. In 1830, Greece was declared an independent kingdom, but with only half the territory the patriots had fought for. The European powers, moreover, refused to allow Greece to choose her own sovereign and (1832) designated Prince Otto of Bavaria as king (Otho I.).

Otho began in an arbitrary manner, but in 1843 by a peaceful revolution the people obtained a constitution; a national assembly was called in 1844 and a constitutional monarchy was established. Self-government did not bring quiet. Society was in a disturbed condition, and politics kept Athens in a turmoil, while the European powers frequently intervened, often to the detriment of the Greeks. In 1862 Otho was deposed by a revolution, and the crown was offered to Christian William of Sonderburg-Glücksburg, who ascended the throne as George I.

During the reign of George I. (1863–1913) Greece saw material prosperity and development, generally peaceable. Politics often caused local disorders in Athens, and there were frequent changes of the cabinets and accusations of corruption. The significant events were the extension of the boundaries in Epirus and Thessaly (1881), and the long insurrection in Crete which began in 1889. As a part of this Cretan movement, the Greeks declared war against Turkey in 1897, but were disastrously defeated. Prince George, however, was appointed by the powers high commissioner for Crete. In 1910 Venizelos, the Cretan leader, was called to Athens to form a cabinet, and in 1911 a revised constitution was adopted which provided for judicial and administrative reforms and increased the military and naval efficiency.

Through the activities of Venizelos, the Balkan League, consisting of Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece, was formed in 1912, and war was declared upon Turkey (see Turkey). In this war the Greeks invaded Macedonia and occupied Saloniki and Janina. As a result of the second Balkan War (July, 1913) and the Treaty of Bucharest, Greece gained Doiran, Demir-Hissar, Seres, Drama, and Kavala, as well as Vodena and Florina.

The outbreak of the World War found Greece allied with Serbia but occupying a precarious position. King Constantine, who succeeded at the death of his father, was the brother-in-law of the German emperor and believed that it would be disastrous for Greece to throw her lot in with Serbia. The leading character in Greece, however, was the Cretan patriot, Venizelos, who accomplished the union of Crete with Greece and was the real founder of the Balkan League. Venizelos, as prime minister, with a strong popular following, commanded the confidence of the Parliament and urged support of Serbia and alliance with Great Britain and France. In 1915 (March 6) Venizelos resigned, as a protest against the king's foreign policy, and forced the resignation of his successor, whom the king hoped to find more compliant. The king dissolved parliament, but the election again showed a majority for Venizelos, and he assumed power, only to resign a second time in protest against the policy of the king.

October 5, 1915, the Allied forces occupied Saloniki. Through the connivance of King Constantine, German influence increased, and Venizelos established a provisional government at Saloniki. On June 12, 1917, King Constantine was forced to abdicate and was succeeded by his second son, Alexander; on July 26 Venizelos reconvened the parliament dissolved in 1915, and Greece entered the war on the side of the Allies.

Organization.

Government. Greece, properly the Kingdom of the Hellenes, is a constitutional monarchy based upon the constitution of 1864, revised in 1911. The legislative power is in the Boule, which consists of 184 representatives elected by manhood suffrage for 4 years in the proportion of one to every 16,000 inhabitants. This chamber must meet annually for not less than three months. A Council of State was established in 1911 for the purpose of examining legislative propositions and annulling decisions and acts which may be contrary to law. The executive branch of the government consists of the king, assisted by 14 ministers, who are responsible to the Boule.

Industry and Labor. Greece is an agricultural country, but only one fifth of the soil is cultivable.

The land is largely in the hands of peasant proprietors and is divided into small holdings. On the whole agriculture is in a backward state. The most important crop is the currant; after which come olives, figs, and cereals. Greece contains a variety of mineral deposits such as iron, copper, zinc, lead, manganese, aluminium, and antimony, mostly in small quantities.

The general condition of labor in Greece is more prosperous than that of the surrounding regions. The variety of the industrial life and the promotion of education by the government, as well as the natural character of the Greeks, make for a high degree of intelligence. From antiquity the long seacoast and numerous harbors have encouraged commerce; and now, as then, Greek merchants and traders have spread throughout the Mediterranean region, bringing wealth to their country.

Religion. Most of the inhabitants belong to the Greek Orthodox Church, which is declared the state church, though complete toleration and liberty of worship is assured.

Education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 12, but the law is not well enforced in the country districts. In 1910–11, 3,551 primary schools had 250,000 pupils, and besides these there were 41 high schools, 248 middle schools, and various special schools. There are two universities at Athens.

Defense. Military service is universal and compulsory and few exemptions are granted. The service begins in the 20th year and lasts for 31 years, only three of which are in the active army. The annual contingent of recruits is about 25,000. The Greek army was reorganized in 1917, and nine divisions took part in the offensive of September, 1918. Before the World War the Greek navy consisted of three old cruisers, two battleships, purchased from the United States, and one cruiser, purchased from Japan, together with 13 torpedo-boat destroyers. When the war broke out the Greek navy was in a state of transition and two cruisers were being built in England. In 1917 a British commission was appointed to reorganize the navy.

The total **area** of Greece is 41,933 sq. miles and the estimated **population** (1914) 4,821,300.

Chronology.

For Modern Greece before 1820, see TURKEY and BULGARIA.

1821. **Revolution against the Ottoman rule** begins in Greece. In March insurrection is headed by Aleksandros Ypsilanti at Jassy in Moldavia. Georgakis rebellion in the North is quelled. Revolution also begins in the Morea, where the patriots are successful under Germanos, Kolokotronis, Demetrios Ypsilanti, Mauromichalis, Bozzaris, Odyssens, and Maurokordatos. A rising in the Archipelago is successful.

1822. **A national assembly** is convened by the patriots, and in January the independence of Greece is proclaimed at Epidaurus. Turks massacre the inhabitants of Scio. In June the Greek revolutionists storm the Acropolis at Athens. Turks are vanquished in the Morea.

1823. In August, **Markos Bozzaris,** the Suliote leader, makes an attack on the Turkish camp at Karpenisi, but is slain.

1824. **Lord Byron,** who has embraced the cause of the Greeks, **dies at Missolonghi,** April 19. An Egyptian force under Ibrahim Pasha sails to aid the Sultan, but Miaulis thwarts the movement.

1825. **Ibrahim Pasha** makes a victorious campaign in the Morea.

1826. Missolonghi falls in April, and the Turks besiege the Acropolis in August. The patriot government thereupon withdraws to Ægina.
Wellington and Nicholas I. urge the powers to intervene. [capitulate.]

1827. *June.* Greek defenders of the Acropolis
July 6. England, France, and Russia make a treaty at London for the pacification of Greece.
Oct. 20. The **fleets of the powers** destroy the Turkish and Egyptian ships at **Navarino.**

1828. Capo d'Istria assumes the administration of the Greek government.
French troops enter the Morea and Ibrahim Pasha retires. Russia begins a war against Turkey (see RUSSIA). [of the patriots.]

1829. The revolution in Greece ends with success

1830. In February, the London protocol of the powers declares Greece **an independent kingdom.** The decree is accepted by Turkey. Poor boundaries given the new kingdom.

1832. Powers unite in electing **Otto,** a son of Louis I. of Bavaria, to the throne of Greece, as Otho I.

1835. Otto (Otho) attains his majority and the regency is dissolved.

1843. People of Athens rise, and Otho promises to promulgate a **constitution.** This promise is fulfilled in the following year.

1850. Government of Greece agrees to pay indemnity for losses sustained by subjects of Great Britain, known as the **Don Pacifico claims.**

1862. *October.* Revolution; **Otho is deposed.**

1863. *March.* The crown is offered to Christian William, son of Prince Christian of Sonderburg-Glücksburg. He accepts the sovereignty and ascends the throne as **George I.** New constitution granted.

1864. Treaty is concluded with Great Britain, on October 31, by which the **Ionian Islands** are annexed to Greece.

1866. Relations with Turkey are strained to the point of rupture on account of the assistance given by the Greeks to the **Cretans,** in revolt against the Ottoman authority.

1877. The outbreak of the **Turco-Russian War** creates intense excitement throughout Greece. The government maintains its neutral attitude.

1878. Greece is encouraged by the Congress of Berlin to hope for a boundary readjustment. These hopes, however, are disappointed by the action of the congress, and the Sultan's circular denying the reported project produces a feeling of anger.

1879. *January.* Turco-Greek Commission, appointed by the Congress of Berlin to **rectify the boundary** between Turkey and Greece, assembles. Sittings continue until November.

1881. *May.* Turkey formally consents to the annexation of a large tract in **Epirus and Thessaly** to Greece.

1883. Financial condition of the government involved. Roumelian revolution; mobilization of the army and navy.

1886. Difficulties between Turkey and Greece become acute; Greece threatens to declare war; the powers mediate.

1888. Macedonian disturbances, threatening a rebellion in Bulgaria, lead to strained relations between Greece and Turkey.

1889. **Revolution in Crete** drives an army of Christian fugitives into Greece.

1890. Cretan rebellion leads to a political crisis; the ministry of **Tricoupis** is overthrown, and that of **Delyannis** substituted.

1891. Anti-Semitic riots in Corfu.

1892. Outbreak of religious fanaticism against the Protestants in the Piræus. Delyannis ministry overthrown and Tricoupis again becomes premier.

1893. *August 6.* Canal across the Isthmus of Corinth, begun in 1882, is opened.

1895. Delyannis ministry is formed, following his triumph at the elections.

1896. Anniversary of Greek independence is celebrated on April 6, by the reinstitution of the Olympian games; one hundred athletes from foreign countries, including twenty-one American competitors, participate in the contests in the manner of antiquity.

1897. Cretan insurrection of the preceding year leads the powers to interfere in behalf of Turkey. Greeks espouse the cause of the **Cretans against Turkey** and become involved in a **brief war** with that power in which they are disastrously defeated.

1898. Prince George of Greece is appointed high commissioner of the powers in Crete, Nov. 26.

1905. Proposal from Greece to **annex Crete** is refused by the European nations. On June 13, Delyannis, the premier, is **assassinated.**

1906. *April 27.* **Olympian games** at Athens. The American team wins large plurality of events.

1908. *May 12.* France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia agree to withdraw their troops from Crete.
Aug. 18. **Greece and Persia resume diplomatic relations** after intermission of 2,399 years.
Oct. 7. Union of Crete to Greece is proclaimed by popular assemblies. The Cretan Chamber, or Boule, officially ratifies this action on October 14.

1909. *July 17.* New cabinet formed with **Rhallis** as **premier.**
Powers in concert compel Crete to lower the Greek flag and resume its former status.

1910. *February.* New ministry under **Dragoumis** formed; ascendancy of Military League.
March 30. The king decrees the **revision of the constitution,** thus terminating the *régime* of the Military League.
Sept. 14. The king opens the new National Assembly. October 23, **Venizelos,** the Cretan leader, is requested to form a cabinet.

1911. *June.* **Revision of the constitution** is completed and **adopted** by the Chamber.
The changes make for judicial and administrative reform, and increased military and naval efficiency.

1911–1912. War between Italy and Turkey. Italians occupy Dodecanese, inhabited by Greeks.

1912–1913. For Balkan Wars, see TURKEY.

1913. *Feb. 15.* **Island of Crete is handed over to Greece** by the protecting powers (Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy). Captured by Turks 1669; semi-independent government set up 1898; declared part of Hellenic kingdom October, 1912.
March 18. **King George is assassinated** at Saloniki, and is succeeded by Crown Prince Constantine, popular on account of his victorious leadership during the Balkan War. [BULGARIA.]
June–August. For second Balkan War, see
Nov. 13. Treaty of peace is signed at Athens, ending the war with Turkey.
Dec. 14. Island of Crete is annexed to Greece.

1914. *June 13.* Annexation of Scio (Chios) and Mytilene is announced.
July 8. United States battleships *Idaho* and *Mississippi* are purchased.
August. Outbreak of war in Serbia, ally of Greece, compels decision as to **status of Greece.**

1915. *March 6.* **Venizelos and cabinet resign,** because of the king's disapproval of their foreign policy, which favors the immediate entrance of Greece into the war on the side of the Allies. New cabinet is formed by **Gounaris,** March 9.
April 4. Bulgarian raid on Doiran is repulsed.
June 13. Elections; Venizelos gains a decided majority.
Aug. 16. Assembling of Parliament.
Sept. 25. General mobilization of the army is ordered in reply to Bulgaria's mobilization.
Oct. 5. **Allied forces land at Saloniki** with the consent of Greek government, to aid the Serbians. (See WORLD WAR and GERMANY.)
Oct. 6. Premier Venizelos again resigns because the king, a brother-in-law of the German emperor, cannot support his pro-Ally policy. New cabinet is formed with **Zaimis** as premier.
Oct. 12. Government declines to help Serbia, holding that the treaty (a defensive alliance) with Serbia does not call for Greek intervention.
Oct. 20. Government declines Great Britain's offer to cede the island of Cyprus as an inducement to enter the war on the side of the Allies.
Nov. 4. Zaimis forced to resign after a dispute with Venizelos. November 7, **Skouloudis** accepts the premiership, retaining the members of the Zaimis cabinet. King Constantine dissolves the parliament. German propaganda increases. **"Peaceful blockade"** of Greek ports is threatened by Allies.

1916. *Jan. 18.* King Constantine protests informally to United States against "the unheard-of high-handedness of the Allies toward Greece."
March. Controversy with the Allies is caused by announcement of the virtual annexation of Upper Epirus by Greece.
May 26. **Bulgarian troops enter Greek territory** and occupy several Greek forts north of Demir-Hissar.
June 1. Allies take over the control of Saloniki, replacing the Greek police and establishing martial law.
June 8. Commercial **blockade of Greek ports** is adopted **by the Allies;** the cabinet decides upon partial demobilization.
June 21. Great Britain, France, and Russia, as protecting powers of Greece by the treaties of 1863, present a **collective note.** Skouloudis declines to meet the demands and resigns the premiership.
June 22. Government yields to the **demands of the Allies.** Former Premier Zaimis is invited to form new cabinet. New elections are ordered. **Demobilization** ordered on June 27.
Aug. 30. Greek revolutionists at Saloniki seize the infantry barracks and proclaim a provisional government.
Sept. 13. Zaimis ministry resigns; new cabinet is formed by Kalogeropoulos September 16. The Allies refuse to recognize the new cabinet.
September. **Venizelos establishes provisional government** at Saloniki with the object of defending Greek Macedonia from the Bulgarian invaders and of intervening on the side of Allies.
Oct. 8. New cabinet formed by Lambros.
Oct. 11. **Greek fleet and seacoast forts are turned over to Allies** or dismantled, in accordance with demand of Great Britain and France.
Oct. 16. Allied fleet, "to insure its safety," takes over the three warships remaining under Greek control; demonstrations against the Allies take place in Athens, and Allied sailors are landed to preserve order. The provisional government set up by the Venizelos revolutionists is recognized by the Allies.
Nov. 17. Commander of the Allied fleet orders the German, Austrian, Bulgarian, and Turkish ministers and their staffs to leave for their respective countries.
Nov. 23. Provisional government headed by Venizelos formally **declares war on Germany and Bulgaria.**
Dec. 15. Demands of the Allies are agreed to by the government, at the expiration of a 24-hour ultimatum.
Dec. 31. **Allies present collective note, demanding guarantees.**

1917. *Jan. 9.* Allies present **ultimatum,** giving Greece 48 hours to comply with the demands made on December 31. Government accepts ultimatum with certain reservations January 11.
May 24. **Zaimis** assumes office of **premier** once more and adopts a conciliatory attitude.
June 12. **King Constantine abdicates;** succeeded by his second son, **Alexander,** who is well disposed toward the Allies.
June 25. King Alexander asks Venizelos to form a new ministry.
June 30. **Diplomatic relations** between Greece and the Central Powers are **broken off.**
For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

1917 (*continued*).
July 26. Venizelos convokes the Parliament of 1915, illegally dissolved by Constantine.
Aug. 26. Venizelos lays evidence before Parliament to show that Greece might easily have occupied Constantinople in February, 1915, but for the opposition of King Constantine. [**Slavia** signed.]
1919. *April 18.* Treaty of **alliance with Jugo-**
1920. *April 26.* **San Remo Conference** of the Allied premiers assigns the portion of Thrace taken from Bulgaria by the Treaty of Neuilly (November 27, 1919), and also Smyrna, to Greece.
May 11. Treaty of peace is handed to the Turkish delegates (see TURKEY for terms). [below].
May 20. Treaty signed (see under SMYRNA.]

SMYRNA, OR AIDIN.

AIDIN has for a long time been a name of the southern Turkish province of Asia Minor, to which the name Smyrna is also applied, from the principal city in the province. The country is fruitful and the coast abounds in excellent harbors, which caused the early settlement of such great cities as Smyrna and Ephesus. It was subsequently a part of the Persian Empire, and has passed through the hands of Greeks, Romans, Byzantines, Seljuks and, finally, the Ottoman Turks, who held it for nearly five hundred years.

From ancient times Smyrna has had a predominant Greek population, particularly in the city of Smyrna. During the World War the Turks attempted to extirpate the Greeks, who organized to defend themselves. At the end of active hostilities Greek troops occupied the province, and by the Turkish treaty with the Allies (May 20, 1920) it was provided that the province should be put under the control of the Greek government for a period of five years, after which the people should vote upon their future. **Smyrna** has therefore practically ceased to be a part of the Turkish Empire and is **a dependency of Greece.** The **area** is about 2,600 square miles and the **population** in 1911 was estimated at 2,500,000.

1912. *Oct. 15.* Turco-Italian peace terms leave Italy in occupation of a number of the Ægean islands (Dodecanese) pending certain conditions, which are not fulfilled by Turkey (see ITALY).
1913. *May 30.* By the Treaty of London, following the Balkan War, Turkey cedes the Ægean islands to Greece (see TURKEY).
1914. World War breaking out, Greece and Italy remain in occupation of the islands pending its decision.
1915. *April 26.* By secret Treaty of London Great Britain and France promise the Dodecanese to Italy.
1917. *August.* **Secret agreements** between Great Britain, France, and Italy on partition of Turkey **assign Aidin (Smyrna) to Italy.**
1919. *May.* **Greece,** with concurrence of Supreme Council at Paris, **occupies city of Smyrna,** and pushes inland. Conflict with the Turks; devastation around Smyrna. Italians occupy Adalia, east of Smyrna, and Konia, controlling the Bagdad Railroad at this point.
November. Report of commissioners sent to investigate conditions in Smyrna severely indicts Greek troops for their conduct in occupation.
1920. *February.* Greece given mandate in Smyrna.
May 11. **Peace treaty** handed to Turkey **gives Greece** certain Ægean islands, and **authority over** the city of **Smyrna** and its circle (see TURKEY).
May 20. Treaty of peace between Allies and Turkey signed. Greece given Smyrna and the islands except the **Dodecanese** and Rhodes, which remain in Italian possession, but the Dodecanese is promptly turned over to Greece (see ITALY).

GREENLAND.

See under DENMARK, page 91.

GUAM.

See under UNITED STATES, page 209.

GUATEMALA.

See under CENTRAL AMERICA, page 79.

GUIANA.

See *British Guiana*, under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.
See *Dutch Guiana*, under NETHERLANDS, page 129.
See *French Guiana*, under FRANCE, page 97.

HAITI.

Historical Outline.

THE REPUBLIC OF HAITI occupies the western third of the West Indian island sometimes called by the Spanish name Santo Domingo, but more often by its native name of Haiti. The island was discovered by Columbus in 1492 and named Hispaniola, or Little Spain; colonization began in 1496, and Haiti developed more rapidly than the other Spanish-American possessions. The desire to exploit the rich soil and gold mines led the Spaniards to establish slavery, and the population rapidly declined. Negro slaves were substituted and became the most numerous element in the population.

In the early part of the 17th century, pirates took possession of a large part of the territory of Haiti, which was ceded to France in 1697 by the Treaty of Ryswick (Rijswijk). As the settlements expanded and became populous, they grew rebellious. When the French Revolution broke out, the Negroes and mulattoes were ten times as numerous as the whites. Conflicts arose between negroes and mulattoes, and then came a terrible insurrection. In 1793 the allied British and Spaniards sent a force to Haiti. As a counter measure the French Convention issued in the same year a decree of emancipation for all slaves.

In 1795 the Spanish colony on the island passed to France. Toussaint L'Ouverture then appeared as leader of the blacks, expelled the British forces, and made himself dictator of the government, which professed nominal submission to France; but in 1801 he demanded independence. In 1802 a French army under Leclerc overthrew the Negroes and captured Toussaint and sent him to France, where he died in captivity. His successor, Dessalines, defeated the French and expelled them in 1803, thus blocking Napoleon's plans for taking over Louisiana.

Dessalines declared himself emperor. When he was assassinated in 1806, Christophe, a full-blooded Negro, succeeded him with the center of his power in the northwest. Pétion, another leader, started a temporary republic in the southwest. Boyer succeeded Pétion and was able to organize the people of both sections of the island into the Republic of Haiti, but after ruling for twenty years he was overthrown.

In 1844 the eastern and Spanish-speaking districts, comprising about two thirds of the island, separated from the western part and set up the Dominican Republic. In the western portion, or Haiti proper, anarchy prevailed. Two years later a republican constitution was proclaimed under President Riché. This did not bring peace or establish order and the history of Haiti continued to be one of civil war, revolt, and anarchy, during which obligations were incurred to the United States and European powers for damages to their citizens.

In 1911 a joint note was submitted by the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy insisting on prompt settlement of claims. This precipitated a revolution which continued intermittently until 1914, when a British cruiser arrived to enforce the overdue claims awarded by arbitration. The government at Washington thought it time to take action. American marines landed and controlled Cap-Haïtien for nearly a month. In July, 1915, a reign of terror was inaugurated by President Guillaume Sam, and Rear Admiral Caperton landed marines at Port-au-Prince; since that time the United States forces have controlled the country.

In 1916 a treaty was signed between Haiti and the United States which provides for the establishment of a receivership over Haitian customs under American control. This administration includes not only the distribution of funds for the payment of foreign debts, but the expenditure of the balance for domestic purposes. Thus, through the supervision of the finances of Haiti, the United States controls the operations of the government and has established a protectorate.

Organization.

Government. The present constitution, ratified June 12, 1918, provides for a Senate of 15 and a Chamber of Deputies on the basis of one member for each 60,000 inhabitants, chosen for two years by direct popular vote.

Production and Commerce. The industries of Haiti are mainly in tropical products, of which the most important are fruit, coffee, cocoa, and sugar; the cultivation of tobacco is increasing. Haiti also possesses resources of gold, silver, copper, iron, and antimony, and in the last few years concessions have been granted for mining coal, iron, and copper.

Religion. The religion is Roman Catholicism.

Education. Public primary education is free, and in 1918 there were 854 primary schools, with 61,000 pupils, 29 secondary schools, one normal school, a school of law, and one of medicine.

Defense. An armed constabulary, both urban and rural, was established in 1916. The officers are drawn from the United States Marine Corps and the force numbers 2,688. The reserve force and old line regiments amount to about 19,000. The coastguard service is three auxiliary schooners.

The **area** is about 10,000 square miles and in 1912 the **population**, almost entirely Negro, was estimated at 2,500,000.

Chronology.

For earlier history, see DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.
1630. Buccaneers, French and English, begin to **frequent island.** They obtain a firm footing.
1697. *Sept. 20.* By the Treaty of Ryswick (Rijswijk), **western part** of the island, occupied by buccaneers, **ceded to France** by Spain and called the colony of **Saint Dominique.** It becomes prosperous; sugar production by slave labor. Many free mulattoes.
1791. *May 15.* French Convention gives the mulattoes right of citizenship. Whites object and right revoked. In August, the **slaves,** aided by mulattoes, **revolt.** Sanguinary contest ensues; white planters slaughtered and driven from the colony; fierce reprisals by the whites.
1793. British invade the Island and maintain a hold for five years.
Commissioners sent from France **abolish slavery,** but fail to secure return to peace.
1795. *July 22.* By Treaty of Basel **Spain cedes her part** of the island **to France.**
1796. Toussaint L'Ouverture becomes head of the blacks and drives out the French commissioner, though acknowledging French suzerainty.
1798. British surrender posts to Toussaint.
1799. Toussaint, recognized by Napoleon as commander in chief, **establishes a government.**
1801. Toussaint conquers Spanish portion of island and proclaims himself president for life.
1802. Napoleon, having acquired Louisiana as step in development of a **colonial empire,** needs control of Saint Dominique as a **base of operations.** Leclerc lands with troops to subdue it. In May, **Toussaint** submits under guarantees, but is treacherously seized and sent to France as a **prisoner.** Blacks, under **Dessalines,** renew the war.
1803. *November.* **French,** completely defeated by yellow fever and black rebels, **evacuate** island.
1804. *Jan. 1.* **Independence declared,** with Dessalines governor of the **Republic of Haiti** for life. Massacre of remaining whites. Mulattoes also reduced and country controlled by full-blooded Negroes. [peror.]
Oct. 8. **Dessalines** proclaims himself **em-**
1806. *Oct. 17.* **Dessalines assassinated** by his own followers. Period of contention and confusion follows.
Spanish renew their **control** over eastern end of the island, and call the colony **Santo Domingo.**
1820. Boyer establishes his power and gains complete control over French end of the island.
1822. Boyer conquers Spanish colony and remains **president** until 1843, when he is driven from the island.
1838. *Feb. 12.* France by treaty formally recognizes **Independence of Haiti.** Following a statement in 1825 of renunciation of suzerainty, a treaty is negotiated April 2, 1831, but not ratified by Haiti.
1844. Santo Domingo regains Independence. Haiti relapses into a series of short-time presidencies and civil wars.
1849. Soulouque proclaims himself emperor.
1859. Geffrard, a mulatto, drives Soulouque out and becomes president.
1861. *Nov. 3.* First **treaty** of amity (recognition) and commerce **with United States.**
1867. Salnave overthrows Geffrard.
1870. *Jan. 15.* Salnave shot. Several short-term presidencies and revolutions follow.
1879. *Oct. 22.* **Salomon** elected president.
1888. Salomon deposed, and civil war rages between Légitime and Hippolyte.
1889. Whites for first time permitted to hold land and become **citizens.**
Oct. 2. **Haiti** has delegation at first **Pan-American Congress** at Washington (see UNITED STATES).
Oct. 6. **Hippolyte** elected president. He rules arbitrarily but with comparative peace until his death. [successor.]
1896. *April 1.* **Simon Sam** elected as Hippolyte's
1902. Simon Sam's flight followed by civil war.
December. **Alexis** becomes president. Disturbances and crooked finances promote **International complications.**
1908. *Dec. 7.* Alexis overthrown after a turbulent rule. December 17, **Simon** elected his successor.
1911. *July 5.* Continued financial dereliction results in a **joint note** from United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy insisting on prompt settlement of **claims.** Haiti has long been **protected from foreign control** or coercion, similar to that on Venezuela in 1902, by the Monroe Doctrine and attitude of United States.
Aug. 2. President Simon flees. August 16, **Leconte** inaugurated president.
1912. *Aug. 8.* Leconte killed by explosion in the palace. **Auguste** chosen president.
1913. *May 4.* **Oreste** elected president following death of Auguste. Conditions become even more chaotic than before; **national bankruptcy and permanent anarchy impend.**
1914. *Jan. 27.* Oreste abdicates. February 8, **Zamor** elected president.
May. Great Britain, by presence of a cruiser, forces payment of an adjudged claim. Germany and France make a formal demand for control of customs.
August. On outbreak of World War, **Haiti** promptly **suspends payment** of all government obligations.
October. Another revolution. October 19, **American marines** land at Cap-Haïtien to main-

1914 (*continued*).
tain order. Zamor flees. October 22, **Théodore,** leader of the revolt, succeeds as president and is regularly elected Nov. 7. Negotiations with **United States** for a **fiscal protectorate.**

1915. *Feb. 23.* Théodore, defeated by **Guillaume Sam,** abdicates and flees. March 1, Guillaume Sam proclaimed president, and is speedily confronted by another revolt. **French marines land** at Cap-Haitien to protect foreign interests. June, **United States** sends a cruiser under **Caperton,** an officer superior in rank to the French commander, and **takes over the protection.**

July. **Reign of terror** inaugurated by Guillaume Sam. July 28, he is himself slain.

Aug. 5. **American marines take** possession of **the fort** dominating Port-au-Prince, the capital, and Caperton, on August 18, takes control of the customhouse. Cap-Haitien and other towns also held by marines. August 12, under American auspices, **Dartiguenave** elected provisional president by Congress. September 4, Caperton declares martial law at Port-au-Prince.

Sept. 16. Treaty with **United States** signed, establishing a **virtual protectorate;** control of customs and general finances, including all expenditures; native constabulary force officered by Americans. **American control taken** without waiting for ratification of treaty; Haitian Congress ratifies promptly, American Senate on February 28, 1916. Skirmishes between marines and natives follow, but **country tranquil** by end of October and remains so. Of the 25 rulers of Haiti down to American occupation only two filled out their terms; 15 were driven from power, 8 were killed or died in office.

1916. *May.* Parliamentary crisis over refusal of Congress to be dissolved in accordance with plan for new constitution harmonizing with treaty with United States. Caperton supports decree of dissolution, which prevails.

1917. *April.* Constituent assembly meets to consider the new constitution. [Germany.

June 18. Rupture of diplomatic relations with

1918. *June 19.* New constitution receives popular ratification.

July 15. **War declared on Germany.**

1919. *Jan. 18.* Haiti has a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.

Feb. 25. Admiral **Snowden,** U.S.N., **assumes military charge.** American marines in occupation assist in **sanitary betterment** and **internal improvement. Native constabulary** operates successfully.

1920. The country still unpacified. Conflicts between "bandits" and marines said to be due to forced labor on the roads.

HAWAII.

See under United States, page 209.

HEJAZ.

The Kingdom of Hejaz was recognized as an independent state during the World War. It includes the most important portions of Arabia and in it are found the Holy Cities, Mecca and Medina. Ottoman control in the past was recognized chiefly through the payment of an annual subsidy, but in 1916 the Emir Husein assumed the title of the King of Hejaz and threw off Turkish control. Hejaz has an estimated area of about 100,000 square miles and an estimated population of 750,000.

ARABIA.

For ages this part of the world has been known as Arabia, an enormous peninsula of over a million square miles lying between the Red Sea on the west, the Indian Ocean on the south, and the Persian Gulf on the east. Since the keys of the two Holy Cities, Medina and Mecca, were brought to Sultan Selim I., in 1517, it has been regarded as a tributary of Turkey; but the Turks have never exercised authority except in the provinces of Hejaz and Yemen, which stretch along the Red Sea. In the extreme southwest corner is the British protectorate of Aden and in the southeast corner is the sultanate of Oman, in which British political influence is predominant.

The interior of Arabia is a wide semidesert region given over to nomadic tribes, embraced under the comprehensive name of the Bedouins, some of whom, however, have fixed dwellings. The greater part are shepherds and herdsmen whose favorite pastime is the sacking of villages and the robbing of caravans. Each tribe, whether nomad or settled, is ruled by its sheik. Slavery is a deep-rooted institution, and the slave trade is still carried on. The majority of the Bedouins are orthodox Moslems.

The organized parts of **Arabia** have been included **in the new kingdom of Hejaz.**

Chronology.

570. This is the approximate date of the **birth of Mohammed,** at Mecca. Before this the Arabian peninsula had seen many small kingdoms variously under Jewish, Roman, Persian, Abyssinian, and Byzantine influence.

622. Mohammed's flight (hegira) to Medina with the followers of his new creed of Islam.

632. Mohammed dies, having accomplished the spread of his religion throughout Arabia, and also made important steps toward political unity.

632–1258. Caliphate. Under the rule of the successors of Mohammed, Islamism is extended by conquest through Asia, northern Africa, and into Spain. At first Medina continues to be the political capital of this increasing empire, but **Damascus** displaces it in 658, and **Bagdad** succeeds in 766. **Mecca and Medina,** however, remain the **Holy Cities** of the Mohammedan faith. Arabia resumes its earlier condition of disorganization and intertribal contests. Except for the holy pilgrimages and the hold retained by its language throughout the Moslem world, the country becomes again politically impotent, a province owing nominal allegiance to the Bagdad or Egyptian caliphate. Mecca and Medina are governed by local shereefs, lieutenants of the caliphs, and bound to provide protection for the pilgrims.

1200. One line of the descendants of Mohammed is hereafter recognized as supreme in Mecca, the heads of it being successively the **Grand Shereef of Mecca,** preceded in official prayers by the caliph only. Between the shereefs and the representatives of the suzerain power there is constant friction.

1508–1651. European connection with Arabia begins with the Portuguese occupation of Maskat and surrounding regions of Oman, on the Persian Gulf.

1517. Turkish sultan, Selim I., having conquered Egypt, recognized as **caliph and spiritual head of Islam,** with control over the Hejaz, the strip of country stretching along the northern half of the Red Sea and containing the Holy Cities. Nominal Turkish suzerainty is acquired over other portions of the peninsula. Oman remains independent; there is no effectual control over the interior.

1742. Beginning of Wahabiism, a puritan movement which gains control over much of Arabia and takes Mecca and Medina, but grows corrupt.

1798. Sultan of Oman treats with the British East India Company, the beginning of **British sphere of influence** there. British intervention at various times upholds the independence of the sultanate, though it is for a while tributary to the earlier Wahabi empire.

1818. Wahabi rule finally overthrown by an Egyptian army under Ibrahim, the son of Mehemet Ali.

1824. Wahabi state begins again and continues to the present time. It acquires practically independent control over central Arabia and El Haza on the Persian Gulf, consisting sometimes of one and sometimes of two emirates.

1838. *September.* **Aden is ceded to Great Britain** by its sultan. Protectorate over the hinterland develops.

1845. Egyptian army finally withdrawn from Arabia, and **nominal Turkish control** and administration of the Red Sea littoral is resumed later, but is resented and obstructed as much as possible by the Arabs.

1854. Sultan of Oman cedes to Great Britain the Kuria Muria Islands.

1857. Great Britain occupies the island of Perim, at the mouth of the Red Sea.

1902–1905. Turko-British commission **delimitates the British sphere** in southern Arabia, placing Oman and the coast between Oman and Aden within the sphere. Great Britain has earlier engaged the rulers of the southern coast not to cede any territory without British consent. Great Britain also subsidizes the sultanate of **Koweit,** on the northern shore of the Persian Gulf; expected terminus of Berlin-to-Bagdad railway (see Mesopotamia). [of Mecca.

1908. Husein ibn Ali becomes shereef and emir

Railroad connection between Medina and Damascus opened. Line is later extended northward to junction at Aleppo with the German-controlled Bagdad railway. This Hejaz railway a great aid to the Turkish military control over the region.

1916. *June 5.* Shereef **Husein,** taking advantage of Turkish preoccupation in the World War, **declares his independence.**

August. He issues a proclamation to the Moslem world giving the reasons for his actions; denounces the control of the Young Turks as sapping the foundation of the Mohammedan faith, for maligning the Prophet, for murder, and for profanation, especially in shelling the Caaba at Mecca.

September. France, with British approval, sends a delegation of Moslems to congratulate the new Arabian government and to extend aid. Aid comes also from Egypt. By the end of the year the emir's army has gained complete control over the Hejaz, except Medina and the territory along the railroad. Turks cling to Medina, the burial place of the Prophet, as evidence of the continuance of their claim to the hegemony of Islam. Under Arabic and Allied protection the holy pilgrimages are resumed.

Nov. 16. The emir assumes the title of **King of the Hejaz,** and is **recognized** by the Allies.

1917–1918. The Hejaz army, under Emir **Feisal,** the king's son, operates in connection with the British-Egyptian invasion of Syria. Feisal's forces advance northward in the region of the railroad.

1918. *Sept. 30.* Damascus is occupied by both British and Arabian troops. After the formal entry, the next day Allenby turns the city over to the Hejaz administration.

Oct. 30. **Armistice** with Turkey calls for the withdrawal of her troops from all places still held in the Arabian vilayets, including Medina.

1919. *Jan. 18.* Hejaz is represented at the Peace conference by two delegates.

1920. For relations of Arabia and Syria, see Syria.

May 11. **Treaty of peace** is handed to the Turkish delegates. It recognizes independence of Hejaz.

HERZEGOVINA.

See under Jugo-Slavia, page 123.

HONDURAS.

See under Central America, page 79.

HONDURAS, BRITISH.

See under British Empire, page 74.

HONGKONG.

See under British Empire, page 62.

HUNGARY.

Historical Outline.

The Kingdom of Hungary owed its foundation to the invasion of the non-Aryan tribe of Magyars. This people, probably akin to the Finns, under the leadership of the semimythical king Arpád, reached the great plain of Hungary at the close of the ninth century and completely overthrew the empire of Moravia. The Bulgarians, Serbs, and Croats in the southern provinces were quickly reduced and a non-European dynasty and kingdom were established between Teutonic Europe, the Turkish Empire, and the Slavic territories to the east. Christianity from the Roman Catholic Church was introduced by Stephen I., who was recognized king of Hungary in the year 1000 by Pope Sylvester II. Immigration from other parts of Europe took place and Hungary became the refuge of thousands of immigrants from central Europe, especially Germans. Other movements from the east and south brought in Roumanians and a few Serbs.

From the time of Stephen down to comparatively recent times, little attempt was made to weld the kingdom into a united nation. During his reign the political power was entirely in the hands of the Magyar freemen, who were nobles; and until 1848 the whole burden of taxation was borne by the mass of peasants.

In 1222, during the reign of Andrew II., the "Golden Bull" was promulgated, which has been compared to the Great Charter of England and which served as the first basis for the written constitution of the Magyar kingdom. The purpose of the Golden Bull was to strengthen the crown by uniting with it the interest of the mass of the Magyar nobility, who like the crown were threatened by the great barons. It also confirmed the principle of exemption from taxation of all nobles and their right to refuse military service abroad. The Arpád dynasty came to an end in 1308 and during the four hundred years of its rule, in spite of the terrible Tatar invasion, had founded a Christian state and a national monarchy based on a Western model.

Hungary came under the House of Anjou (1308–1382); and under the rule of Louis the Great the Polish crown was added to that of Hungary. Sigismund (1387–1437) of the House of Luxemburg succeeded Louis the Great. As king of Hungary, Sigismund fought bravely against the Turkish peril and prevented further inroads of the Turks. But on the whole the greatness of the kingdom began to decline. In the fifteenth century the Turks again threatened Hungary, but were defeated by John Hunyadi (Hunyadi János) at Belgrade (1456). In 1458 the Diet chose Matthias, son of John Hunyadi, as king. Under his leadership the army was reorganized, the finances reformed, and Hungary raised to a high rank among the powers of Europe. On his death the decline was rapid, and during the reign of Ladislas II. the royal power almost disappeared and feudalism was the main governing force.

In the first quarter of the sixteenth century, Sultan Solyman invaded the land, and the Hungarian

army was defeated at the battle of Mohács (1526), in which the king and 24,000 men were killed. The sultan occupied Buda but soon withdrew, carrying with him 105,000 captives and ravaging the territory. As a result of this invasion a portion of Hungary came into the hands of Ferdinand of Austria, for which the Austrian sovereign paid tribute to Turkey. For the next two centuries Hungary suffered alike under the pressure of the Hapsburgs and the Turkish invasion, which did not end until the Peace of Karlowitz (1699). During the eighteenth century Hungary, united to Austria, was drawn by Austria into the wars of the Spanish Succession and the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War, and finally shared with Austria the shock of the Napoleonic wars.

In the middle of the nineteenth century came a Hungarian national revival and a struggle for autonomy, or independence. The first great leader was Count István (Stephen) Széchenyi, who demanded social reform and aimed to make Hungary a prosperous modern state. His work, however, was carried on outside; within the Hungarian Diet developed a radical party led by Louis Kossuth and Ferencz (Francis) Deák. By 1840 Kossuth became the leader of the Liberal party and urged a program which demanded taxation of the nobles, control by the Diet of all national expenses, liberty of the press, freedom for public meetings and associations, and autonomy for Hungary.

On March 3, 1848, Kossuth in the Hungarian Diet initiated the revolution by a marvelous speech which was spread throughout the empire. In Austria it brought about the fall of Metternich and in Hungary the passage of the famous March Laws. These laws destroyed the old aristocratic political machinery and established a democratic constitution. Feudal service was abolished, religious freedom established, liberty of the press and trial by jury proclaimed, and the Diet was to be elected, not by the privileged nobility, but by every Hungarian who possessed property to the amount of $150.

Moreover, the relations between Hungary and the empire were vitally altered, and Hungary became practically independent, having its own ministry, not only for domestic business, but for war, finance, and foreign affairs. Hungary and Austria were now united only by the common sovereign. Should the consent of Austria be obtained, Hungary's autonomy would be complete. This consent was given under compulsion on April 10, 1848, and Hungary created a national army and adopted a national flag.

Although Hungary had practically won independence, the new Austrian emperor, Francis Joseph, was waiting for an opportune time to reassert his power, and took advantage of the racial rivalries. The Revolution of 1848 was carried on by the Magyars, who, although the most numerous single race, formed a minority of the population. In the summer of 1848 the Serbs, Croatians, and Roumanians demanded from Hungary the same privileges that Hungary had won from Austria. The Hungarians would not consent, and Austria exploited the situation by stirring up the Croatians. In September, 1848, the Serbs and Croatians began a civil war against the Magyars; and Kossuth and the radical party gained control of the Hungarian Diet. War was declared against Hungary by Austria in 1849; and, although the Magyars were unsuccessful during the first months of the year, a few victories in April led them to declare for independence and to establish a republic with Kossuth as president. Austria appealed to Russia and the Czar willingly responded. Between 100,000 and 200,000 Russian troops poured into Hungary, while the Austrians advanced from the west. The Hungarians fought bravely, but were forced to capitulate at Világos August 13, 1849; and Hungary's independence was at an end.

For the next ten years Hungary was ruled as a subject province of Austria without local self-government. In 1861 Francis Joseph attempted to create some form of constitutional government and one parliament for the entire empire. The Hungarians refused to coöperate; they believed that Hungary had always been a separate nation, united to Austria only in the person of the sovereign. They objected to a constitution being "granted" by the Austrian emperor and demanded one founded upon their historic right.

After the war with Prussia a compromise or *Ausgleich* was established in 1867, which served as the constitution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire until November, 1919. (See Austria.)

The political history of recent Hungary has turned upon race questions. The Magyars, although the most numerous race, were still in the minority, yet they had held control and attempted to Magyarize the other peoples. Only in Croatia, where there was a strong Slavic population, have they allowed the subject nationalities to develop. Here they established a compromise similar to that which Austria had given them in 1867. Elsewhere the Magyars, with their political experience, dominated the peasants of the other nationalities.

Nevertheless the policy was not successful; even in Croatia there was a demand for larger independence, while the Roumanians in Transylvania demanded union with the kingdom of Roumania and many of the Serbs in the south desired to join with Serbia.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century the Magyars, now under the lead of Francis Kossuth, son of Louis Kossuth, demanded a greater independence in the affairs of the empire. They asked for separate diplomatic representation in foreign affairs and the privilege of framing their own tariff laws. Most emphatically did they demand the use of the Magyar language in the Hungarian part of the imperial army. These demands the emperor, Francis Joseph, denied, and he even threatened to abdicate. He added the threat of introduction of universal suffrage. To this the Magyars were opposed, inasmuch as universal suffrage would submerge the Magyar minority.

During the World War, in spite of demands from the Liberal party for independence, Hungary remained faithful to Austria until November 1, 1918. On that date a revolution broke out and a Hungarian republic was proclaimed. November 11, Emperor Charles abdicated, and the separation between Austria and Hungary was complete. The new Hungarian republic faced great difficulties, shortage of food, and grave social discontent. Moreover, the Roumanians, Serbs, and Czechs advanced into Hungarian territory and occupied the Bánát region, from which came the food supply, and the northern coal mines, upon which industrial life depended. At the beginning of 1919 a Bolshevist outbreak occurred and a Soviet government was established under Bela Kun. At first the new government won some success against its enemies but receiving no support from the Allies in the Peace Conference it finally fell and was replaced by a republican form of government. In January, 1920, the Peace Treaty of Neuilly was handed to the Hungarian delegates.

Organization.

Government. Between 1918 and 1920 Hungary had four forms of government. Until the abdication of the Emperor Charles, Hungary was living under the old historic constitution, which had developed from the Golden Bull of 1222 and was partly written and partly dependent upon tradition. This constitution was declared forfeited in 1849 but was restored in 1860, and when Emperor Francis Joseph I. was crowned king of Hungary he swore, in 1867, to maintain the constitution.

The legislative power was vested in a Parliament of two houses. The House of Magnates, composed chiefly of nobles and clergy and ex-officio members, numbered 304. The House of Deputies was elected by the vote of male citizens of 20 years of age who were able to meet the suffrage qualifications. In 1912 the number of voters was 1,221,415, or a fourth of the male population over 20 years of age. It was by means of this unrepresentative assembly that the Magyar minority succeeded in maintaining its supremacy. In all, the assembly had 453 members, of whom only 40 represented the titular kingdom of Croatia and Slavonia.

The executive power was in the hands of the king, wielded by a ministry responsible to Parliament. In 1913 there were 13 ministers, the president of the council, the ministry of finance, the ministry of the king's person, the ministry of national defense, the ministry of the interior, the ministry of education and public worship, the ministry of justice, the ministry of industry and commerce, the ministry of agriculture, the minister for Croatia and Slavonia.

From November 2, 1918, to March 22, 1919, a republican form of government was established, with Count Karelyi as prime minister. This republic fell, and a Bolshevist Soviet government was established with a ministry formed by the Workmen's Council of Budapest. This, in turn, gave way to the reëstablishment of the republic.

Industry and Labor. In Hungary the cultivation of the soil was the chief industry and supported two thirds of the population, more than 42% of the total area being classified as arable land and about 27% as forest land, nearly half of which belonged to the state. On the establishment of the republic, measures were taken to break up the vast estates and distribute the land to the peasants. Before the World War the chief agricultural crops were corn, wheat, oats, barley, and rye. The fruit crops were varied and valuable and the tobacco crop extremely important. The horses of Hungary are famous, and the breed is carefully preserved. In April, 1913, there were over 2,000,000 horses in Hungary, besides vast flocks of sheep, goats, and pigs. Silk culture is also important. There is valuable mineral wealth and the most important products, before the war, were lignite, iron ore, some coal, and a little gold.

The manufactures of Hungary gave employment, before the war, to about a twelfth of the population, and included the manufacture of clothing and foodstuffs, iron and metal work, beer and ale, sugar, and tobacco products. The chief exports, in the year before the war, were cereals, live stock, and sugar.

Religion. There was complete religious toleration and equality of both sexes before the law. A little over half of the population are Roman Catholic, 18% Evangelical, 14% Greek Orthodox.

Education. Education in Hungary was conducted by means of infant schools, elementary and repetition schools, preparatory schools for teachers, universities, and special schools. Attendance at school was compulsory for children between the ages of 6 and 12 and repetition courses for children from 12 to 15 years; while children between 3 and 6, unless otherwise provided for, might be sent to infant schools. In spite of this elaborate system, in 1910 over 9,000,000 out of a population of 21,000,000 were unable to read and write. Five universities were maintained by the state, of which the largest was the University of Budapest, with 437 professors and about 5,400 students.

Defense. Before the separation of Austria and Hungary, compulsory military service was required from the 19th to the 42nd year, and Hungary contributed her share to the common army. In addition there was the Hungarian reserve (*Honvédség*), numbering about 36,000, who served for two years with the colors. After ten years' further service in the *Honvédség*, service in the Landsturm (*Népfölkelés*), or territorial army, was required until the 42nd birthday. With the establishment of the republic of Hungary a new army was raised, but its final organization awaits the ratification of peace.

In 1910 the **area** of Hungary was 125,609 square miles and the **population** was 20,886,487. Of these something over 10,000,000 were Magyar, nearly 3,000,000 Roumanian, over 2,000,000 German, 1,600,000 Croatian, 1,000,000 Serbian. The Peace Treaty of 1920 reduced both the area and population of the ancient kingdom. Hungary now (1920) has an area less than half the size of the old kingdom, and a population of about 8,500,000.

Chronology.

For events in common with Austria, see Austria-Hungary. For other early events, see Medieval Period, *Chronology*, and Early Modern Period, *Chronology*.

901. Completion of **conquest by Magyars**, a Ural-Altaic race, of the Slav races occupying modern Hungary.

1000. Pope Sylvester II. makes Stephen I. king of Hungary. Magyars **converted to Latin Church.**

1526. Ferdinand of Hapsburg, later emperor, is elected **king** of Hungary. A rival kingdom continues; Turkish invasion results from 1547 in a **tripartite division** between Hapsburgs, Turkey, and Magyar rulers.

1687. *October.* Emperor Leopold forces the Hungarian Diet to declare the **crown** (hitherto elective) **hereditary** in house of Hapsburg.

1699. *Jan. 26.* By Treaty of Karlowitz between the empire and Turkey, **Hungary is again united** under the Hapsburgs.

1741. Hungarian nobles pledge support to Queen Maria Theresa.

1784. German is made the **official language**; one of the measures of Joseph II. toward the formation of a **unified absolute sovereignty.**

1823. Hungarian reaction sets in against Metternich's absolutist policy. Diet is summoned; but the Magyar minority allowed practically to exclude the majority of Slav and Wallachian subject peoples.

1839. Magyar restored as **official language.**

1848. *April 10.* Royal approval is given to the Ten Points or **March Laws**, including responsible ministry, popular representation, incorporation of Transylvania, freedom of assembly, religious liberty, equality before the law, universal taxation, abolition of obsolete land tenure, and abolition of serfdom. (For subject races at this time, see Czecho-Slovakia, Jugo-Slavia. For Hungarian revolt, see Austria-Hungary.)

1849. *March 7.* Emperor Francis Joseph proclaims a united constitution for whole empire; practical **destruction of Hungarian autonomy.**

1867. Military disasters and isolation compel Austria to reconcile Magyars. **Ausgleich** is agreed to by which the Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary is established (see Austria-Hungary).

1868. *May 29.* New Hungarian constitution: an amplification of the March Laws. **Magyarizing** of subject races becomes fixed policy, aided by extreme limitation of suffrage and manipulation of representation.

1902–1906. Contest between king and Parliament over imperial control of Hungarian army, especially over use of **German or Magyar words of command.** Insistent demand for **universal suffrage.**

1909. *Nov. 11.* Coalition ministry (Magyar chauvinists) introduces a universal suffrage bill, but so controlled as not to imperil the Magyar state idea. Not enacted; another long political crisis ensues.

1912. *June 4.* **Army bill** satisfactory to the king is forced through Parliament amid riotous demonstrations.

1913. *May 15.* **Electoral reform act** is passed, which, however, by manipulation of age, property,

1913 (*continued*).
and educational qualifications (plural voting) continues the Magyar and class control. Drastic measures used to keep down riotous opposition.

1914. Hungarian statesmen join with the Germans in Austria to force war on Russia, which at once becomes a World War. [HUNGARY.]
For the WORLD WAR, see that title, and AUSTRIA-

1916. *Aug. 17.* **Roumanian treaty with Allies;** Roumania is promised practically all of Hungary east of the Tisza River.

1917. *May 23.* Resignation of **Tisza** ministry, in power since June 9, 1913. Count Julius **Andrássy,** an advanced Liberal, becomes **premier** on May 29.

1918. *Oct. 30.* **Revolution at Budapest;** troops act in agreement with the National Council under the leadership of **Karolyi,** head of the Independence party. Karolyi is made **premier** by the king; the ministry is largely Socialist. (For independent actions of subject peoples, see CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, JUGO-SLAVIA.)

Nov. 1. Tisza assassinated.

Nov. 2. Karolyi announces that King Charles has freed Hungary from its allegiance.

Nov. 13. **Armistice** between Hungary and Allied commander; limitation is placed on advance of Allied troops; but Serbs, Czechs, and Roumanians disregard this and by occupying portions of Hungary cut off coal and food supplies.

Nov. 16. **Hungarian independence is proclaimed; Karolyi president.**

Dec. 1. Transylvania National Council proclaims union with Roumania, thus abandoning Hungary.

1919. *March 19.* Supreme Council at Paris orders Hungary to withdraw troops within the Tisza line.

March 21. Karolyi's government falls; he turns control over to the **Communists** under **Bela Kun.**

March 22. New government proclaims the **rule of the proletariat** and solidarity with Russian Bolsheviki.

April 4. Supreme Council negotiates with Bela Kun for neutral zone between Hungarian and Roumanian armies. Terms rejected; Roumanian, Czech, and Serb armies advance on Budapest.

June 24–26. Counter-revolt in Budapest is put down with great severity. [manians.]

July 23. Bela Kun moves against the Rou-

July 26. Supreme Council puts pressure on Hungarian people to overthrow the Reds.

July 31. **Soviet government resigns;** succeeded by a moderate Socialistic ministry. **Bela Kun leaves** Hungary.

Aug. 4. **Roumanians,** in spite of contrary orders by Supreme Council, **occupy Budapest** and seize property. Supreme Council protests, Roumania threatens to permit a return of "chaos."

Aug. 6. 'Government overthrown by a *coup d'état* of **Archduke Joseph,** who becomes regent. Reactionary **Friedrich ministry.**

Aug. 20. Archduke **Joseph resigns** under the dictation of the Supreme Council.

Sept. 1. Friedrich ministry resigns.

Sept. 7. Envoys sent from Paris with an **ultimatum to Roumania;** Budapest in a deplorable condition.

Nov. 23. **Huszar** coalition **ministry** formed. Reprisals against Communists.

Dec. 10. **Roumania** signs the Austrian treaty, and also (after 17 ultimatums) **retires from Budapest,** but troops stop at the Tisza.

1920. *Jan. 15.* **Peace Treaty of Neuilly** handed to Hungarian delegates practically separates Croatia and Slavonia Fiume, a German-speaking belt on the western boundary, the former province of Pressburg, the Bánát, and Transylvania. Boundaries to be adjusted by a commission. Provision made for reparation, size of army (35,000), and division of financial obligations.

Jan. 25–31. **Elections to the National Assembly** prove anti-Socialist. Evidence of desire for monarchy.

Feb. 2. Council of ambassadors warns Hungary that restoration of the Hapsburgs will not be permitted.

Feb. 27. Roumanian troops withdrawn to the prescribed line beyond the Tisza.

March 1. Admiral **Horthy** is elected regent by the National Assembly.

ICELAND.

THE important island in the north Atlantic Ocean known as **Iceland** belongs properly to the Western Hemisphere. It is four times as far from the Norwegian coast as from Greenland. Being of a volcanic origin, the coast is irregular and the interior is thrust up into jagged mountains. The island is noted for its climatic and other peculiar features — lava beds and extinct craters and geysers.

The great importance of Iceland as a country lies in the old Norse stock here displayed in its purest and best development. The language and the spirit of the race are expressed in an interesting literature. At a time when America was unknown, poets and story-tellers and historians flourished in Iceland. Poems and that peculiar form of the epic called the saga abounded before there was any extensive English literature.

The sailors of this stock were the most adventurous of any in the Middle Ages. Only the Italians and Portuguese and Dutch navigators of a later age rivaled the Norse sea kings in their goings forth and discoveries.

Iceland was colonized by Norse adventurers about the middle of the ninth century. The first permanent settlement is attributed to Ingolf the Norwegian, who chose exile rather than the acceptance of the Christian religion, and organized a government about the year 930. An assembly of the pagan chiefs founded the *Althing* in the plain of Thingvalla. The government was representative and democratic. There was a national parliament composed of the chiefs, and a president called the *Lagmadur.*

In the year 1000 Christianity was adopted by the Althing as the religion of the republic. The civil life of the people became active, and political excitement ran to party divisions. By taking advantage of these divisions the Norwegians succeeded in obtaining the sovereignty of the country. In the latter half of the twelfth century, the Black Death ravaged Iceland and a considerable period elapsed before the people recovered their spirits.

A new disaster came when the Danes (1380) extended their sway over Iceland. This fatal blow at national independence seemed to paralyze the spirit of the people. For a long time Iceland remained a scarcely discoverable spot in the history of Europe. The publication of the Icelandic and Norwegian manuscripts and the explication of the sagas by the antiquaries of Denmark and Sweden revived the interest, first of scholars and then of the whole world, in the literature and history of the Norse countries.

In 1874 the millennial anniversary of Iceland was celebrated with as much *éclat* as the whole population could give to the occasion. The king of Denmark visited the island in person, and was received with enthusiasm.

The government of Iceland as a dependency of Denmark ceased under the Act of Union of November 30, 1918, under which the island is now practically an independent state.

The **area** is 39,709 square miles. The **population** by last census (1910) was 85,183.

INDIA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 62.

INDIA (French and Portuguese).

See under FRANCE, page 96, and under PORTUGAL, page 135.

INDO-CHINA.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

IRELAND.

See BRITISH EMPIRE, page 50.

ITALY.

Historical Outline.

OF all nations of Europe, Italy has been the most transformed by the passage from ancient to modern times. Italy was the seat of the Roman Empire. When that empire was divided, the western part was submerged by barbarian invasions, and Teutonic principalities were founded throughout the peninsula. During the Middle Ages there grew up the free cities which developed into states governed by a semirepublican élite or by commercial guilds. Political unity was impossible, but the rivalries of these states enlarged the sense of individual power which made Italy the home of the Renaissance. Throughout, the pope, as the head of the universal church, was the spiritual leader and also a political ruler of the territory called the States of the Church. Italy was an object of contention and a battlefield for Spain, France, and Germany.

Down to the middle of the 17th century no one considerable state existed within the limits of Italy, except Venice, which had fought for and still possessed mainlands and islands on and beyond the Adriatic. Milan, Florence, Genoa, and Pisa, and some smaller cities, kept up a tradition of independence without the reality. Rome was the traditional center of the peninsula but had little governmental power. Naples was a kingdom under a foreign line of sovereigns. Italy had become what Metternich later dubbed it: — "a geographical expression." Even the so-called Italian states — Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and the rest — were pawns in European politics, several of them practically Austrian, bought, sold, traded, divided, inherited, given away. The traditions and prestige of Rome were the only forces within Italy that were regarded outside.

Francis I. of France invaded Italy in 1515. Soldiers of Charles V. sacked Rome in 1527. The Swiss came down from the north; Piedmont was controlled by the French for a time, under Louis XIV. Venice, after the discovery of the all-water route to the Indies, lost her ascendancy in the Mediterranean countries. As a result of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), Austria received Naples and Sardinia. Between 1731 and 1737 Tuscany and the possessions of the Medici passed to Francis of Lorraine, the husband of Maria Theresa; and in 1748 there was a general partition of Italy: Austria retained Milan and Tuscany; Don Philip, brother of Charles III. of Spain, held Parma and Piacenza; Charles III. was confirmed in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies; Modena went under the protection of the French; the ancient house of Savoy in the north assumed royalty in 1720; and this kingdom of Piedmont was the only genuinely Italian state, except the republics of Venice and Genoa, which remained nominally independent.

During the French Revolution the French invaded Piedmont and the Austrian possessions, swept down the peninsula (1804), captured the pope, and occupied Naples. In 1804 Emperor Napoleon redistributed Italy. Part was annexed directly to the French Empire; another part was erected into the kingdom of Italy, with himself as king and his stepson, Eugène de Beauharnais, as viceroy. The remainder was made into the kingdom of Naples under Napoleon's brother, Joseph, and afterwards under his brother-in-law, Murat. The papacy was recognized by the Concordat of 1801. Venice was dismembered.

The supremacy of the French made the later Italian unity possible, in that it created three governments instead of a dozen states. Feudalism was abolished, political barriers were thrown down, commercial intercourse was made more free, enlightened laws were imposed, and industry was stimulated.

The collapse of Napoleon's empire left Italy again in confusion. The Congress of Vienna (1815) undid most of the work of the French and created ten states, none large enough to be a danger. To Austria were given as provinces Lombardy and Venice; Austrian princes ruled in three other states, making Austria the controlling power in the north. In the south Ferdinand, king of Naples, was allied with Austria. The only independent powers left on the map were the States of the Church and the little kingdom of Piedmont with the island to the south; the combined territory was called the kingdom of Sardinia. Yet in this tough and vigorous state, which included the great port of Genoa, was preserved a national spirit which made it the nucleus of a united Italy.

Within five years of the Congress of Vienna, Milan and Naples were both in revolt, but Austria, as the agent of the Holy Alliance, suppressed the rising in Naples. Similar stirrings in 1830 were put down; Austria's power seemed invincible. The only hope was in Piedmont, which made war on Austria. In 1849 King Charles Albert was defeated, abdicated, and was succeeded by his son, Victor Emmanuel II. In 1853 Cavour became prime minister and began to prove himself the consummate statesman of Italy. He set out to bring about the unification of Italy. Piedmont received a constitution; Cavour labored to strengthen its industrial and economic condition so that it might be fit to play its part. With magnificent audacity Sardinia joined France and England in declaring war upon Russia in 1855. As a result Piedmont was given a place at the Congress of Paris in 1856 and won the sympathy of Emperor Napoleon III. of France.

In 1859 Cavour secured the powerful alliance of France for the price of Nice and a strip of Savoy. Austria was provoked to declare war upon Piedmont, and Napoleon came to its aid. The allies were successful and won the battles of Magenta and Solferino. Then Napoleon weakened and, to the wrath of Cavour, refused to carry out the full program. The hasty peace of Villafranca transferred Lombardy with Milan to Piedmont; but Austria was not expelled from Venice nor was Italy united.

Within a year came a great popular movement throughout Italy. The simple plain Garibaldi, without the support of Cavour, led the Legion of the Thousand which overthrew the Bourbons in Sicily and Naples. The people of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies voted to join themselves to Sardinia (Piedmont). In 1866, Italy allied with Prussia in the war against Austria and although the Italians were defeated by land and sea, Austria was compelled to liberate Venice. Thus Italy was at last united, except for Rome, which would have gone into the combination but for a garrison of French troops. In 1870, during the Franco-Prussian War, Rome was occupied by Italian troops and by popular vote joined Italy. It at once became the Italian capital. The entire peninsula thenceforward formed a united and independent kingdom under Victor Emmanuel and his successors.

Nevertheless, Italy was still a small and weak power. The pope refused to accept the loss of his temporalities and to come to living terms with the Italian government. As the "Prisoner of the Vatican" he might still furnish a cause for intervention by one of the great Roman Catholic powers. The

Italians, however, recalled the glories of the past. They had restored the center of the old Roman Empire and now looked forward to occupying its possessions in the Mediterranean. Tunis was the national ambition; and the French seizure of Tunis in 1881 gave a shock to the friendship and gratitude of the Italian people. Hence, in 1882, Italy joined the alliance already formed between Austria and Germany — the famous Triple Alliance which dominated Europe in most crises until 1914. The protection offered by this alliance had its price: if Italy claimed the prerogatives of a great power, she must organize a military and naval program on a large scale. The result was heavy expenditure and growing debt.

Italy also embarked on colonial expansion. In 1885 she seized the port of Massaua on the Red Sea and set up the colony of Eritrea in East Africa and a protectorate of Somaliland. The colonies proved valueless, and led to war with Abyssinia and a disastrous defeat at Adowa (1896). In 1912 Italy went to war with Turkey for the possession of Tripoli; as a part of the hostilities, Italy occupied the Dodecanese, twelve islands in the Ægean Sea which were coveted by Greece, and which Italy agreed to surrender to Greece. Peace in 1913 confirmed these losses of Turkey. In 1917 Italy occupied Albania and set up a government at Durazzo; and in 1918–19 occupied parts of Dalmatia and Fiume, and still retained the Dodecanese.

At the outbreak of the World War Italy remained neutral, standing on her rights in holding that she was obliged to aid her allies only in a defensive war. Negotiations took place with both sides, Austria offering considerable territory. The decision was made to adhere to the *Entente* on the basis of the promise of Adriatic territory made in the secret Treaty of London of April 26, 1915. On May 4, 1915, she denounced the Triple Alliance, and on May 23 she joined the other powers and declared war against Austria and later (August 21) against Turkey and (October 19) against Bulgaria.

During the war, after some defeats, Italy won a great advantage in 1917 and almost reached Trieste; but on October 24 the Germans and Austrians began a formidable offensive and drove the Italians back to the Piave. Not until October in 1918 could Italy, with the aid of the Allies, make headway. Then, in a victorious campaign of about a week, 400,000 Austrian prisoners were taken and on November 4 Austria-Hungary accepted an armistice dictated by the Italians. As a result of the war Italy "redeemed" Italian territory by adding a region inhabited by Italian-speaking people and beyond that by pushing the political boundaries to the main divide of the Alps. These successes encouraged a hope for further advances, for the possession, in short, of all the rest of the eastern Adriatic coast from Trieste to southern Albania.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of Italy is an expansion of the charter granted by Charles Albert, king of Sardinia (Piedmont), in 1848. The executive power is vested in the king, but may be exercised only through ministers who are responsible to a parliament of two chambers. The Senate is composed of adult princes of the royal house and of an unlimited number of senators, nominated by the king for life. They must be 40 years of age, must have filled a high office or have acquired fame for the benefit of the nation, and must pay taxes of $600 a year. In 1917 there were 376 senators and seven members of the royal family. The *Camera de' Deputati* is chosen by universal manhood suffrage, but men less than 21 who have performed military service during the World War may also vote. The number of deputies is 508, or one for every 71,000. The duration of Parliament is five years and it must meet annually.

Under the parliamentary system the king has the power to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies but is compelled to order new elections and convoke a new meeting within four months. Politics in Italy have been much affected by individuals and by combinations rather than by genuine differences of political opinion. Two difficulties have stood in the way of real popular government. The first is the influence of a small group of irreconcilables, the "Catholic" group who long abstained from participation in the national life and denied the right of the Italian government to control them. The second is the rapid growth of the Socialists, who are numerous and well organized.

Industry and Labor. From time immemorial, Italy has been one of the fertile regions of the earth. Only 7.9% of the whole land is waste land, while 48.8% is tilled, 28.1% is in pasture, and 5.8% is devoted to vineyards and orchards. Land is held on one or another of three tenures: (1) Peasant proprietorship, which is most common in Piedmont and Liguria, although found in many other parts of Italy; (2) Partnership holdings, by which the peasant cultivates the land on shares, a system found in Tuscany, the Marches, and Umbria; (3) Rent, which exists in Lombardy and Venetia. Throughout Italy the land is generally divided into small holdings.

The chief agricultural crops in order of quantity produced in 1918 were wheat, corn, potatoes, sugar beets, oats, rice, and beans, while olive oil and wine were produced in large quantities. The silk culture is also important and in 1918 the silk cocoon crop amounted to more than 29,000,000 kilos. The refining of sugar is also becoming increasingly important, having grown from four sugar factories in 1899 to 34 in 1918, with an output sixteen times greater. The products of the forests are also important.

Many valuable minerals are found in Italy, the more important according to value of product being mineral fuel, sulphur ore, iron, zinc, mercury, lead, boric acid, and the output from the quarries of building and decorative stone. Italy, however, lacks coal and iron in paying quantities.

The birth rate of Italy is higher than that of any other country in Europe, and this has led to a condition in which not enough food is raised to support the population, which in less than fifty years increased by two fifths. The insufficiency of home-grown food proved a great drawback during the World War. Emigration has helped to readjust the balance; between 1876 and 1905 over 8,000,000 persons emigrated; but the hope of Italy was in becoming an industrial nation, so as to give employment at home and thus check emigration. Therefore Italy began to develop industries and German capital hastened the process. The industrial expansion proceeded so far that by 1908 emigration practically ceased except from southern Italy and Sicily. In 1911, 243,926 industrial establishments were enumerated which employed over 2,000,000 persons. The chief exports of Italian manufacture are raw silk, cotton and silk manufactures, and wines.

Religion. The state religion of Italy is the Roman Catholic, but freedom of worship is granted to all denominations, nineteen twentieths of the people professing to be Roman Catholics. In 1855 a law was passed providing for the suppression of religious corporations, which was extended in 1873.

The most difficult question which Italy has faced is the relation of the kingdom to the papacy. Since Italian unity was accomplished by the overthrow of the temporal authority of the pope in the Papal States, the pope regards the king and his government as a usurper in Rome. Although the government treated the pope with generosity and courtesy, granting him a quarter of Rome to be entirely under his control and an annual pension of over 3,000,000 francs, he still considers himself the "Prisoner of the Vatican" and refuses to leave its precincts and thus subject himself to the sovereignty of a "robber king." In the early years of the kingdom, moreover, the pope forbade all devout Catholics to take any part in the political life of the state, thereby creating the class of irreconcilables. As time has gone on some of the bitterness has disappeared and most Catholics to-day do not feel themselves debarred from voting or from political life.

Education. At the formation of the kingdom, the most pressing problem was that of education. In Piedmont and Lombardy, which were the most advanced sections, about a third of the men and more than one half of the women were illiterate, while in Naples and Sicily the number of illiterates exceeded 90%. In 1877 a compulsory educational law was passed, but because of the expense was not very thoroughly enforced. At present the state regulates public instruction, which is supported either entirely by the state or in conjunction with the towns and provinces. Public schools are of every grade, and every teacher must have the qualifications required by law. Four types of schools are maintained by the kingdom: (1) Elementary schools, of lower grades with compulsory attendance; every commune must have at least one for boys and one for girls. Higher grade elementary schools are required of the larger communes, and those having normal and secondary schools, and attendance is compulsory to the age of twelve; (2) Secondary classical schools, which provide instruction leading to the universities; (3) Secondary instruction in technical subjects, provided by special schools; (4) Higher education, met by twenty-one public universities, the oldest of which is the University of Bologna, founded in 1200, and the largest, that of Naples which has over 6,300 students, while the University of Rome has 4,100, Padua 2900, Bologna 2,600, Turin 2,400, Palermo 2,100. In the elementary and secondary schools there are over 4,000,000 pupils. The effect of this system of education is remarkable. In 1911 illiteracy was highest in Calabria (69.6%) and lowest in Piedmont (11%); certain districts reported that no young man or woman twenty years of age was unable to read and write.

Defense. Italy has an extensive seacoast, measuring about 2,000 miles, exclusive of the Italian islands. The land frontier bordering on France is 300 miles in extent; on Switzerland, 418; on Austria and Jugo-Slavia, 566; and on San Marino, 25. The routes into Italy from central Europe on the north are easily defended. The Alps are a sufficient barrier except for a few passes, mostly fortified. The boundary to the eastward between Jugo-Slavia and Italy is more open. The new boundary places Italy on the summit ridge of the high Alps. The Italian seaboard at all accessible points was well fortified under the conditions of warfare down to 1914 as were the islands and the Strait of Messina.

The Italian military system is modeled upon that of Germany. Service in the army and navy is universal and compulsory. The total period is 19 years, beginning at the age of 20. The young men of each annual contingent are divided into three classes: the first being drawn for the permanent army, the second for the permanent army "with unlimited leave," and the third of those exempted from military service, but assigned to the territorial militia. The term of service in the ranks of the permanent army is two years which is followed by eight years' service in the reserve, four years in the mobile militia, and seven years in the territorial militia.

The *Carabinieri*, or military police force, are selected from the army and serve for three years; after which they are transferred for four years' service in the reserve of the *Carabinieri* and then to the territorial militia. The normal strength of the Italian field army is about 400,000 men, of the mobile militia, 326,000. From 1915 to November, 1918, over 5,600,000 Italians mobilized of whom 507,000 were killed, and 962,000 wounded. The Italian navy (1920) consists of six dreadnoughts and six predreadnoughts and five armored cruisers, besides monitors, submarines, and destroyers. Before the opening of the war, Italy was building four superdreadnoughts, but with her entrance into the war, work was discontinued on these ships.

Area and Population. The area of Italy is 110,632 square miles and the estimated population in 1915 was 36,120,118. The density of the population in 1915 was 326.5 to the square mile. It is estimated that the new territory gained by Italy from Austria by the Treaty of Saint-Germain will add about 12,500 square miles to the area and 1,900,000 to the population.

ITALIAN DEPENDENCIES.

The colony of Eritrea on the coast of the Red Sea has an area of about 45,000 square miles and a population, largely nomadic, estimated at 450,000. The tropical climate and the scarcity of water make agriculture without irrigation impossible. Pasturage, however, is abundant. Camels, oxen, sheep, and goats are common and the produce supplies the local trade. Pearl fisheries are carried on and a promising trade in palm nuts is being developed. There are 74 miles of railroad, a telegraph line of 514 miles, and 863 miles of telephone lines.

Italian Somaliland. The colony and protectorates of Italian Somaliland extend along the eastern coast of Africa from British Somaliland southward to the Juba River and comprise 139,430 square miles with a population of about 650,000. The principal occupation of the people is cattle raising and agriculture. The exports, which are chiefly agricultural, amounted to more than 6,000,000 lire (1918).

Tripolitania and Cyrenaica (together called **Libya** or **Libia Italiana**). These colonies formed out of Turkish Tripoli were acquired by Italy as the result of the war with Turkey in 1912. The area of Libya is estimated at 406,000 square miles and the population from 523,000 to 1,000,000 and even higher.

Tripolitania is divided into four zones: (1) along the sea, covered with palms, olives, lemon and fruit trees; (2) in the highlands, where olive groves, palm and fig trees flourish, and cereals and rich grasses are raised; (3) oases which are rich in palms; (4) a region covered with palms, figs, vines, and almonds.

In Cyrenaica olives and cypresses are common, pasturage is abundant, and cattle can be bred on a large scale. There is considerable caravan trade between Tripoli and central Sudan, an important article of which is ostrich feathers to the value of $350,000 a year. Sponge fisheries were started in 1885 and are now very profitable.

Chronology — Italy and Dependencies.

For earlier events, see MEDIEVAL PERIOD, *Chronology*, and EARLY MODERN PERIOD, *Chronology*.

1648. Italy weak, divided, and oppressed by foreign dynasties. Ancient free cities practically extinguished, except Venice and Genoa. Only Italian dynasty is that of Savoy. Rome ruled by the pope as a temporal sovereign. Literary and artistic life declines. People brutalized by war and oppression.

1669. Venice, after prolonged warfare with the Turks, is **obliged to abandon Candia** (Crete).

1674. Leaders of revolt at Messina offer Sicily to Louis XIV., of France, who deserts them when peace is made in 1678.

1684. The Venetians, under the lead of Francesco Morosini, wrest the Peloponnesus from the Turks. Venetian ascendancy in Ionian Islands maintained.

1707. The **armies of Louis XIV.,** frequently defeated by Prince Eugene of Savoy, are **driven out of Italy.**

1713. *April 11.* By the Treaty of Utrecht, Sicily, with Montferrat and Alessandria, is assigned to Duke Victor Amadeus of Savoy who takes the title of King of Sicily.

1714. Elizabeth Farnese is married to Philip V. of Spain. This marriage gives excuse to Philip for breaking the peace of Europe by invading Sardinia. Naples, Sardinia, Mantua, and Milan ceded to Austria.

1720. Victor Amadeus compelled to exchange Sicily for Sardinia. Head of **House of Savoy,** destined to become the dynasty of United Italy, assumes title of **King of Sardinia.**

1730. Victor Amadeus abdicates the throne in favor of his son Charles Emmanuel III.

1731. Duchy of Parma passes to Prince Charles (later Charles III.) of Spain.

1732. Victor Amadeus makes an unsuccessful attempt to recover his authority in Turin; overthrown and imprisoned.

1734. Naples and Sicily conquered by Spain.

1737. Gian Gaston, last of the Florentine Medici, dies, and his rights pass to Francis of Lorraine.

1740. Lombardy in a war in which the claims of **Maria Theresa** are met with the counterclaims of **France;** the king of Sardinia takes sides with the House of **Hapsburg-Lorraine.**

1745. Charles Emmanuel and his army of Sardinians are defeated by the combined forces of France and Spain.

1746. Army of Francis of Lorraine (Francis I. of Germany) gains a victory over the French in the battle of **Piacenza.**

1748. *Oct. 18.* By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, **Italy is redivided among Austria, France, and Savoy;** Austria retains Milan and Tuscany, Parma and Piacenza are assigned as a duchy to Philip, brother of Charles III. Charles is confirmed in the possession of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Modena passes under the protection of the French. Italians enjoy a **period of repose.**

1765. Francis I. dies and transmits Tuscany to his third son, Peter Leopold, who reigns as an independent sovereign.

1789. At outbreak of French Revolution, Italy is divided into 10 states, of which all are hereditary monarchies except Venice, Genoa, Lucca, and the Papal States.

1790. Peter Leopold becomes the **Emperor Leopold,** and transmits the kingdom of Tuscany to his son Ferdinand, who, with Charles Emmanuel of Sardinia, furnishes the motive for the **revival of the independent spirit** among the Italians. Italian writers, in sympathy with the Encyclopedists of France, promote the spirit of liberty.

1797. *Oct. 1-7.* The status of Italy is determined by the Treaty of Campoformido, in which **Napoleon** establishes the **Cisalpine Republic** in northern Italy. Venice is assigned to Austria. (See FRANCE.)

1798. Roman Republic established. All the so-called republics are under French domination.

1799. The **Parthenopean Republic** is created in southern Italy, having Naples for its capital. Charles Emmanuel IV. resigns, and Pope Pius VI. flees from Rome into France, where he dies soon afterward.
French driven out of Italy by Austrians and Russians.

1800. *June 14.* Napoleon, returning from Egypt, is victorious over the Austrians in the great **battle of Marengo.**

1801. Napoleon, having become Emperor of the French, decrees a **new settlement** of Italian affairs. He crowns himself with the iron crown of the Lombards, restores Rome to the pope, and drives Ferdinand from Naples. Tuscany and Venice become the kingdom of Etruria. The Ligurian and Cisalpine republics are combined as a viceroyalty under Prince Eugène de Beauharnais.

1806. The French emperor transfers the kingdom of Naples to his brother **Joseph,** and afterwards (August 1, 1808) to his brother-in-law, **Murat.**

1809. Pius VII. is deposed and Rome becomes a part of the French Empire. Kingdom of Etruria is assigned to Napoleon's sister, Eliza, as duchess of Tuscany.

1813–1814. Forces of the allies drive the French [out of Italy.]

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *June 9.* By the Treaty of Vienna, the **Napoleonic conditions** in Italy are **swept away,** and the preceding political arrangements are, as nearly as practicable, restored. Austria receives Lombardy and Venetia; Genoa assigned to Piedmont (Sardinia). The returning sovereigns of the old order regard the restoration as a warrant for tyranny and oppression

1820. Revolution in Naples.

1821. Congress of the powers (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD) is held at Laibach; **Austria** is authorized by the body **to crush the Revolution.** Revolution in Piedmont. Austrians win battle of **Novara** (April 8) and aid Charles Felix to restore absolutism.

1831. A popular insurrection begins in Modena and spreads to Parma, Bologna, and Romagna. Austrian troops bear down on the insurgents, and the rebellion is quelled. [with an army.]

1832. Louis Philippe of France occupies Ancona

1833. Society of **"Young Italy,"** organized by Mazzini, attempts revolt in Piedmont. Mazzini publishes a book on the "Moral and Civil Primacy of the Italians."

1846. Pope Gregory XVI. dies; succeeded by **Pius IX.** Pius undertakes many reforms and is regarded with hope by the moderate liberals as a leader of the national cause.

1848. Italy, in sympathy with revolutionary France, **breaks into revolt.** Sicily declares independence. A radical administration is established in Naples. Lombardy rises, and Milan and Venice expel the Austrians. Duchies free themselves. Pope Pius IX. escapes from Rome in disguise. Charles Albert of Piedmont declares war on Austria. Radetzky, at the head of an Austrian army, wins battle of **Custozza,** July 24–25.

1849. A **republic** is established in **Rome,** with **Garibaldi** and **Mazzini** as leaders, but after a resolute defense the city is taken by the French in July. Rome, Venice, and Milan are taken by the Austrians, and in the battle of **Novara,** March 23, 1849, the power of Piedmont is seemingly destroyed. Charles Albert abdicates, and is succeeded by his son, **Victor Emmanuel II.** By him the spirit of nationality is encouraged. Piedmont becomes the basis of Italian unity. Rome is held by French troops to prevent its absorption.

1850. Legislative reforms are instituted in Piedmont (Sardinia), culminating, in 1854, in an ecclesiastical reform decree. **Count Cavour** joins the government and becomes minister of commerce.

1853. Cavour made prime minister, and the fortunes of Italy revive under his skillful diplomacy.

1855. Sardinia becomes a participant with the allies against Russia in the **Crimean War.**

1856. Cavour represents the kingdom of Sardinia at the Congress of Paris. He secures the sympathy of the **Emperor Napoleon III.**

1858. *July 21.* Cavour makes the secret agreement of **Plombières** with Napoleon III., who promises to help drive Austrians out of Italy (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1859. Victor Emmanuel declares that the government is not insensible to the "cry of dolor" arising from Italy. The **Franco-Italian War** with Austria ensues. The allies triumph at **Magenta** on June 4, and at **Solferino** on June 24; the **Treaty of Villafranca** is concluded July 9, by which the Mincio is made the boundary between Sardinia and Austria.
Modena, Parma, and Tuscany expel their rulers and in 1860 vote for union with Piedmont.

1860. Garibaldi leads a successful insurrection in **Sicily and Naples.** The Sardinian government allies itself actively with the insurgents, and the king takes the field with Garibaldi, who, on the completion of the victorious campaign, resigns his position as dictator. Sicily and Naples are by popular vote **annexed to Sardinia.**

1861. First Italian parliament meets, and **Victor Emmanuel** is made **king of Italy.** Count Cavour dies, June 5.

1862. Garibaldi leads a force against Rome; he is **wounded and captured** in a skirmish at Aspromonte. He and his followers are given amnesty, and he remains the popular hero; but the government, out of deference to France, leaves Rome under the power of the pope.

1864. Capital of the kingdom is fixed at **Florence.**

1866. Italy joins Prussia in war against Austria. Her army is beaten at Custozza, June 24, and her navy near Lissa; but victorious Prussia secures the **liberation of Venetia,** which is united with Italy. Except Rome, the whole of Italy becomes united and independent. French withdraw troops from Rome and then return them.

1867. Garibaldi heads attack upon Rome, but he is finally **defeated** at Mentana, and **sent into retirement** at Caprera.

1869. Ecumenical council meets at Rome, and in July, 1870, affirms the dogma of the **infallibility of the pope.**

1870. France, absorbed in the war with Germany, **withdraws her troops from Rome;** the Italian troops enter almost without opposition; union with Italy is accepted by a popular vote, and Victor Emmanuel makes Rome his **capital;** Pope Pius IX. (though calling himself a prisoner) is permitted to retain the Vatican and its dependencies.

1878. *Jan. 9.* **Victor Emmanuel dies** and is succeeded by his son, **Humbert I.** (Umberto). February 7, **Pope Pius IX. dies;** is succeeded by **Leo XIII.** The new pope, while strongly maintaining the papal claims to temporal dominion, is regarded as a liberal, and more disposed than Pius IX. to harmonize the ecclesiastical force with the popular and democratic spirit.

1881. French occupation of Tunis results in fall of Cairoli ministry.
Suffrage is extended and reformed.

1882. *May 22.* Italy joins with Germany and Austria in the **Triple Alliance.**
June 2. Garibaldi dies.

1884. Asiatic cholera appears in Italian ports, and spreads with great rapidity into the provinces.

1885. Italians occupy Massaua on the Red Sea; beginning of **Eritrea.**

1886. Antagonism of Church and State becomes acute. Pope issues an allocution filled with accusations against the government. The Clerical party is accused of conspiracy to overthrow the existing order. The pope's letter in praise and support of the Jesuits arouses the Liberal party, and a commission is appointed to investigate the monastic institutions.

1887. *Feb. 20.* Renewal of **Triple Alliance.** Germany in separate treaty agrees to support Italy against France if the latter tries to extend her power in northern Africa.

1888. Pope Leo puts forth positive **assertions of temporal sovereignty,** denounces the government of King Humbert as a usurpation, and calls upon the clergy and the Clerical party to repeat and maintain his protest. Senate replies with the enactment of stringent laws to prevent the clergy from demonstrations in favor of restoring the pope to temporal power. The celebration of the pope's jubilee intensifies the animosity.
Foreign relations of Italy are strained. Italy assumes a determined attitude in **resisting** the ambition of **France** to extend her frontier line **in Africa.** In July, Italy takes possession of Zulla in the Egyptian Sudan.

1889. Crispi, by the reaction following an attempt to assassinate him, **strengthens his government** and confirms his ascendancy.

1890. *Jan. 18.* Italy's African possessions organized as Colonia Eritrea.
In the elections Crispi is indorsed by an overwhelming majority. Financial embarrassment of the kingdom leads to a sudden popular reaction against the Crispi ministry.

1891. Crispi government is overthrown, to be succeeded by that of the **Marquis di Rudini.** The new government pursues the same policy as its predecessor, particularly in respect to the maintenance of the Triple Alliance.
Labor troubles, general throughout Europe, become acute in Italy; distress of the people is intensified by the closing of the French ports against Italian commerce.

1892. Discontent arising from the burden of debt upon the people leads to the **overthrow of the Rudini ministry;** Giovanni **Giolitti** becomes prime minister.
Exposure of **astounding corruption and frauds** among the government officials. The prime minister involved and is deposed. Giuseppe **Zanardelli** succeeds him. Credito Mobiliare suspends, and the government is shaken to its foundations; **Crispi** is recalled from Sicily to **assume control** and restore political order.

1893. *March.* **Jubilee of the pope,** this being the fiftieth anniversary of Leo's consecration as Archbishop of Damietta. The ceremonies attract multitudes of distinguished strangers to Rome, among them William II. of Germany.
Dec. 21. Italian troops rout the enemy in a **campaign against the dervishes,** near Massaua in Africa. A severe battle occurs near Kassala in the Sudan, July 17, 1894.

1895. The government, notwithstanding the financial scandals in which it is involved, obtains a majority in the elections, chiefly by the action of the pope in forbidding Catholics to go to the polls.

1896. *March 1.* Italians defeated at **Adowa,** by King Menelik of Abyssinia. October 26, Italy abandons claim to protectorate over Abyssinia.
March 5. Final overthrow of the Crispi ministry follows further exposure of government fraud in the bank scandals and the defeat of the army in Abyssinia; **Rudini** becomes **premier.**

1898. *May.* **Formidable riots** in Milan are suppressed only with much bloodshed; similar disturbances occur in other large cities, caused by high price of bread, heavy taxation, and alleged republican conspiracies. End of tariff war with France.

1899. *June 23.* Law against socialistic and republican activity. Great popular opposition.

1900. *July 29.* **King Humbert is assassinated;** succeeded by his son **Victor Emmanuel III.**

1901. Census shows a population of 32,475,000, with a ratio of increase the greatest in Europe.
June 14. Campanile of St. Mark's, Venice, falls. Restored, 1912, by J. P. Morgan, the American banker.

1903. *Feb. 20.* **Leo XIII.** celebrates his **25th anniversary** as pope.
July 20. Death of Leo XIII.
Aug. 4. Giuseppe Sarto, patriarch of Venice, is elected pope as **Pius X.**

1904. *March 27.* Conference between the king and Kaiser William.
May. Vatican protests against visit of President Loubet of France to King Victor Emmanuel.

1905. *Feb. 24.* **Simplon tunnel** between Italy and Switzerland **completed.** July 1, the state assumes control and management of nearly all railway lines.

1906. *Feb. 2.* Ministry resigns. Sidney Sonnino as premier forms new ministry.

MODES OF TRAVEL.

1. Ascent of the Andes. Republic of Colombia.
2. Ski Runner. From a drawing in the Norwegian edition of *"Farthest North," by Fridtjof Nansen.*
3. Eskimo Dog Sled. From photograph furnished by V. Garde.
4. Eskimo Kayak. Mock Suns. Photograph furnished by V. Garde.
5. Reindeer Caravan. Amur River, Eastern Siberia.
6. Yak Caravan. Tibetan Highlands. Photo by Henri, Prince d'Orléans.
7. Llama Porters. Village of Palca, Peru.
8. Russian Tarantas.
9. Siberian Tarantas. Driven by Mongols and Mongol Khalkhas, Thian Shan (Mountains); after N. Przhevalski.
10. Mail Carrier. Indo-China.
11. Japanese Transport of Goods.
12. Japanese Jinrikisha.
13. Cochin-China Buffalo Wagon.
14. Indian Buffalo. Taken near Bombay.
15. Teke Turkomans. Merv, Central Asia.
16. Mongol on Dromedary. With Prayer Wheel in his hands. Tibetan Frontier.
17. Camel with Atatich (covered saddle for women). From photograph furnished by M. Zeys, in charge of a Mission sent out by the French Minister of Public Instruction.
18. Elephant with Howdah (canopied seat on back). Bangkok, Siam.
19. Trekking in the Transvaal. Boer traveling by ox team.
20. Pampas Wagon. La Plata River, South America.
21. Sicilian Charrette.
22. Interurban Trolley Car.
23. Modern American Express Train.
24. Touring Car.

For description see previous page.

MODES OF TRAVEL OF SAVAGE, BARBAR

'S, SEMI-CIVILIZED, AND CIVILIZED MAN.

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1906 (*continued*).

April 4–15. The most severe eruption of Vesuvius since destruction of Pompeii, A. D. 79, occurs.

May. Sonnino cabinet resigns, and new cabinet is formed with **Giolitti** as **premier.**

1907. *May 15.* Minister of foreign affairs, Tommaso Tittoni, in the Chamber of Deputies formally details the Italian program in regard to foreign relations.

1908. *April 2.* **Strike riots** at Rome.

April 28. First Women's Congress ever held in Italy, opens in Rome.

Dec. 28. **Earthquake** in Calabria and Sicily **destroys Messina, Reggio,** and several villages. Loss of life is estimated at from 125,000 to more than 200,000. The property loss is incalculable.

1909. *April 18.* Elaborate ceremonies held at St. Peter's, Rome, at the beatification of Joan of Arc.

Dec. 2. Giolitti ministry resigns; on December 10 a new ministry under **Sonnino.**

1910. *March 21.* Disagreement over a **ship subsidy bill** wrecks the cabinet of Sonnino, but the bill is later passed (May 28) as a temporary measure under **premier Luigi Luzzatti.**

March 24. **Mount Etna** bursts into **violent eruption,** continuing for weeks.

Sept. 20. Speech by Mayor Nathan of Rome on the anniversary of the entry of Italian troops into Rome intensifies the contest between the government and the Vatican.

Sept. 23. George Chavez, a Peruvian, flies in an **airplane over the Alps** near the Simplon Pass.

1911. *March 15.* Trial for murder of thirty-six members of a criminal secret society, the **Camorra,** is begun at Viterbo. Hearings marked by great disorder.

March 18. Premier Luzzatti resigns, owing to the rejection of his scheme of electoral reform with compulsory voting.

April 6. **New ministry** is formed by the Radical ex-premier, **Giolitti.**

September. Italy demands from Turkey **concessions in Tripoli** amounting to a **protectorate,** and on September 28 delivers an ultimatum which is at once rejected. **War is declared by Italy September 29, Tripoli captured** October 5. D'Olmo is appointed first Italian governor of Tripoli, and decrees the abolition of slavery. Advance into the interior fiercely resisted. First war in which the airplane is used. Italians accused of cruelties.

1912. *Jan. 7.* Italian cruiser squadron sinks seven Turkish gunboats in the Red Sea. [Bill.]

Feb. 25. King signs **Tripoli Annexation** [Bill.]

March 13. Bengazi captured from the Turks.

April 18. Italian warships bombard forts at entrance to **Dardanelles,** thus closing the straits, which calls forth a strong protest from the powers. They are reopened May 1.

April–June. **Italian fleet** seizes Stampalia at entrance of Ægean Sea, and **occupies** many of the **Ægean Islands,** mostly inhabited by Greeks.

May 12. Chamber of Deputies extends franchise to illiterates when more than 30 years of age.

July 8. **Camorrist trial** at Viterbo ends with the conviction of 26 men and their sentence to imprisonment for terms of from five to thirty years.

Aug. 6. Italian troops occupy Zoara, last Tripoli coast town of importance.

Sept. 17. Turkish attack on Italian position at Derna is repulsed; last important battle of the war.

Oct. 15. **Treaty of Lausanne,** by which Turkey renounces all sovereignty over Tripoli and Cyrenaica, and Italy agrees to return the captured Ægean islands (Dodecanese) when certain conditions are carried out; islands remain in Italian hands. No indemnity on either side.

Dec. 5. **Triple Alliance** renewed.

1913. *May.* Pacification of Tripoli is interrupted by **Arab outbreaks.**

Sept. 14. Professor Malladra descends to a depth of 1200 feet in the crater of Mount Vesuvius, and records a temperature of 626° F.

October. First general election under **new franchise law** is held, the number of voters being now increased from 3¼ to 8½ millions. The franchise is extended to all males over 21 years of age, with the exception of illiterates under 30 who have not served in the army.

Nov. 1. Naval agreement for joint action in the Mediterranean by Italian, Austrian, and German navies goes into effect.

Dec. 12. Leonardo da Vinci's world-famous painting *Mona Lisa,* stolen from the Louvre in Paris, August 22, 1911, is recovered in Florence.

1914. *March 10.* Giolitti cabinet resigns, following the withdrawal of Radical support. **New cabinet** formed by Antonio **Salandra,** March 17.

May 5. Italo-American general arbitration treaty is signed at Washington.

June 8. **General strike** proclaimed throughout Italy as a protest against the killing of two anarchists during the recent rioting at Ancona. Government calls strikers to the colors and reëstablishes railway and telegraphic communication. Strike is called off within two days.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 5.* Italy declares she is not bound to join in World War by terms of the Triple Alliance as Germany and Austria-Hungary are engaged in an "aggressive war."

Aug. 20. **Pope Pius X. dies.**

Sept. 3. Giacomo della Chiesa elected pope as **Benedict XV.**

Oct. 1. Government protests against Austrian mine-laying in the Adriatic.

Oct. 26. Italian naval force occupies Avlona, Albania.

Dec. 29. Sir Henry Howard presents his credentials as British ambassador at the Vatican No similar appointment has been made for more than 400 years.

1915. *Jan. 13.* **Earthquake devastates southern and central Italy;** many churches, statues, and public buildings are destroyed.

Feb. 19. Opening of Parliament is accompanied by scenes of disorder in the streets by mobs demanding intervention on the side of the Allies, and the recovery of *Italia irredenta* (see IRREDENTIST, in the *Dictionary*).

March 21. **National defense law** is passed. Drastic measures are taken against espionage, contraband, and publication of military movements. Government is authorized to appropriate for military purposes inventions made by Italians.

April 26. **Secret Treaty of London,** under which **Italy enters the war on the side of the Allies.** She is to recover the Trentino, southern Tirol, Gorizia (Görz), Trieste, Istria (not including Fiume), Dalmatia, various islands off the Illyrian coast, certain possessions in and control over Albania, with prescribed neutralization of other portions of the east side of the Adriatic, and also is to retain the Dodecanese, to share in the partition of Asiatic Turkey, and to get compensation for any Anglo-French gains from German possessions in Africa. The Bolsheviki make this treaty public on November 28, 1917.

For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

May 4. Italy denounces her alliance with Germany and Austria-Hungary.

May 10. All reserves back to the class of 1876 are called to the colors.

May 12. Government receives final proposal of Austria for territorial concessions. War demonstrations are held all over the country.

May 15. Premier Salandra consents to retain office notwithstanding opposition of the antiwar party led by Giolitti. Country is in a turmoil, populace clamoring for war.

May 19. Green Book is issued giving the Italian view of **Austro-Italian relations.** Italy holds that Austria has violated the Triple Alliance, by declaring an offensive war against Serbia, and occupying Balkan territory without Italian agreement or compensation.

May 22. General mobilization is ordered. Martial law is proclaimed in northeastern Italy. The king signs the bill giving plenary powers to the cabinet.

May 23. Government formally declares that a **state of war with Austria-Hungary** will exist from May 24.

July 7. Government is authorized to use compulsory measures in increasing the output of war materials in private munition factories.

Aug. 21. **Italy declares war on Turkey.**

Oct. 19. **Italy declares war on Bulgaria.**

Nov. 30. Government subscribes to Allies' agreement of "no separate peace" and the Quadruple Entente becomes the Quadruple Alliance.

1916. For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

February. Importation or transit of all German or Austrian merchandise through Italy is prohibited. On February 29, **German merchant ships,** to the number of 34, interned in Italian ports are **requisitioned** by the government.

May 15. Austrians begin drive in Trentino.

June 11. Salandra cabinet resigns; eight days later, Paolo **Boselli** forms a **coalition ministry,** representing all factions except the intransigeant Socialist group.

July. Decree rendering citizens of nations allied to Austria-Hungary liable to internment as enemy aliens and their goods subject to sequestration.

Aug. 10. Italy institutes a blacklist similar to that of Great Britain, forbidding Italians to deal with enemy subjects or agents wherever resident.

Aug. 27. **Italy declares herself at war with Germany** from August 28.

Dec. 4. Italian steamship *Palermo,* with 25 Americans on board, torpedoed off coast of Spain.

Dec. 31. For reply to German peace proposal, see GERMANY.

1917. For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

Jan. 6. Premiers of France and Great Britain, with statesmen of other Entente nations, meet at Rome for consultation with Italian government.

Jan 11. For reply to President Wilson's "peace note," see WORLD WAR.

Aug. 1. **Pope Benedict XV.,** in an appeal to the belligerent powers, **suggests the bases of an enduring peace;** "simultaneous and reciprocal decrease of armaments" with arbitration; evacuation of Belgium and northern France; restitution of the German colonies and on disputed territorial questions "a conciliatory spirit, considering the aspirations of the population."

Aug. 18. Secret **Anglo-Franco-Italian agreement** by which Italy is to participate in the partition of Turkey (see *Symrna* under GREECE).

Aug. 27. President Wilson, replying to the pope's peace message, declares that the nation can deal only with a government representative of the German people themselves.

Sept. 8. Great Britain adheres to the president's reply to the pope.

Sept. 21. German and Austrian replies to the pope are published accepting proposals for peace, disarmament, and arbitration but say nothing as to territorial adjustments.

Oct. 24. German-Austrian offensive begins; pushes back the Italians till November 13.

Oct. 26. **Boselli cabinet resigns.**

Oct. 30. **Vittorio Emanuele Orlando** forms a new cabinet, retaining Sonnino as foreign minister.

Nov. 9. Premiers of Great Britain, France, and Italy, in view of the invasion of northern Italy, decide to create a **Supreme War Council** for the western front, which shall include political representatives and Generals Cadorna, Foch, and Wilson (Great Britain). General Armando **Diaz** succeeds Cadorna in command of Italian army.

1918. For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

March 23. General Vittorio Zupelli succeeds Aldieri as war minister.

June 16. Premier Orlando announces to Parliament that he has rejected an **Austrian offer of peace** which contemplated the cession of certain territories to Italy.

Oct. 27. In final operations of the war, Italians cross Piave; Austrians in rout.

Nov. 3. Armistice with Austria (see AUSTRIA). Italians occupy Trent, Rovereto, and Trieste.

Nov. 10. Victor Emmanuel makes a triumphal entry into Trieste.

Dec. 28. Leonida Bissolati, a Socialist member of the ministry, resigns in protest against Italy's peace policy.

For the **Fiume controversy,** see JUGO-SLAVIA.

1919. For peace negotiations, see under WORLD WAR; for Italy and Albania, see ALBANIA; and for Italy and Asia Minor, see *Smyrna,* under GREECE.

January. Pope Benedict removes the prohibition on Catholics participating in Italian elections.

Jan. 18. Reorganization of Orlando cabinet.

April 24. Italian **delegation leaves the Peace Conference** because of the **Fiume controversy.** Parliament, by a vote of 382 to 40, supports Orlando in his attitude on April 29. Delegates return to conference on May 6.

June 19. **Orlando ministry resigns,** due to dissatisfaction over high cost of food and labor unrest; **Nitti ministry** succeeds. **Strikes and demonstrations** against high cost of living continue.

June 28. Great **earthquake** in Tuscany.

August. Italy continues to suffer for lack of raw materials, and transportation facilities, and because of the employers' refusal to agree to collective bargaining.

Sept. 1. The **king** announces his intention **to relinquish the crown domains** for the benefit of peasants and soldiers.

Sept. 4. Chamber adopts **woman suffrage** for national elections.

Sept. 17. **D'Annunzio enters Fiume** (see JUGO-SLAVIA for continuation of this controversy).

Oct. 7. The king ratifies the peace treaty with Germany, but Parliament does not act until later.

Nov. 16. Elections to Parliament; **Catholics** for the first time vote as an **organized party.** Ministry (Liberals) get 161 seats, Socialists 156, Catholics 101, others 79.

1920. *Jan. 15.* **Strike** begins which ties up the **entire railway system,** but it ends on February 4 with a complete triumph for the government.

Feb. 4. Lira is quoted in New York at 18.82 to the dollar (normal par value about 5.18 to the dollar).

May 11. According to the treaty of peace handed to the Turkish delegates, Italy is to retain the Dodecanese.

May 20. Treaty of peace between Allies and Turkey signed. **Dodecanese and Rhodes** granted to Italy, who promptly turns over the former to Greece. Rhodes to be occupied by Italy for 15 years, when a plebiscite will decide its disposal.

IVORY COAST.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

JAMAICA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.

JAPAN.

Historical Outline.

THE JAPANESE EMPIRE occupies the numerous islands which lie off the coast of Asia between the twentieth and fiftieth degrees of latitude. There are five principal islands in this group, nearly 500 important ones, and about 3000 others. The Pacific coast line of these islands is indented with numerous harbors, and to the west the ocean bottom descends to its greatest known depth. It is probable that at this point there is a subterranean volcano, which causes the frequent earthquakes that visit Japan. The eastern coast of the islands is more regular, and the Japan Sea, which separates the islands from Korea and China, is comparatively shallow. A mountain range runs north and south throughout all the islands; the most famous peak is Fuji (12,440 ft.). In the islands the summers are hot and humid, though short, and the winters long, cold, and clear.

The original people of Japan were the Ainus, of whom a few thousands still exist. They were probably driven northward by the Manchu-Koreans and the Malays, and in some ways suggest a closer affinity with Europeans than with the other types. The modern population of Japan is the result of a fusion of three stocks; the Manchu-Korean type, the Mongol type, and the Malay type. The fusion of these races has gone on for so many centuries that at present, although different origins may be recognized, the population of Japan is singularly homogeneous.

Japanese chronicles trace the history of Japan from 660 B. C. when the first mikado, Jimmu Tenno ascended the throne. It is better to classify the period between 660 B. C. and 500 A. D. as the prehistoric period. In 552 Buddhism was introduced into Japan from Korea and China. This meant not simply the introduction of a religion, but the bringing of the Japanese into contact with Chinese civilization and culture and the accelerating of immigration from China and Korea.

Probably in the sixth or seventh century the beginnings of the shogunate were established. This was the result of social and political forces which must have been working for centuries, and which produced a system somewhat similar to the feudal system of western Europe. It was associated with several changes: (1) The growth of a numerous court nobility, who, by intermarriage with the family of the mikado, claimed divine descent. This class gradually absorbed all the civil offices, but became enervated, and, although retaining titular authority, lost the actual power. The mikado himself, though treated with great respect and reverence, was removed from the scene of actual government and existed simply as a puppet in the hands of the military class. (2) The *daimio*, or feudal lords, were heads of *daimio* clans which oppressed or contended with each other, like the similar class in Europe. (3) The military class, or *samurai*, were supported by the rations delivered to them by their chiefs. Their sole occupation was war. They were the only middle class, had the privilege of wearing the sword, and considered themselves the guardians of the country's welfare. They felt contempt for money and gain, insisted on the strictest code of honor, and developed stoical endurance and indifference to pain and suffering. (4) The *shoguns*, as the generals were called, were great *daimios* who took possession of power, and gradually made the title and the office hereditary in a single family. They were mayors of the palace. In 1603 Iyeyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa dynasty, succeeded to the office of *shogun*, and the power remained in that family until the revolution of 1868.

The famous policy of isolation was not a traditional matter. Until about 1600 Japan enjoyed intercourse with Korea and China. Iyeyasu rigidly excluded foreigners and forbade native Japanese to emigrate, because he believed that the missionaries and Christian converts were opposed to his government. Under the edicts of the two and a half centuries thereafter all trade with Europeans was in the hands of the Dutch, who maintained a post at Nagasaki, where they were practically prisoners. The Japanese continued to develop their native art and industries. Untiring industry, uncomplaining patience, scrupulous attention to minute details, and strict obedience to authority were their chief characteristics.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

The awakening of Japan was probably due to the success of the Europeans in breaking into China. It came about in 1853, when Commodore Perry appeared in Tokyo Bay and proposed a treaty of amity and commerce between the two nations. The Japanese feared armed invasion and granted their first treaty with the West (1854).

Treaties followed with Great Britain, Russia, France, and Holland and foreign influence began to be felt in all directions. Between 1867 and 1871 Japan changed from a medieval power to a modern one. The Shogun Ki-ki resigned in 1867 as the result of a revolutionary reform movement, which had its origin in a group of young men and which placed in power the Mikado Mutsuhito. As the movement developed, the whole feudal system was abolished and a centralized authority set up. The national government slowly developed into a system which, if not democratic, at least brought about representative government.

The subsequent history of Japan reaches out in three main directions: (1) the enthusiastic adoption of Western ideas and culture; (2) the development of a modern government; (3) the expansion of the foreign relations of the empire. Nothing could be more remarkable than the enthusiasm with which Japan set out to modernize herself. The entire nation went to school. The leaders of the state called from European nations and America experts in different fields. Thus, Englishmen constructed the railways and trained the workers on them; Frenchmen reframed the laws and at first trained the army; Americans superintended educational affairs, the postal service, and agriculture; Germans codified the commercial methods, and ultimately took over the military training; while Italians were engaged to teach painting and sculpture. The Japanese showed their remarkable liberalism and eclectic instinct in choosing what was needed for their condition without doing violence to their own traditions and conventions; and within one short generation proved that a nation of Asiatic culture might adjust itself to progressive Western ideas.

The overthrow of the shogunate left the mikado in theory absolute. His power, however, was shared by an appointed ministry, the genro, an unofficial council of seven heads of great families. In this ministry developed a liberal group who advocated the adoption of representative government and the establishment of the parliamentary system. Tests were made in local affairs, and assemblies were called in the various cities and provinces of representatives chosen by the people. In 1889 the Imperial Constitution, the work of Prince Ito, was promulgated; it established a Diet, together with a cabinet. This cabinet, however, is not responsible to the Diet, but is appointed and removed at the sole pleasure of the mikado; although pressure from the Diet often causes resignations.

The history of Japan's recent foreign relations centers round the idea of expansion, — a policy which was forced upon her. The population in 1872 was about 30,000,000, but has increased rapidly. Between 1899 and 1907 the population increased 11.6 per cent, while the food-producing area increased by only 4.4 per cent. Thus the question of the support of a dense and rapidly increasing population was a vital one. Moreover, Japan does not possess all the raw materials necessary for modern industry; and in the desire to obtain an outlet for her population, a market for her manufactures, and a source of raw materials she has acquired territory and fields of influence at the expense of her neighbors.

In the early years of the restored empire, Japan was involved in disputes with Russia concerning the island of Sakhalin, which was awarded to Russia in 1875. Japan came into collision with China concerning Formosa and the Riukiu (Okinawa) Islands, which were annexed in 1895 after victorious war.

The first serious foreign complication, however, came over Korea. From the sixteenth century, when Japan had overrun the Korean peninsula, it had been the custom for the Koreans to send congratulatory presents to each shogun on his accession. This custom was discontinued on the overthrow of the shogunate, much to the displeasure of Japan. In 1875 Japan and Korea were nearly involved in war, and Japan, by threatening a naval demonstration, extorted a favorable treaty with Korea (1876), by which three ports were opened to foreign trade, while the independence of Korea was recognized. It was China's policy, however, to surround herself with states which were nominally independent, but actually vassal states, to serve as buffers against foreign aggression. Korea was one of these, and China resented the acknowledgment that Korea was independent. The government of Korea was weak, inefficient, and corrupt, and China had oftentimes dispatched military forces to support it. Japan now claimed the same privilege and dispatched troops to support the reform movement.

The War with China in 1894 was a series of triumphs for Japan. In the first pitched battle at Pingyang (September 16, 1894) the Chinese, armed with Krupp guns and repeating rifles, were driven from their fortified positions with a loss of 6,000 men. Next day a detachment of fourteen warships and six torpedo boats of the Chinese navy was encountered by eleven small Japanese men-of-war off the Yalu River. The Japanese sank four of the Chinese vessels and drove the rest into refuge. The sea route was now open and Japan captured the fortified naval stations at Talien (Dairen), Port Arthur, and Weihaiwei. In this war, although the Japanese had 120,000 men engaged, only a thousand were killed and less than five thousand were wounded.

A treaty of peace was negotiated by the American, Foster, in behalf of China in April, 1895, by which the independence of Korea was established and Japan was given a part of Manchuria, the islands of Formosa and the Pescadores, and a large indemnity. Pending the payment of this indemnity, Japan occupied Weihaiwei, and four new ports were opened to foreign trade.

Russia, Germany, and France resented Japan's success. A joint note was presented recommending that the territories given to Japan on the mainland should not be permanently occupied, as such a proceeding would be detrimental to peace. Although couched in diplomatic terms, the powers gave every indication that they were prepared to enforce their recommendation by arms. Japan was in no condition to resist, and on the day of the publication of the treaty an imperial rescript was published in which the mikado announced that he had yielded to the advice of the three powers.

The next foreign war in which Japan was involved was also with China, for the relief of the legations at the time of the Boxer Rebellion (1900). Japan somewhat unwillingly engaged in this expedition upon the request of the European powers and the United States. The conduct of her officers and troops won much praise and gave her a high military reputation.

In 1904 Japan came into inevitable collision with Russia. Russia's Asiatic empire lacked an ice-free port and convenient access to the Pacific. In 1898 Russia acquired Port Arthur and gained special privileges in Manchuria, but after the Boxer Rebellion had made a point of withdrawing from Manchuria. In 1903 she attempted to gain a foothold in Korea so as to flank the access of China to the sea, precisely what had been prohibited to Japan. But whereas Russia was only indirectly opposed to Japanese expansion, Japan was vitally interested in the bar to expansion in Korea. Moreover, Japan had thousands of settlers in Korea, had invested in the railways, and had developed a trade. After five months of fruitless negotiation, Japan declared war (February 10, 1904).

On sea and land Japan had unexpected success. In the first operations eight Russian cruisers were disabled. Port Arthur, after a siege lasting from May until January 1, 1905, was taken. The Russian forces were driven back in southern Manchuria and defeated in several pitched battles. From February 20, 1905, to March 15 raged the battle of Mukden, the greatest in history up to that time. On May 27 and 28, 1905, the Russian Pacific fleet was annihilated off Tsushima in the strait between Korea and Japan. The Russians were checked and blocked. Both parties became exhausted; Japan hinted to President Roosevelt a willingness to negotiate. Russia was ready to meet halfway in the consideration of peace terms under the auspices of the United States. A peace conference was held at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, as a result of which a treaty was ratified which recognized Japan's preponderant influence in Korea, transferred Russia's lease of Port Arthur to Japan, divided the island of Sakhalin between Russia and Japan, and provided for the joint evacuation of Manchuria by both armies. This went into effect October 15, 1905.

Japan had fought two wars for Korea and was resolved that her influence should be supreme in that country. The Koreans had made no progress in improving either their government or finances. Japan instituted many reforms in 1906, and in 1908 organized it as a dependency. Financial reforms included taxes, currency, and banks. Industry was fostered by the establishment of printing, brickmaking, forestry, coal mining, the laying out of model farms, and cotton cultivation. Public works like waterworks, hospitals, and medical schools were opened, and reforms were made in the government. An efficient body of police was established and a judiciary, of which the majority were Japanese, was established. Finally in 1907 the Korean standing army was disbanded. This resulted in an insurrection which lasted for two years. Japan had promised to respect the territorial integrity and sovereignty of Korea, but held that the conditions made further independence impossible; and in 1910 Japan proclaimed the formal annexation of Korea.

The position of Japan in Asia was that of a Western military and naval power, with the intense interest of the strongest Oriental nation.

In 1908 through an exchange of notes between Secretary Root and Ambassador Takahira which was not submitted to the Senate for ratification, the United States recognized the interest of Japan to the principle of the "open door." Both parties pledged themselves to observe the independence and integrity of China. In 1915, however, Japan presented the "21 demands" to China, which looked toward a Japanese monopoly of some lines of trade, and an influence inconsistent with Chinese independence (see CHINA). In an exchange of notes (November 2, 1917) between Secretary Lansing and Viscount Ishii it was recognized that Japan had "special interests" in China, but disclaimed discrimination against other nations or infringement of the independence or territorial integrity of China. Both Japan and the United States declared that they adhered to the policy of the "open door" and equal opportunities for trade for all nations.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

Already in alliance with Great Britain, Japan quickly recognized the opportunity to take a place among world powers by entering the World War. After a few months' campaign, Japan compelled the German forces to surrender the fortified port of Tsingtau in Kiaochow. Japan thus obtained the dominant place in the Chinese province of Shantung, and also occupied all important islands previously Germau in the North Pacific. In the conference and treaty which brought the war to an end, Japan ranked with Great Britain, France, Italy, and the United States as one of the five world powers by whose decision the perplexing questions were settled. For herself, Japan secured the Shantung peninsula and the privileges which Germany had previously held, as well as the German Pacific Islands north of the equator. The Shantung concession so offended China that she refused to sign the treaty.

During the World War Japan prospered greatly. Her manufactured products and her raw materials were in great demand. But the wealth was by no means evenly distributed, and there was great suffering and considerable disorder among the lower classes. For the first time in the history of the empire, labor began to organize and to state its claims. A movement for popular government also gained headway.

Organization.

Government. The constitution asserts the emperor's rights of sovereignty and all the executive power of the state. The genro down to 1919 made most of the great decisions of state policy. The executive power, however, is exercised by a cabinet, which is not responsible to Parliament, but solely to the emperor. The emperor nominally can declare war and make peace and treaties. In legislation, all laws require the assent of the Imperial Diet, which may be called, prorogued, or dissolved by the emperor. The Diet consists of two houses: a House of Peers of 373 members consisting partly of hereditary nobles and persons nominated by the emperor for meritorious services, who sit for life, and partly of a group of lesser nobility and representatives of the prefectures, who are chosen for terms of seven years; and a House of Representatives consisting of 381 members chosen from electoral districts by Japanese subjects of 25 years of age and upwards who are taxpayers.

In local government the country is divided into prefectures (*fu* and *ken*) and into municipalities. In each prefecture there is a governor and an assembly which gives decisions chiefly on financial matters.

Industry and Labor. About three fifths of the arable land is cultivated by peasant proprietors. The chief crops are rice, barley, rye, and wheat. Scarcely less important than the cereal crops is the production of silk and tea. The important mineral and metal products in order of their value (1918) are: coal, steel, copper, pig iron, petroleum, silver, and gold. A large industry in cotton goods has developed; other important manufactures are silk, paper, matches, earthenware, lacquer ware, knit goods.

Japan's merchant marine has developed rapidly since 1898 and consists of over 2,700 steamers and 12,236 sailing vessels. The government subsidizes shipping companies for foreign trade, and Japanese steamers now run on four great routes to Europe, North America, South America, and Australia. In addition there are lines between Japanese ports and Korea, Northern China, and the Yangtze River. There are over 7,800 miles of railway, of which 5,999 miles are state railways.

Religion. There is absolute religious toleration in Japan. The state religion, however, is Shinto, which has neither dogma nor moral code, but combines mythology and a politico-religious ritual. Its supreme tenet, however, is the inculcation of implicit obedience to the heaven-descended mikado. Buddhism was introduced from Korea in the sixth century, and has a strong hold on Japan. Confucianism, accepted by the educated classes, was formerly the basis of the educational system. There are numerous Christian missions of the Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic, and Western Protestant Churches, with about 137,000 converts.

Education. Education is compulsory between the ages of six and fourteen. There are more than 25,000 elementary schools, with nearly 7,500,000 pupils; more than 700 middle, high, and normal schools, with more than 260,000 pupils; 7,600 special and technical schools, with 394,000 students. The four imperial universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Tohoku (at Sendai and Sapporo), and Kiushu, have an attendance of nearly 10,000 students.

Defense. Service in the army and the navy is compulsory and universal, beginning at the age of 17 and extending to the age of 40. Service in the ranks is on the former German plan, two years in the infantry, and three years in other branches, then five (or four) years and four months in the reserve. The reserves are called out twice for training for 60-day periods during their term of service. Service in the second reserve lasts for ten years, with two periods of training of sixty days each. After this the men are enlisted in the home defense army or territorial reserves. The total strength of the field army in 1920 was about 600,000 combatants. The Japanese navy consisted (1920) of nine dreadnoughts, 13 predreadnoughts, 100 destroyers, 43 submarines, besides armored cruisers and other boats.

The **area** of Japan is 148,756 square miles and the **population** by the first census (1920) was 55,961,140. The area and population of the important Japanese dependencies are as follows: Korea (Chosen) 84,738 square miles, 17,284,207 population; Formosa (Taiwan), 13,944 square miles, 3,654,000 population; and Sakhalin (Karafuto), 13,253 square miles, 105,765 population; for the whole Japanese Empire a total area of about 260,700 square miles and a total population of 77,005,112.

Chronology.

1542 or **1543.** Japan **first visited by a European vessel** (Portuguese).

1549. St. Francis Xavier, Spanish Jesuit missionary, arrives at Kagoshima. Visits Kyoto and other places, remaining in Japan for more than two years.

1603. Iyeyasu, founder of the **Tokugawa** dynasty, becomes **shogun,** or regent, of the empire. The dignity remains in that family till 1868.

1605. Iyeyasu resigns in favor of his son Hidetada.

1611. Dutch begin a **trade with Japan** which is maintained during the period before the country is opened by treaty in 1854.

1614. Violent **persecution of the Christians** under an edict of Iyeyasu on the charge of aiming at the overthrow of the government. [Nagasaki.]

1622. Terrible massacre of the Christians occurs in

1623. Hidetada succeeded by his son Iyemitsu, who completes the **dual system of administration** instituted by his grandfather.

1639. Portuguese expelled from Japan; Dutch restricted in trade and residence to Nagasaki.

1651. Iyemitsu dies after having completed the **extermination of the Christians.** Japan remains under the actual government of the **shogun;** the mikado, the "Divine Emperor," living in Kyoto, is surrounded by a retinue of daimios, or nobles, and regarded as the fountain of all honor and power, but without authority in public affairs. Shogun has the actual power in military affairs and state policy.

1659. Edicts prohibiting Christianity.

1700. Episode of the 47 *Ronins,* classical Japanese example of devotion to one's lord.

1707. Last eruption of Fuji.

1797–1803. Several American vessels sent to Japan by the Dutch, who do not themselves dare trade during the European wars.

1820–1850. A few shipwrecked Japanese are brought up in Europe and America.

1853. Perry commands an expedition sent by the **United States** to Japan.

1854. *March 31.* Perry concludes a **treaty of commerce.** Like treaties with Great Britain and Russia signed soon afterward [States]

1860. First Japanese embassy sent to the United

1860–1899. Europeans admitted only to "treaty ports," under principle of exterritoriality.

1863. Four treaty powers of France, Great Britain, Holland, and United States join in punishing the daimio of Choshi for firing upon their vessels. They demand damages from the shogun, though government disavows actions of its subordinate.

1867–1868. Civil revolution, by which the Japanese shogunate is abolished and the supreme authority is vested in the mikado only. Mikado promises a new imperial constitution. Civil war ensues between the imperialists and the partisans of the shogun, which ends in the complete supremacy of the former.

1868. Mutsuhito, the mikado, accepted as ruling **emperor.** Beginning of the "Meiji era," from the title of the emperor's year period.

1869. Mikado removes his capital to Yeddo, the name of which is changed to Tokyo; he takes before his nobles the "charter oath." By a decree of the emperor the old daimio and *kuge* nobilities are abolished and their revenues assigned to the imperial treasury.

1871. Feudal divisions of old Japan abolished, and administrative prefectures take the place of daimiates. Imperial commission is sent to the United States; a **permanent Japanese embassy** established at Washington. Mint opened at Osaka. First treaty with China.

1872. Mikado dresses in foreign style and informs himself of conditions by personal inspection. Tokyo-Yokohama Railroad, first railway in Japan, opened. System of military conscription introduced and the army remodeled.

July. Imperial proclamation abolishing the old *Ji-Gisho,* or Board of Religion, and declaring the **new religious code** of the empire to be founded simply on honor to the gods, love of country, reverence to the emperor, and obedience to duty. Law against nudity in cities.

1873. General post office established and other **reformatory measures** for the improvement of the civil and social administration introduced. Gregorian calendar accepted; prohibition of Christianity withdrawn by an edict of the emperor.

1874. Expedition into interior of **Formosa,** an island belonging to the Chinese Empire, where the natives had killed shipwrecked Japanese sailors and defied the authorities. In December, Japanese troops are withdrawn. **Convention** concluded with **China;** Formosans pay $700,000 as "consolation money."

1875. Mitsubishi Steamship Company established. Orders of knighthood introduced.

July. New **treaty** concluded **with Russia;** the island of Sakhalin ceded to Russia in exchange for a portion of the Kurile Islands. Proclamation issued by the emperor declaring the final **extinction of feudalism.** Council of Elder Statesmen (genro) created; becomes the extraconstitutional body that makes decisions.

1876. Reorganization of the Japanese army completed; the wearing of swords interdicted.

February. Treaty negotiated with Korea secures satisfaction for outrages or Japanese subjects there and recognizes Korea as an autonomous nation.

1877. Conservatism in Japan produces a **temporary reaction** against the progressive policy of the imperial administration, with alarming symptoms of **revolt.** In the island of Kiushu the Satsuma clan rises, but is defeated. In September the rebellion ends. A **national exhibition** of arts and industries held in **Tokyo.** Japan joins the **Postal Union.**

1878. Censorship of the Japanese press relaxed. May 14, Okubo Toshimichi, minister of the interior, assassinated in Tokyo. Serious mutiny of the soldiers occurs.

As a preparation for the anticipated parliamentary government of the nation, local assemblies authorized for the discussion of minor administrative matters in each *ken,* or prefecture.

United States indicates willingness to withdraw exterritoriality, if other powers agree.

1879. Ex-President Grant (U.S.A.) visits Japan.

1880. Serious difficulty with China respecting Japanese rights in the Okinawa (Riukiu or Liukiu) Islands terminated by a peaceable settlement under which China resigns her claims to the group. A new ministry is formed as a concession to the conservative reaction. The **first legal code** published; drafted by French publicists.

1881. Department of Agriculture added to the administrative offices. **Postal and telegraph** service developed in accordance with European and American methods. **Police** board created.

1882. Steps by the imperial government for the holding at Bern, Switzerland, of an international conference with a view to revising the harsh and unjust treaty stipulations imposed on Japan by the Western powers. The *Kaishinto* (Progressive party) and *Jiyuto* (Liberal party), organized.

1883. Commercial **treaty with Korea** concluded.

1884. Orders of **nobility** on the European pattern instituted.

Americans help to shape common school and university instruction. **English language introduced** into the common school curriculum.

Consequent upon the rivalry between the Conservative and Liberal parties, political riots break out in which many persons are killed.

Owing to the extension of **Japanese influence in Korea,** two political parties spring up in that kingdom, a pro-Japanese and an anti-Japanese party; and these break into open hostility at Seoul. Koreans agree to pay indemnity for the destruction of the buildings of the Japanese legation.

1885. Treaty with China ratified, May 7. An international money order agreement made with the United States. **German influence** begins to predominate in Japanese reform measures. Cabinet formed by Premier **Ito.** Department of Posts established.

1886. Law creating **Imperial University** at Tokyo promulgated. Japan joins International Red Cross.

1887. Building of a war fleet and the work of constructing coast defenses continue with great activity. Peace establishment of the army is increased to 59,000. Inouë's negotiations for revision of treaties with European powers fail.

1888. Commercial **treaty with Siam.**

1889. *Feb. 11.* **New imperial constitution,** promised under oath by the mikado, in 1868, is promulgated. Constitution, consisting of 76 articles, revolutionizes and modernizes the ancient system, but preserves the empire under constitutional forms, establishing an imperial Diet on the representative plan, and securing to the people the rights of citizenship. Arinori, the progressive minister, assassinated.

1890. *July 1.* First national election under the new constitution. New government goes into operation under the direction of a ministry not selected by or responsible to the Diet. [perish.]

1891. *Oct. 28.* Great **earthquake;** about 8,000

1894. *June.* **China,** by invitation, sends troops to Korea, to put down an insurrection: June 9, **Japan,** protesting that Korea is independent, also

1894 (*continued*).
sends troops; China refuses to abandon claims of suzerainty. July 25, war begins with a naval victory for Japan. August 1, both nations declare war. Sept. 15, **Japanese capture Pingyang,** Chinese fleeing across Yalu River. Sept. 17, in the **naval battle of Yalu River** Japanese disperse the enemy's fleet. Oct. 25, Japanese army forces the Yalu and **invades Manchuria.** Nov. 21, Japanese capture Port Arthur on Liaotung promontory, (see CHINA).

July 16. **Treaty with Great Britain;** first release from exterritoriality. Preceded by treaty of 1878 with United States. Both agreements in effect July 17, 1899.

1895. *Feb. 12.* Fleet of Admiral Ting surrenders to the Japanese at Weihaiwei. Li Hung Chang **sues for peace.** Foster, an American, associated as negotiator. Li Hung Chang wounded by a Japanese. April 17, **treaty of peace** at Shimonoseki; China acknowledges the independence of Korea; cession of Formosa, Pescadores, and Port Arthur; money indemnity. **Russia, Germany, and France intervene** and prevent the cession of **Port Arthur;** Japan receives extra indemnity for relinquishing it.

Oct. 8. Murder of Queen Min of Korea, who has espoused reaction against Japanese "reforms," affects Japanese prestige.

Japanese steamer line to Australia established.

1897. *Oct. 1.* **Gold standard** adopted.

1898. *January.* Marquis Ito, assisted by the personal intervention of the mikado, forms a cabinet independent of party lines. In June this ministry resigns. Okuma cabinet succeeds, but gives way to one headed by Yamagata in November.

April 25. **Agreement with Russia** on Korea, which is temporarily placed outside Russia's sphere.

1899. *July 17.* Treaties recognizing **Japan** as **one of the "family of nations"** go into effect. Courts are reorganized and legal codes revised on the German model, foreigners no longer limited to treaty courts or enjoy exterritoriality.

1900. Boxer rising (see CHINA).

September. Yamagata ministry gives place to one headed by Ito.

1901. Premier **Ito,** with all his cabinet, except the minister of war, **resigns** on May 1, owing to the failure of the finance minister to carry out expected public works. Succeeded as premier by **Katsura Taro.** Owing to the failure of the Chinese market and heavy expenditures for public works, a **serious financial stringency** results. Remarkable revival of interest in **Christianity.**

1902. *Jan. 30.* Treaty with **Great Britain.** First **alliance** with a Western power. Japan recognized as occupying special status in the Orient; mutual promise of military and naval aid in case of Asiatic complications, if either is attacked by more than one nation.

1903. Russia attempts to gain a foothold in Korea. Japan's vigorous protest leads to negotiations. Japan insists on the maintenance of sovereignty of China in Manchuria and a recognition of Japan's preponderating interests in Korea; Russia proposes a neutral zone in Korea, and insists that Japan recognize Manchuria as outside her sphere of interest. **Each prepares for war.**

1904. *Feb. 6.* Diplomatic relations with Russia severed. February 8–9, the **Japanese attack the Russian fleet** near Port Arthur. February 10, **war** formally **declared.**

Active **naval operations** in which Japan has the advantage. Several ships sunk by mines. August 10, Japanese injure the **Port Arthur fleet.** August 14, **Vladivostok fleet** badly damaged by the Japanese.

Feb. 8. **Land operations. Occupation of Korea** begins by the landing of Japanese troops at Chemulpo. April 28, Japanese force under **Kuroki crosses the Yalu** into Manchuria. In May, a **siege of Port Arthur** begins. August 13–November 30, series of desperate assaults on Port Arthur. August 25, Japanese attack on Kuropatkin at **Liaoyang;** a Japanese victory. Russian army conducts an orderly retreat. October 2, battle of **Shakho River** begins; ten days' hard fighting.

July. Russians seize several British merchantmen in the Mediterranean and sink a British steamer off Tokyo. British protest causes release of the captured vessels and a revision by Russia of her classification of contraband of war.

Oct. 14. **Baltic fleet** sails from Revel, Russia, for the Far East. October 21, near the Dogger Bank it **fires on trawlers** from England. War with Great Britain seems possible, but the matter is referred to an international commission, which, in 1905, decides that Russia must indemnify the trawlers. Baltic fleet proceeds and in December reaches Indian Ocean. [**Arthur.**]

1905. *Jan. 1.* General Stössel **surrenders Port**

Feb. 20. Japanese under Oyama begin a series of engagements lasting until March 15, known as the **battle of Mukden.** About 400,000 men are engaged on the Russian side and 500,000 on the Japanese. Battle line extends over 100 miles. Japanese occupy Mukden on March 10. Russians fall back 150 miles. **Kuropatkin** resigns and is **succeeded by Linevich.** July 31, the Russian forces on Sakhalin surrender.

The Baltic fleet, under **Rozhestvenski,** after meeting the second squadron under Nebogatov, sails northward. Togo, in command of Japanese fleet, makes his attack off Tsushima island in the eastern channel of Korea Strait, May 27–28; practical annihilation of the Russian fleet. 20 ships captured or sunk.

Russia and Japan both **weary of war,** and find difficulty in raising money. Hence they suggest or welcome (June 8) President Roosevelt's identic note suggesting a peace conference and offering his services. First meeting August 9, **Portsmouth,** New Hampshire. **Peace** is arranged upon the basis of recognition of Japanese preponderant influence in Korea, evacuation of Manchuria by both armies, the transfer to Japan of Russia's lease of Port Arthur, return of civil administration of Manchuria to China, transfer to Japan of Chinese Eastern Railway, and the possession of southern Sakhalin by the Japanese. Treaty a great disappointment to the Japanese masses, and riots break out in Tokyo, which are suppressed by martial law.

Aug. 12. Treaty between Japan and England renewed; again renewed July 13, 1911. Recognizes Japan as an Asiatic power.

1906. *January.* **Famine** develops in the northern provinces; enormous loss of life. Generous financial aid received from the United States.

1907. *Feb. 20.* **Anti-Japanese legislation** in California and gentlemen's agreement with the United States government on emigration (see UNITED STATES).

July 18. At the suggestion of Japan, the **emperor of Korea abdicates** in favor of the crown prince. Rioting of Koreans in Seoul and elsewhere. July 24, agreement at Seoul by which all legislation and all important executive acts are subject to the approval of the Japanese resident-general, Korea's autonomy thus coming to an end.

1908. *Jan. 25.* Emigration of laborers to Hawaii discouraged by the government.

Feb. 29. Japan demands and receives of China indemnity and apology for seizure of *Tatsu Maru,* a Japanese vessel with a cargo of arms.

June 16. Japan confiscates the property of the emperor of Korea.

October. Visit of United States fleet of war vessels.

Nov. 30. Exchange of notes (Root-Takahira) with United States on common policy of development of Pacific and integrity of China. Not submitted to the United States Senate, but considered as establishing a pledge.

1909. *June.* Prince Henry of Prussia visits Japan.

Oct. 26. **Ito,** returning from Korea, **assassinated** by a Korean.

1910. *July.* Japan gives notice that all **commercial treaties** will be terminated a year hence.

July 1. **Port Arthur** opened to all nations.

July 4. **Russo-Japanese entente treaty** concluded; *status quo* in Manchuria.

July 22. Treaty is signed with Korea by which **Korea is annexed to Japan** as the province of **Chosen.**

1911. *Jan. 18.* Twenty-four conspirators against the lives of the crown prince and officers of the imperial household condemned to death.

July 13. **New Anglo-Japanese treaty,** to last ten years, signed in London.

Aug. 25. **Katsura** resigns the premiership; a new cabinet formed by **Saionji.**

1912. *July 30.* Mutsuhito dies and his son, **Yoshihito,** ascends the throne.

Sept. 13. Simultaneously with the funeral ceremonies of the emperor, **General Nogi and his wife,** in accordance with an ancient custom, **commit suicide** as a final tribute to the emperor.

Sept. 22. Worst **typhoon** for half a century sweeps Japan, hundreds of lives being lost and $20,000,000 damage being inflicted.

Dec. 4. Premier Saionji and cabinet resign. December 17, **Katsura** is directed by the emperor to form a **cabinet.**

1913. *Feb. 5.* Vote of censure on the government under Katsura carried amid great tumult. Emperor suspends the session of the Diet. February 10, **political rioting** in the streets of Tokyo; Premier Katsura stoned, bureaucratic newspaper offices and the dwellings of the ministers attacked.

Feb. 12. **Yamamoto** appointed **premier,** and forms coalition ministry.

April. Proposed **California antialien land legislation** bitterly resented in Japan; war threats by extremists. Formal protest to the United States, May 9. Bill signed May 19, the United States replying to Japan that the measure in no wise infringes treaty rights. Renewed protests are made on June 4, August 26, and September 30 (see UNITED STATES).

Sept. 26. Japan sends **ultimatum to China,** demanding satisfaction within three days for attack at Nanking; several Japanese killed and the Japanese flag insulted. September 28, formal apology and reparation.

1914. *Jan. 11–13.* Sudden **eruption of Sakurajima,** after being quiescent for 130 years.

Feb. 10. **Naval scandal,** growing out of commissions to naval officers for influencing admiralty contracts in favor of a German firm. **Serious rioting in Tokyo.** Vote of no confidence rejected by the Diet after a turbulent debate. In April, **Okuma forms a cabinet.**

Aug. 15. Japan sends an **ultimatum to Germany to deliver up Kiaochow** to her; Japan to hold it in trust for China until the end of the war. Receiving no reply, Japan declares **war on Germany,** August 23 (24, Tokyo time). Diplomatic relations severed with Austria-Hungary. (For the WORLD WAR, see that title.)

Oct. 7. Japanese force occupies Marshall Islands in the Pacific.

1915. *January.* Japan presents demands for concessions in China (see CHINA).

March 16. Japan informed by Great Britain, France, Russia, and independently by the United States, that diplomatic relations will be difficult to maintain if she insists on pressing more demands upon China (see CHINA).

March 25. **Government party returned** at the elections with increased strength. Women participate in the electoral campaign for the first time in Japanese history.

June 1. House approves the government's military program, increasing the standing army.

July 30. Okuma cabinet resigns, following the investigation into bribery charges in connection with March elections. August 8, resignation withdrawn at request of emperor; cabinet reorganized.

Nov. 10. **Emperor Yoshihito crowned** at Kyoto.

1916. *Jan. 13.* Premier Okuma narrowly escapes two bombs in Tokyo.

June 1. **New factory law** becomes effective, marking the first step in the protection of women and children workers.

Oct. 3. **Okuma resigns** premiership; Terauchi requested by the emperor to form a ministry.

Nov. 3. **Hirohito,** eldest son of the emperor, installed as **crown prince.**

1917. *April 20.* House of Representatives having refused to vote confidence in the Teranchi cabinet, new elections give the government 217 seats, the opposition 161.

Nov. 2. **Lansing-Ishii agreement** regarding American and Japanese policies toward China is made at Washington, recognizing Japan's "special interests." Not submitted to ratification by United States Senate.

1918. *May.* Sino-Japanese military compact under which Japan secures many privileges in China.

July. Japan accepts American proposals for **intervention in Siberia.**

Aug. 17. **Government takes over the rice supply** of the country after several days of rioting.

Sept. 21. Terauchi resigns as premier. September 30, **Hara,** leader of the Seiyukai party, becomes **premier.**

1919. *Jan. 18.* **Japan** has five delegates **at the Peace Conference** at Paris. She is admitted as one of the five principal powers.

Jan. 20. Emperor of Korea dies in Tokyo.

February–April. **Korean peasants** rise in a **"passive revolution,"** demanding independence. Put down by Japanese troops. Many atrocities are reported. Provisional revolutionary government for the "Republic of Korea."

April 19. Publication of proposed secret German-Japanese treaty.

April 30. Supreme Council at Paris yields to **Japan's claims** in the Chinese province of **Shantung,** Japanese peace delegates having threatened to withdraw from the conference.

May. Anti-Japanese movement begins in China; boycotting of Japanese goods.

May 6. Japan given a mandate for the German islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

Aug. 26. Japanese make demonstration against peace delegates for not securing provisions of **racial equality** in Treaty of Versailles.

Oct. 30. Ratification of the Treaty of Versailles.

1920. *Jan. 14.* Announcement to China that **Japan** has succeeded to the German rights in **Shantung** by virtue of the Peace Treaty and **demands direct negotiation** in accordance with the demands of 1915.

Jan. 16. Representatives of Japan participate in the opening ceremony of the League of Nations.

Jan. 19. **Renewed demands on China** for direct negotiations in regard to Shantung. China refuses to parley, January 26.

Feb. 9. Russian Bolshevists said to foster rebellion in Korea.

Feb. 14. Uproar in Japanese Diet on universal suffrage. Demonstrations in Tokyo last for two weeks.

Feb. 26. Diet dissolved by an imperial decree leaving Premier **Hara in power.**

JUGO-SLAVIA: KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES.

Historical Outline.

At the outbreak of the World War the Serbs in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy were geographically subdivided, and in a position of political inferiority to the Germans in their half of the empire and the Hungarians in their half. A proposition to rearrange the empire into three groups — German, Hungarian, and Slav — was supposed to be favored by Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne, at the time of his assassination. The Slavs numbered 27,000,000 out of 51,000,000 in the empire; yet were in a minority in both the Austrian and Hungarian diets. In the Hungarian part of the empire, the Slavs with the adjacent Bosnians and Herzegovinians numbered 7,300,000, besides 2,800,000 Roumanians, out of a total population of 23,000,000. Yet the Hungarians were working systematically to root out their languages, traditions, and nationality. Only the Croatians received any favor at the hands of their masters.

A Slav propaganda went on under the surface. In 1903 a set of treason trials at Agram revealed a secret organization. The Serbian kingdom across the Drave was gaining ground and had the ambition to draw away the Serbs out of Hungary into a large Serb state. The Bosnians and Herzegovinians, who emerged from their age-long thralldom to Turkey in 1878, were also Slavs and they joined forces with their blood brethren.

The war of 1914 was directly due to the growing fear on the part of the empire that the Serbians would unite with the Serbs in Hungary, and was aimed at the destruction of the fountain of such influence. In the World War the Croat, Slav, and Bosnian troops, forced into service, had no desire to fight the Russian Slavs, and surrendered in large numbers. They felt no such hesitation with regard to Italy, which as soon as she came in (1915) began to plant herself in Albania. By the secret Treaty of London (April 26, 1915), the Italians were promised a large slice of territory inhabited by Slavs, including the coast of Dalmatia.

No opportunity came for a combined Slav movement till Austria-Hungary collapsed, in 1918. Then the fragments came together. Serbia, as an organized state, was the nucleus. The Montenegrins, who are Serbs in all but name, threw in their lot with Serbia. The Croats, Slovenes, Bosnians, and Dalmatians were at last free to unite with them in a Jugo-Slav nation organized under the name of the "Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes," headed by Prince Alexander of Serbia as regent. Their state is popularly known as Jugo-Slavia.

Many difficulties and rivalries developed inside this combination of peoples, whose only common national bond for ages had been the former vassalage to Turkey. The great obstacle to union was the Italian demand for the whole coast of Dalmatia under the Treaty of London; and then their still more serious claim to Fiume, the natural port of Croatia, and the only port on that part of the coast connected with the interior by a first-class railway.

Government. No constitution has been adopted for the new unified state. The legislative Assembly consists partly of Serbian deputies, who were elected before the first Balkan War, and partly of delegates appointed from the new territories. According to the constitution of the former Serbian kingdom, no measure can become a law unless adopted by one half of the Assembly. As it has been impossible to obtain such a majority, there has been almost a continuous conflict between the legislature and the successive cabinets.

The estimated **area** of Jugo-Slavia is 101,254 square miles and the **population** is about 14,361,000.

Chronology.

For earlier history of the states and peoples composing Jugo-Slavia, see SERBIA, etc., below.

1915. *April 26.* **Secret Treaty of London** between the Allies and Italy before the latter enters the World War promises to Italy the territories of Görz (Gorizia), Trieste, Istria (without Fiume), most of Dalmatia, and most of the islands along the Illyrian coast; rest of Dalmatian coast to be neutralized, saving existing rights of Montenegro; Italy to have Bay of Avlona and virtual control over rest of Albania; rest of coast north of Albania to be in Croatia, Serbia, and Montenegro.

1916. *Aug. 17.* By the treaty under which **Roumania** enters the war on the side of the Allies, she is **promised** the region of the **Bánát.**

1917. *Jan. 10.* The reply of the Allies to Wilson's peace note mentions liberation of the Slavs from foreign domination as one of the aims of the war.

July 20. **Declaration of Corfu** for the free and independent **kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes** (commonly called Jugo-Slavia); equal religious and alphabet rights, Gregorian calendar, freedom of Adriatic Sea, territory to extend over all the region where Jugo-Slavs are "living in compact masses." Declaration is signed by Pashić, premier of Serbia, and Trumbić, president of the Jugo-Slav Committee of the Austrian States.

1918. *March 2.* Meeting at Wagram, including Jugo-Slav members of Austrian Parliament and also of Croatian Diet, demands a national and independent state of Croats, Slovenes, and Serbs.

April 10. Pact of Rome, drawn up by a **Congress of Oppressed Austrian Nationalities;** declaration that unity of Jugo-Slavs is vital to Italy and the deliverance of the Adriatic Sea from any enemy is vital to Jugo-Slavs and Italians.

May 29. **United States expresses earnest sympathy** with the national aspirations of Jugo-Slavs.

June 4. Supreme War Council at Paris adheres to the above expression.

Sept. 9. Italian government addresses a note to the Allied governments approving of Jugo-Slav movement for independence.

Oct. 11. Emperor Charles issues manifesto of intention to unite Croatia-Slavonia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina in one state.

Oct. 29. **Croatian Diet declares the independence** of the "kingdom of Dalmatia, Slovenia, Fiume, and Croatia." After the armistice **Italian troops occupy Fiume** and other places not included in the armistice, and friction begins.

Oct. 31. Bosnia and Herzegovina join Serbia.

Nov. 3. Austrian armistice requires the evacuation of Görz (Gorizia), Trieste, Istria, and Dalmatia, which Italian troops occupy for the Allies.

Nov. 7. Meeting at Geneva of Serbian ministers, leaders of Serbian opposition, and delegates from the National Council of the Austrian Slavs: recognition of Serb-Croat-Slovene nation as a belligerent and friendly power to be asked of the Allies pending formalities of final union with Serbia.

Nov. 24. National Council at Agram appoints as regent **Prince Alexander of Serbia** (acting sovereign) and votes for union with Serbia; protest is made against Italian occupation of Fiume.

Dec. 1. Great National Assembly (Skupshtina) of **Montenegro deposes King Nicholas** and votes to **unite with Serbia.**
Delegation from National Council protests Italian occupation of Jugo-Slav territory, declining to acknowledge validity of Treaty of London. Jugo-Slav ministry is formed with Pashić as premier.

Dec. 25. Official statement of Jugo-Slav claims: asserts right to Dalmatia (767,708 Slavs, 108,147 Italians); Istria (224,000 Slavs, 145,516 Italians); Görz, and Trieste, which, though itself Italian, is considered a component and indivisible part of the whole Jugo-Slav hinterland; also the Bánát, which Roumania contests.

1919. *Jan. 5.* United **Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom is formed** at Belgrade by representatives of Serbia, Montenegro, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Croatia-Slavonia, and Slovenia.

February–March. Following an incident at Laibach, Italy establishes a partial blockade of entry of food supplies into Jugo-Slavia; trouble is adjusted by the Supreme Council at Paris. Likewise a contest within Jugo-Slavia over question of erecting a federalized state or a centralized one under control of Serbia. [Slavia.]

Feb. 7. **United States recognizes Jugo-**

April 23. **Wilson** issues a statement **on the Fiume controversy,** supporting Jugo-Slav claim to it and eastern part of Istria, with various islands; denies validity of the Treaty of London as no longer applicable. Italy claims the city and suburbs because of Italian majority in the city and need of protection against Jugo-Slav aggression. Jugo-Slavs claim the city because it is their main and only advantageous port (Italy having Trieste) and the suburbs and hinterland are overwhelmingly Slav. France and Great Britain inclined to yield to Italian claim, Jugo-Slavia to be compensated from Dalmatian claim of Italy under Treaty of London.

April 24. Italian delegates leave the Peace Conference because of Fiume controversy, but return on May 6.

Sept. 10. **Peace of Saint-Germain** between Austria and Allies makes the boundary with Italy and Jugo-Slavia approximately the Drave River. Austria recognizes independence of Jugo-Slavia. Klagenfurt area to hold a plebiscite on question of attachment to Austria or Jugo-Slavia. Hungarian treaty is delayed by lack of stable government.

Sept. 17. Occupation of Fiume by irregular Italian troops under **d'Annunzio** without orders from the Italian government, to prevent abandonment of the claim. Occupation, strongly **supported by Italian opinion,** continues in spite of verbal threats of Italian government.

Nov. 15. D'Annunzio seizes Zara in Dalmatia.

1920. *Jan. 7.* **Agreement reached by premiers** of Great Britain, France, and Italy for giving Istria to Italy; **Fiume** to be **a free city** of Italian character, with neutralization of port, and railway under control of League of Nations; Italy to give up most of the islands and Dalmatia, except Zara. Jugo-Slavia given the choice between this and the Treaty of London.

Jan. 15. **Peace Treaty of Neuilly** handed to Hungarian delegates. Hungary to agree to accept such boundaries with Jugo-Slavia as are assigned Supreme Council assigns most of the Bánát to Roumania, but southern portion to Jugo-Slavia.

Jan. 20. Jugo-Slavia agrees to the neutralization, but adheres to Wilson's boundaries.

Feb. 14. **Wilson threatens to withdraw the peace treaty** from the Senate if the Allied governments settle the Adriatic problem without American concurrence.

April 24. Though Italy and Jugo-Slavia agree at San Remo upon **Fiume as a buffer state** without continuity of territory with Italy, the French and British premiers do not agree, and the negotiations continue.

JUGO-SLAVIA: COMPONENT PARTS.

SERBIA.

Historical Outline.

Two of the sections of Jugo-Slavia, Montenegro and Serbia, have had a testing as independent kingdoms. Serbia was in 1914 an inland kingdom of southeastern Europe, in the northwestern part of the Balkan Peninsula. The population was chiefly Slav, but included some Croats, Bulgars, Slovenes, Montenegrins, Albanians, and Turks. The history of the Serbs dates from the middle of the 7th century, when they became settled in the Balkan Peninsula. By the 12th century they acknowledged the suzerainty of the Byzantine emperors. The most glorious era of Serbia, however, was in the 14th century when, under Stephen Dushan (1331–1355), "Emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks," an attempt was made to establish a Serbian empire, which should include Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria. Stephen's object was to prevent the Turks from gaining a foothold in Europe, for which he planned to secure Constantinople; but he died in 1355.

His successor was overwhelmingly defeated by the Turks (1389) in the battle of Kossovo. For the next three centuries and a half Serbia was a Turkish dependency, suffering all the evils of the rule of the lawless and corrupt pashas.

The Serbians' struggle for independence began in 1804 with the election of Czerny Djordje, or Kara Georg ("Black George"), as commander in chief of the Serbian nation. Under his command the Serbs succeeded in expelling the Turks, and by 1807 the sultan was forced to offer them self-government. On the advice of Russia this was refused; but when Russia, attacked by Napoleon in 1812, was forced to conclude the Treaty of Bucharest, no provision was made for Serbia, which was reconquered by Turkey. Another insurrection occurred in 1815 and two years later Serbia regained her autonomy, which was recognized by the Treaty of Adrianople in 1829.

Between 1830 and 1879 Serbia was becoming unified and was struggling for independence. Under Prince Michael in 1867, after an understanding had been arrived at with other Balkan states and provinces for an attack upon the Turkish power, Serbia demanded that Turkey should withdraw from Belgrade and all other Serb fortresses. To prevent a general uprising, Great Britain intervened and compelled Turkey to submit.

As a result of the Russo-Turkish War (1877–78) a greater Bulgaria was created. This dissatisfied and alarmed the Serbs. Although the Congress of Berlin reduced the territories assigned to their neighbor, it failed to satisfy the ambition of the Serbs. From 1879 Serbia developed her internal resources and although defeated by Bulgaria in a brief war in 1885, she prospered. In 1903 King Alexander, who had suspended the constitution of 1889 and was ruling despotically, was assassinated, together with Queen Draga; and Peter Karageorgevich, who had planned the murder, was proclaimed king.

In 1908 Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina These provinces contained a large Serb population; and since Austria under the terms of the Congress of Berlin was entitled only to "occupation and administration," Serbia hoped that they might become a part of a greater Serbia.

In 1912 the Balkan League, consisting of Montenegro, Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria was formed, and war was declared by Serbia on Turkey, October 17 (see TURKEY). The leading spirit in Serbia was the premier, Pashić. The allies won every pitched battle and captured every besieged fortress and occupied Monastir and other strongholds in Macedonia, and on the Adriatic occupied the port of Durazzo in defiance of Austria. Together with the Bulgarians, the Serbians captured Adrianople (March 26, 1913), which forced Turkey to accept their terms. By the Treaty of London, Turkey was expelled from the Balkans; but by the terms dictated by the great powers, the so-called independent kingdom of Albania was planted upon the Adriatic. Bulgaria, apparently under the instigation of Austria, treacherously attacked her former allies, but was defeated, and Serbia gained a large portion of Macedonia.

Serbia felt that Austria had prevented her legitimate expansion in Bosnia and on the Adriatic. Austria regarded Serbia as a dangerous neighbor who

was attempting to unite all the southern Slavs in Austria-Hungary under her protection. On June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, together with his wife, was assassinated in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. Although the crime was done by an Austrian subject, Austria held the Serbian nation responsible and on July 23 presented a humiliating ultimatum of ten demands which commanded Serbia to suppress all Pan-Serbian propaganda and all newspapers and societies which fostered hatred and contempt for the Austrian government. Moreover, Austria demanded that Serbia should accept Austrian assistance in investigating and punishing the perpetrators of the crime of Sarajevo. Although England attempted to obtain a modification of the terms, Austria refused. Even after Serbia submitted, Austria mobilized her forces and declared war. This step led directly to the World War of 1914–18.

In the first year of the war, the Austrian armies of invasion were repeatedly thrown back. In 1915 a combined force of Austrians and Germans, fresh from their success in Russia, invaded Serbia. Greece, which was bound to come to her aid, refused under the unconstitutional influence of King Constantine, the brother-in-law of the German kaiser. Thus Serbia, deserted by her allies and attacked on the north, and by the Bulgarians on the east, was conquered and utterly crushed with indescribable cruelty. What was left of her army was transported to the island of Corfu, where it was refitted and in 1918 joined with the Allies in the attack upon Bulgaria, which surrendered September 30.

Organization.

Government. Before the World War the constitution of Serbia provided for a king, assisted by a council of ministers who were individually and collectively responsible to the National Assembly. The National Assembly (Narodna Skupshtina) was composed of 166 deputies elected by male citizens of 21 years of age who paid a small tax. Elections took place every four years and the assembly met annually. This assembly, including popular elements, was very representative of national feeling. The leading Serbian statesman was Pashić.

Industry and Labor. More than four fifths of the Serbians are peasant farmers, the great majority of whom cultivate small farms of their own. Indian corn is the principal crop and is used for food and as fodder for the swine, which are the principal export. Wheat, flax, hemp, and tobacco are also raised, and the sugar beet was successfully introduced in 1900.

Religion. The state religion is the Greek Orthodox, which has nearly 3,000,000 adherents. There are 8,000 Roman Catholics, 800 Protestants, 6,000 Jews, and 14,000 Moslem Turks and Gypsies. Complete liberty of conscience is allowed.

Education. Education is compulsory and free in all primary schools under the ministry of education. In 1900, however, less than 17% of the people could read and write. In fact the country has almost no schools. The university at Belgrade had (1920) 80 professors and 7,250 students.

Defense. Before the World War, military service was compulsory and universal between the ages of 18 and 55, but the recruits joined at 21 and completed their military service at 45. Serbia was able to muster an army of 500,000 men. During the World War 757,000 troops were raised and the casualties were 369,000.

After the Treaty of Bucharest, which closed the second Balkan War, the **area** of Serbia was 33,891 square miles and its **population** 4,615,567.

Chronology.

For Serbia before the 19th century, see BULGARIA and TURKEY.

1804. Under Czerny Djordje (Kara Georg), founder of the Karageorgevich family, the **Serbians rise** against the Janizaries, then against Turkish rule. Interest in their great national past is revived.

1813. Serbian rebellion crushed, following the withdrawal of Russian aid.

1830. Miloš Obrenović, founder of the Obrenović family, after fighting the Turks fifteen years and assassinating Czerny Djordje, is recognized by the Porte as **prince of Serbia,** which is made an autonomous province.

1831. National Church established. Serbia now free from Turks in politics and from Greeks in religion. [pressed.]

1835. First constitution granted and then sup-

1839. Forced abdication of Miloš Obrenović. His son Michael succeeds.

1842. Michael deposed and replaced by Alexander, son of Czerny Djordje.

1858. Alexander deposed, and Miloš recalled.

1860. Miloš dies, and is succeeded by his son Michael, who is assassinated in 1868, and is succeeded by **Milan,** a minor, who, as Milan I., becomes Serbia's most able modern ruler.

1862. Turks still maintain garrisons in Serbia. Belgrade is bombarded. For this the Turks have to withdraw entirely in 1867.

1869. *July 11.* **A constitution is proclaimed.**

1876. *July 1.* Serbian troops cross the frontier to attack Turkey, but are crushed at Aleksinac, October 31.

1878. *July 13.* **Independence of Serbia recognized** by the Congress of Berlin.

1882. Serbia declares itself a kingdom.

1885. *November.* **Serbia, attacking Bulgaria,** is decisively **defeated** at the battle of Slivnica, November 17–19. Austria saves Serbia from invasion.

1889. New constitution is granted **Milan abdicates** (March 6) in favor of his son Alexander.

1894. *April 13.* By a *coup d'état,* King Alexander takes personal charge; on May 21 he restores the less liberal constitution of 1869.

1901. Conservative constitution; bicameral Assembly.

1903. *June 11.* Army officers **assassinate King Alexander and Queen Draga** for benefit of Peter. Obrenović family is extinguished.

June 15. **Peter** Karageorgevich, grandson of Czerny Djordje (Kara Georg), is declared **king.**

1906. Customs union with Bulgaria.

June 15. King Peter declares radical constitution of 1889 restored.

1908. Serbians excited by the action of Austria-Hungary in annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina and by proclamation of Bulgarian independence.

1909. *January 16.* Cabinet resigns for the third time within a fortnight.

March 18. Great Britain, France, and Russia **demand** that Serbia enter upon **peaceable negotiations** with Austria-Hungary. March 25, Crown Prince George resigns his right to the succession in favor of his brother Alexander. March 30, Serbia accepts the proposals of the powers, thus **ending the political crisis.**

1912–1913. For first Balkan War, see TURKEY. Austria keeps Serbia from an outlet to the sea.

1913. For second Balkan War, see BULGARIA.

1914. *Feb. 17.* Diplomatic relations with Bulgaria are resumed.

March 14. Treaty of **peace** is signed **with Turkey** at Constantinople.

July 28. **Austria declares war on Serbia.** For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

1915. *February.* Epidemics of typhus and typhoid extending over the whole of Serbia are reported.

April 1. American Red Cross sends experts from New York to fight the disease devastating Serbia.

April 3–5. Bulgarian irregulars raid the frontier. Bulgaria disclaims responsibility.

May 24. **Army reorganized:** Great Britain and France supply it abundantly with artillery and ammunition.

October–December. The **country** is entirely **overrun by** the troops of the **Central Powers;** the remnant of the army escapes through Montenegro and Albania to the coast, whence they are conveyed to Corfu and there reorganized; later they participate in the Saloniki advance. Government also establishes itself at Corfu.

1917. *June 26.* Cabinet is reorganized, Pashić remaining premier.

1918. *Nov. 1.* Serbian army reoccupies Belgrade.

1919. *July 18.* **King Peter returns** to Serbia. The country is incorporated into the **new kingdom of Jugo-Slavia.**

CROATIA AND SLAVONIA.

Historical Outline.

AMONG the Slavic tribes that settled in central Germany the Croatians found their way into the land south of the middle Drave. Alongside of it to the eastward was the similar settlement of the Slavonians. In recent times the two were united as a double province of the Hungarian portion of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. The territory extends from the Drave and the Danube to the inclosed reaches of the Adriatic above Dalmatia. The twin peoples were blood brethren of the Serbians, Bosnians, and Montenegrins.

Their common history is that they were won for Christianity through the Roman Church in the ninth century. In the tenth century they were conquered by the kings of the Hungarians, who gave themselves the title of Kings of Croatia and Dalmatia. Later a king of Croatia, Dalmatia, and Slavonia was set up by the Hungarian sovereign (who was also sovereign of Austria) in order to organize the frontier against the Turks. Nevertheless, Bosnia and its sister provinces Herzegovina, Croatia, and Slavonia were conquered and occupied by the Turks. The Venetians succeeded in holding the strip of Dalmatian coast. Slavonia was till 1745 a military province.

Napoleon, by his crushing victories in Italy and Austria, forced the Austrian government to yield to him, by the Treaty of Schönbrunn, or Vienna (Oct. 14, 1809), the Dalmatian coast and a broad belt extending inland which he called the "Illyrian Provinces." This was the most enlightened government that these lands had ever known, but it was their misfortune to be restored to Austria by the Treaty of Vienna, in 1815.

From that time onward for a hundred years the Hungarians made it their policy to Magyarize their Serbian subjects. The result was that when, in 1848, the Hungarians were fighting for their independence against Austria, the Croats sided with the Germans. For this service they received no reward. Every effort was made to break up their national traditions. After the defeat of Austria by Prussia in 1866, the Dual Monarchy was formed, and Hungary reluctantly granted to Croatia (1868) an organized government with ministers and a legislature. A similar system was set up for Slavonia.

In 1908 the Hungarian government prosecuted, convicted, and put to death several of the Croatians on a charge of plotting for the independence of their country. The Croatian-Slavonians ardently sympathized with the protests against the formal incorporating into the monarchy of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which they had hoped to see develop into a part of a new Serb state. They were much aroused by the Serbian victories over the Turks in 1912 and 1913.

The double province of Croatia-Slavonia is a region which in the midst of barren mountains incloses considerable areas of fruitful soil, and there are various minerals in the mountains. The inhabitants are a lively agricultural people. In the European wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the Croat cavalry was celebrated for its bravery and its cruelty to noncombatants. The **area** of the double province is about 16,000 square miles. Before the World War, the **population** was about 2,600,000 people, nearly all of them of Serb stock.

Chronology.

1648. Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, Slavic tribes of the same speech and customs, have been separated by different rule, religion, and alphabet. Slovenes and Croats, Catholics and using Latin alphabet, are under the Hapsburgs in Austria and Hungary. Some Serbs, Orthodox (Greek Church) and using the Cyrillic alphabet, are farther east in the Bánát and elsewhere under Hungary. The remainder of the Jugo-Slavs are under Turkey; mostly Orthodox, but some Mohammedans. Montenegro and Ragusa are independent. Dalmatian coast and islands are under Venice; farther inland the Turks govern. Fiume, formerly part of Croatia, is a separate royal Hungarian city. Croatia is autonomous, under Hungary, in domestic affairs. (See SERBIA and MONTENEGRO.)

1690. *Aug. 21.* "Privileges of the Serbs" in Hungary issued, forming a legal basis of autonomy; not put in operation.

1718. *July 21.* By **Peace of Passarowitz** (Požarevac) Turkey cedes her portion of Dalmatia to Venice.

1797. *Oct. 17.* Venetian Republic being suppressed by Treaty of Campoformido, Dalmatia is ceded to Austria.

1809. *Oct. 14.* By Peace of Schönbrunn (Vienna) **Austria cedes** Carniola, Dalmatia, Istria, Fiume, Görz (Gorizia), Trieste, and parts of Carinthia and Croatia, which are formed into the Slavic **Provinces of Illyria,** part of Napoleon's kingdom of Italy. Ragusa is added in 1811. Region is **reoccupied by Austria** in 1813 and returned to her rule by Congress of Vienna.

1840. Evidence of intention of Hungary to introduce Magyar as official language in Croatia-Slavonia is counteracted by promotion of a union of "Illyrian Slavs."

1844. Hungary abolishes the prerogatives of the Serbian (Orthodox) Church in and around the Bánát, and **requires Magyar as official language** of church administration.

1848. Revolutionary year offers opportunities to the Serb people. Hungarian revolt is anti-Slav, and Serbs and Croats unite in demanding recognition; Austria humors them until Hungary is subdued and then continues the policy of repression. Croatia-Slavonia and Fiume are separated from Hungary in 1849 and ruled as a single Austrian crownland.

1867. By the Dual-Monarchy **Ausgleich** the Serbo-Croats of Dalmatia and Istria, and the Slovenes of Carniola, Carinthia, Styria, and Görz (Gorizia) are grouped in Anstria; and the Croats of Croatia Slavonia and the Serbs of the Bánát, Bács-Bodrog, and Baranya are included in Hungary; Germans and Magyars **dividing the Slavs** in order the better to keep them repressed.

1868. *June 25.* Hungary agrees to a **local Diet in Croatia-Slavonia,** and to Serbo-Croatian as official language; Croatia-Slavonia acknowledges Hungarian sovereignty, pays part of revenue to Hungary, and is represented in the Parliament. Resistance to Hungarian control continues.

1870. Fiume is **sepacated** from Croatia-Slavonia; becomes again a royal free town of Hungary.

1878. *July 13.* By Treaty of Berlin, **Bosnia and Herzegovina,** inhabited by Catholic, Orthodox, and Moslem Serbo-Croats, are continued nominally under Turkish sovereignty; but **Austria-Hungary** is given a **mandate** of administration;

1878 (*continued*).
this checks plans for Greater Croatia as well as Greater Serbia and helps to develop a united Jugo-Slav sentiment and movement.

1908. *Oct. 5.* **Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina** (see Nineteenth-Century Period, and Bosnia and Herzegovina, below).

MONTENEGRO.

Historical Outline.

Montenegro, as an independent state, dates from the battle of Kossovo in 1389. Some of the defeated Serbians took refuge in Crnagora, the "Black Mountain" (Venetian Italian "Montenegro"), a highly defensible upland region. There they maintained a heroic resistance for over 500 years — the only people in the Balkans who never yielded to the Turk. Their independence was acknowledged by Turkey and Europe at the Congress of Berlin in 1878. The population of Montenegro is a primitive, peasant people, delighting in war and impatient of peace. Since 1860 they have been ruled by Prince Nicholas, who in 1910 took the title of king.

In 1912 the Montenegrins were the first to declare war upon Turkey and marched upon Scutari, the capital of Albania. This they continued to besiege in spite of the opposition of Austria and the great powers who blockaded the coast, and Scutari finally surrendered to them with Serbian aid, April 23, 1913. King Nicholas was obliged by the opposition of Austria to surrender Scutari to the great powers, who then established the so-called independent kingdom of Albania.

August 8, 1914, Montenegro declared war upon Austria to aid Serbia, and together with the Serbians carried the war into Bosnia. After the subjugation of Serbia, the Austrians attacked Montenegro in 1916 and occupied its capital, Cetinje. Being hard pressed, the Montenegrins sued for peace, but would not accept the terms and the war was resumed. The chief ports and towns were occupied by Austrians, many of the Montenegrins retiring into Albania. Scutari was reoccupied by the Austrians, and the Italians were forced to evacuate Durazzo, so that Austria was everywhere successful on the eastern coast of the Adriatic.

By the surrender of Bulgaria, in September, 1918, and the withdrawal of Austria, the Montenegrins returned. The National Assembly on April 20, 1919, voted for the union of Montenegro with Jugo-Slavia. In 1919 Serbian troops occupied Montenegro and King Nicholas (not in the country) appealed to the Peace Conference for protection and restoration of his royal power, which was not accorded.

Chronology.

1648. For Balkan Peninsula in 1648, see Bulgaria. Turkish invaders or border raiders enter Montenegro almost every year till 1913.
1700. Though never subdued by the Turks, Montenegro's **independence** was not acknowledged by the Turks until the close of the 18th century.
1830. Peter I. dies after reigning nearly 50 years, during which time the size of the country had been doubled and its organization entirely rebuilt.
1851. The ancient connection of princely and ecclesiastical functions is abolished and the **rulership made hereditary.**
1860. Prince Danilo is assassinated, and his nephew **Nicholas** succeeds.
1876. For Montenegro in the Russo-Turkish War, and the Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, see Turkey.
1881. Privileges secured by the Treaty of Berlin are attained, after the powers force the Turks to withdraw.
1896. Elena, daughter of Prince Nicholas, marries Victor Emmanuel III. of Italy.
1905. Parliament and a liberal constitution granted; not a success.
1910. *Aug. 28.* **Montenegro** is proclaimed a **kingdom,** with Nicholas I. as king.
Army improved by French instructors; Russian teachers reorganize **education;** close commercial relations with Italy.
1912–1913. For first Balkan War, see Turkey.
1913. *April 6.* Montenegro's refusal to withdraw from before Scutari causes a **naval blockade** by the powers.
April 23. **Scutari surrenders.**
May 5. King Nicholas, in spite of popular opposition, agrees to evacuate Scutari; city is handed over to an international force on May 14.
June–August. For second Balkan War, see Bulgaria.
August. Montenegro receives from Serbia, in return for assistance in the two Balkan wars, about half of Novibazar sanjak.
1914. *Aug. 8.* **Montenegro declares war** on Austria in support of Serbia (see World War).
1915. *April 6.* Government appeals to American Red Cross for assistance to fight **epidemic of typhus.**
December. Country is entirely overrun by the Central Powers and government driven into exile.
1919. *April 20.* National Assembly votes to **unite with Jugo-Slavia.**

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA.

Historical Outline.

The province of Bosnia, once part of the Roman Empire, was organized about 1200 A. D. under a *ban*, or sovereign, who later incorporated the neighboring district of Herzegovina. For a time this region was included in the empire of Serbia. Then it was independent; but in 1463 it was conquered by the Turks, who held it nearly four centuries. A considerable part of the population accepted the Moslem religion.

In 1875 a rebellion called the attention of Europe to the sufferings of the Christian population. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 the double province, instead of being put on the road to independence, was placed under the control of the Austrian government without being annexed to either part of the empire.

A policy of subjecting the region to Austrian laws, ideals, etc., was followed, and order was restored by military force. Nominally, there was still a feudal relation to the sultan, but after the insurrection of the Young Turks the Austrian government assumed that this suzerainty had ceased and in 1908 formally annexed the provinces to the empire. This was a great disappointment not only to the Bosnians, but also to Serbia, which had looked forward to including the blood brethren in a large Serb kingdom. The assassination of the heir to the imperial throne at the capital, Sarajevo, in 1914, was the pretended occasion for the World War. The Bosnians were compelled to serve in the Austrian armies. The Serbs made unavailing efforts to get a permanent foothold in the country. At the end of the war the Bosnians and Herzegovinians entered into the new state of Jugo-Slavia.

The population is chiefly Serbian by race, but in respect to religion it comprises about 900,000 Greek Catholics, half a million Roman Catholics, and 600,000 Moslems, the last named having maintained their faith notwithstanding their separation from Turkey. The country, which covers an area of 19,762 square miles, is mountainous and considerable parts are sterile, but there are broad and fertile valleys and in normal times a considerable production of foodstuffs, timber, and salt. Herzegovina under the *ante bellum* system was cut off from the sea by the coastal province of Dalmatia.

Chronology.

958. Croatian kings in authority in Bosnia.
1000–1200. Subject to Hungary, with brief intervals of independence. Bogomilian heresy adopted by the Bosnians (see Bogomile, *n.*, in the *Dict.*).
1322. Stephen Kotromanić, ban of Bosnia, extends authority to the sea. Reigned till 1353. Last and greatest of Bosnian bans.
1376. Stephen Tvrtko "King of Bosnia, Serbia and all the Seacoast."
1398. Invasion by the Turks.
1448. Stephen Vukčić, created Duke of St. Sava (whence comes the name *Herzegovina*, that is, "the Duchy").
1463. Conquest by the Turks, who permit the Roman and Greek Christians to continue as peasants.
1500–1790. Part of the region conquered by the Hungarians.
1821–1851. Insurrections against the Turks.
1875–1878. Rising against the Turks, aided by Russian campaign in Bulgaria. Result: separation from Turkey.
1878. Treaty of Berlin gives Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria, which leads to a rising.
1908. *Oct. 7.* Austria proclaims incorporation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
1910. *Feb. 22.* Fundamental statutes for Bosnia and Herzegovina. Personal rights and a Diet.
1919. *Jan. 5.* Incorporated **in Jugo-Slavia.**

KAMERUN.

See under Germany, page 105.

KIAOCHOW.

See under Germany, page 105.

LATVIA.

Latvia is the name now given to the southern two thirds of the former province of Livonia and the province of Kurland. This region is inhabited by the Letts, who have resisted the Bolshevist aggressions and attempted to establish a national state.

Government. Before the adoption of the constitution Latvia was governed by a council of state of 102 members to whom the cabinet was responsible.

Industry and Labor. Latvia is primarily an agricultural country, although an increasing number of the population are turning to industrial life; before the World War there were nearly eight hundred factories. The chief exports are flax and lumber.

Religion and Education. The majority of the population are Protestant, although there are many Roman Catholics. Before the war there were only 98 secondary schools and the percentage of illiterates was 21.5.

The **area** of Latvia is about 24,440 square miles and the **population** (1914) a little over 2,500,000.

See also Baltic Provinces (under Russia), Esthonia, Lithuania, Poland, Russia, and World War.
1918. *March 3.* In the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk,** Latvia is to be occupied temporarily by the Germans (see Esthonia).
1919. *June.* **Treaty of Versailles** annuls Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, and binds Germany to accept arrangements later to be made as to former Russian territory.

LEEWARD ISLANDS.

See under British Empire, page 74.

LIBERIA.

Historical Outline.

Liberia is situated at the upper angle of the southwestern coast of Africa. Its coast line is about 350 miles in length and extends from the British colony of Sierra Leone to the French colony of the Ivory Coast.

In 1816 the American Colonization Society was organized in Princeton, New Jersey. The avowed object was to establish in Africa a colony to be peopled with American freedmen and captured slaves. The first colonists arrived in 1820 and, in course of time, the Society sent 18,000 American Africans. Civil government was established in 1824, and in 1828 a regular constitution was prepared. For nearly twenty years the home society retained the control and then surrendered everything into the hands of the Liberians.

Liberia, while nominally independent, is actually under the tutelage of the United States. Thus, in 1910 an agreement was made with France and Germany by which the American government was to take charge of the finances, military organization, agriculture, and boundary disputes. And thus Liberia in sympathy with the United States declared war upon Germany August 4, 1917.

Government. The constitution of the republic is modeled on that of the United States. The executive power is given to a president (elected for four years), vice president, and a council of six ministers. Legislative power is in the hands of a House of Representatives of 13, elected for four years, and a Senate of 8, elected for six years.

Industry. Although Liberia is rich in agricultural, mining, and forest resources, industry is in a backward state. The chief exports are rubber, palm oil, coffee, and cocoa; and in 1913 the export trade was a little over a million dollars. There are no railroads, and transportation is carried on by ox-carts and on the rivers.

Religion. The Americo-Liberians are all Protestants and there are several American missions at work, and one French Roman Catholic.

Education. In 1910 there were 113 government elementary schools, with more than 4,000 pupils. There were also 87 mission schools, with about 2,000 pupils. The Methodists maintain a college at Monrovia, and the government established a college (1916) with 3 professors and 20 students.

Defense. Every citizen between 16 and 50 is liable for military service, and the organized militia, volunteers, and police number about 400. There is one armed revenue cutter.

The total **area** is about 40,000 sq. miles; the **population** (estimated) between 1,500,000 and 2,100,000.

Chronology.

1816. *December.* **American Colonization Society** is organized at Princeton, N. J.
1822. *April 25.* First **Negro colonists** land at Monrovia. American government assists financially in the project. After initial trials, settlement prospers and others are started.
1824. Name Liberia adopted.
1847. *July 26.* **Declaration of Independence** and constitution framed; Society gives up control. J. J. Roberts, a Negro, first president.
1848. *Nov. 21.* British treaty of **recognition** and commerce; similar action by other countries later.
1862. *Oct. 21.* **Treaty with United States;** no guarantees, but United States frequently uses its **good offices** to protect Liberia.
1885. *Nov. 11.* Treaty delimiting Sierra Leone boundary is forced by Great Britain.
1892. *Dec. 8.* Boundary treaty with France.
1909. Investigation by an American commission leads, some two years later, to **American supervision** of financial, military, agricultural, and boundary questions. International loans concluded, with America in charge of customs and additional French, British, and German receivers.
1912. *Jan. 1.* D. E. **Howard** inaugurated as **president.**
November. Germany coerces Liberia for in-

1912 (*continued*).
sults to German merchants and officers. Trade chiefly in German bands. [Germany.
1917. *May 8.* Liberia severs intercourse with
Aug. 4. **War is declared on Germany.**
1918. *April 9.* A German submarine sinks the Liberian patrol vessel and bombards Monrovia.
1919. *Jan. 18.* Liberia is represented at the Peace Conference.
June 28. By the Treaty of Versailles Germany renounces all her special rights in Liberia and participation in its rehabilitation. [president.
1920. *January.* C. D. B. **King** is inaugurated as

LIBYA.

See under ITALY, page 115.

LIECHTENSTEIN.

LIECHTENSTEIN, a small principality, situated on the upper Rhine between Switzerland and the Austrian province of Vorarlberg, was one of the constituent states of the Holy Roman Empire and a member of the German Confederation from 1815 to 1866. It was left out of both the Austrian and Prussian reorganizations of 1867, and is nominally independent, though a satellite of Austria till the World War. The sovereign in 1920 was Prince Johann II. The **area** is 65 square miles and the **population** (1912) 10,716.

1613. Count of Hohenems acquires the region.
1713. County passes to the Liechtenstein family.
1719. *Jan. 23.* Emperor makes it a principality in the Holy Roman Empire.
1806. Part of Rhine Confederation.
1815. *June 8.* Made a member of the German Confederation.
1866–1867. When the Confederation falls it is left out of the new Union; is theoretically independent, but is included in Austrian Customs Union.
1918. *Nov. 7.* With the break-up of Austria-Hungary the Diet resolves to establish **complete independence.**

LITHUANIA.

THE Lithuanians lie south of the former Baltic Provinces of Russia, east of Germany and Poland, and are found chiefly in the former Russian provinces (governments) of Kovno, Suvalki, Grodno, and parts of Vitebsk, Minsk, and Vilno. They represent a branch of the Aryan race which from time immemorial has inhabited this region near the Baltic. They were the last of the native European races to accept Christianity. In alliance with the Poles they occupied a large part of Prussia and defeated the Germans in a decisive battle in 1410. When Russia dismembered Poland, Lithuania practically ceased to exist; but during the 19th century a feeling of race consciousness was aroused, and an idea of an independent Lithuania took root.

Lithuania is an unfertile country with low-lying, marshy land. Only in the province of Kovno is agriculture carried on to any extent. The raising of live stock and the utilization of the forest resources are the other industries.

During the overthrow of the Russian government and the defeat of Germany the new republic of Poland claimed a large part of this region, and whether it will be attached to Poland or remain an independent state is still uncertain.

Government. Pending the convocation of a constituent assembly a provisional constitution was adopted, April 4, 1919. The state council, the cabinet, and the president exercise the authority. The president conducts all foreign relations and is commander in chief of the army. The state council, of 40 members, exercises the functions of a legislature. The cabinet is responsible to the state council.

Industry and Labor. The chief industry of Lithuania is agriculture, important products being rye, wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes. The country is also rich in live stock. Poultry farming, particularly geese rearing, is carried on. The chief articles of export are corn, cattle, lumber, hides, and wool.

The approximate **area** of the present Lithuanian Republic is 36,532 square miles, and the **population** in 1914 was 4,651,000. In the complications due to the World War Kurland was grouped with Lithuania, not claiming a separate existence.

Chronology.

See also BALTIC PROVINCES (under RUSSIA), ESTHONIA, LATVIA, POLAND, and WORLD WAR.

1386. Personal **union with Poland.**
1569. Practically annexed by Poland.
1795. **Annexed by Russia.**
1863. Joins **in Polish Revolution** against Russia.
1905. Convention **demands self-government.**
1914. **German invasion** of Lithuania and Kurland.
1915. **Russia orders the peasants to evacuate;** population of Kurland reduced from 674,000 to 230,000, but in Lithuania emigration is stopped by the nationalists and the **Germans are welcomed.** Balts are not restored to power in the province, and in Lithuania a national council is permitted.
1917. *Dec. 11.* National government proclaims **independence and alliance with Germany.**
1918. *March 3.* In the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** Russia renounces sovereignty over Lithuania, Kurland, and Riga.
March 23. **Germany recognizes Lithuania** as an independent ally. Plans for installing a German king.
Nov. 30. **Republic proclaimed** in Lithuania.
1919. *April.* German and German-Baltic troops, on pretense of fighting the Bolsheviki, overthrow provisional Lithuanian government at Libau. **Poles advance in Lithuania** against the Reds.
May. **Bolsheviki are driven out,** all the states combining in the offensive.
June 10. French General **Foch orders German troops** in the Baltic states ("Iron Division" under von der Goltz) **to retire.** Order is ignored.
Sept. 28. German government professes inability to enforce the retirement of the "insubordinate" troops in the Baltic states.
Oct. 8. A Russian army (nominally White) under **Bermondt,** with von der Goltz's assistance, makes an attack on Riga and **sets up a dictatorship** at Mitau. In November it finally begins to evacuate the region.
Nov. 10. **Conference of Esthonian delegates** at Yurev (Dorpat) attended also by delegates from Lithuania, Latvia (Livonia-Kurland), Finland, Poland, and Ukraine. Red delegates attend and make **drastic demands on Esthonia.**
Nov. 29. **Armistice,** made through the Allied commission, provides for retirement of all the German troops by December 13.

LUXEMBURG.

THIS, the only independent duchy in Europe, is situated between France, Belgium, and Germany. In 1384 it became a duchy, and its dukes several times occupied the imperial throne. It passed by turns to Burgundy, Spain, France, Austria, and again to France. After the fall of Napoleon, it was created a grand duchy and given to the Netherlands. On the rise of Belgium in 1830, half of it was assigned to the new kingdom.

The other half, now the duchy, was neutralized in 1867, and in 1890 its connection with the Netherlands was severed. A mountainous region, occupying an important strategic position, the possession of the duchy has long been coveted both by France and Germany.

The duchy of Luxemburg was occupied by the Germans in 1914 and until the close of the World War. By the Treaty of Versailles, Germany renounced all the rights she had gained to the exploitation of the railways and recognized that Luxemburg is no longer a member of the German Customs Union and accepts neutrality.

Government. The reigning princess is the executive, and there is a Chamber of Deputies of 48 elected by the cantons for six years, one half renewable every three years. In 1919 the duchy was formally continued by popular vote.

Industry and Labor. Mining and smelting are the most important occupations.

Religion and Education. All but 5,000 of the population are Roman Catholics. In addition to primary and secondary schools, Luxemburg has a seminary and one institute for the deaf and dumb.

The **area** is 999 square miles and the **population** (1916) was 263,824.

Chronology.

1551. Luxemburg is part of Spanish Netherlands.
1697. *Sept. 20.* By Treaty of Ryswick (Rijswijk) Luxemburg is restored to Spain.
1713–1714. By Treaties of Utrecht and Rastatt, ceded to Austria. [a department.
1795. *June 5.* Captured by French; organized as
1815. *June 9.* By Treaty of Vienna, **Luxemburg** raised to rank of a grand duchy and **given to king of the Netherlands;** fortress of Luxemburg to be occupied by Prussian troops for the German Confederation.
1830. *Aug. 1.* Luxemburg, except the capital, revolts against the king of the Netherlands.
1839. *April 19.* Ratification of Treaty of London (see BELGIUM). **Luxemburg divided;** western half becomes Belgian, eastern is restored to king of the Netherlands.
1842. *Feb. 8.* In spite of local opposition, Grand Duke William II. adheres to the German *Zollverein.*
1867. *March.* Napoleon III. negotiates for the purchase of Luxemburg, as offset to aggrandizement of Prussia. Danger of war between France and Prussia over this question.
May 11. Treaty of London; **Luxemburg** declared perpetually **neutral,** under "collective" **guarantee of** the powers.
1871. By treaty, Frankfurt railroad ceded to Germany; not to be used so as to endanger neutrality of Luxemburg. [duchy and Germany.
1872. *June 11.* Railroad convention between the
1890. *Nov. 23.* Death of king of the Netherlands; succeeded in Luxemburg by Adolph of Nassau.
1912. *Feb. 26.* Marie Adelaide succeeds as grand duchess.
1914. *Aug. 1–2.* **German troops occupy the duchy** in violation of its guaranteed neutrality, and continue in occupation during the World War.
1918. *Nov. 21.* United States troops enter the city of Luxemburg.
1919. *Jan. 9.* Luxemburg denounces railroad and *Zollverein* treaties with Germany. Agitators demand establishment of a republic.
Jan. 12. Marie Adelaide abdicates.
Jan. 15. **Charlotte Adelgonde** succeeds as **grand duchess.**
Sept. 28. Plebiscite results in favor of **retention of dynasty,** and of **economic alliance with France,** rather than with Belgium.
Oct. 26. Elections for the Chamber are held under *scrutin de liste* and proportional representation; **women vote.**

MADAGASCAR.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

MALAY STATES, FEDERATED.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65.

MALTA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 62.

MAURITIUS.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65.

MESOPOTAMIA.

THE plain through which flow the twin rivers, Tigris and Euphrates, extending from the mountains of eastern Asia Minor to the Persian Gulf, is the seat of some of the earliest empires. The flat plain was very early fertilized by irrigation waters from the rivers, and supported a large population, which developed immense cities with vast walls, temples, and public buildings. Two centers of intensive national life sprang up — Babylon near the present Bagdad, and Nineveh near the present Mosul.

About 2300 B. C. Babylon became a great commercial city. It was brought into relations with the rising Hittite power to the westward. About 1100 B. C. the Assyrians became powerful and for a time they held Babylon. Judea was drawn into the wars and conquests of this period. In 539 B. C. the Persians took Babylon, which had revived, and held Mesopotamia till the Persian Empire went down before Alexander (331 B. C.). The kingdoms set up by Alexander's generals and the rising nation of the Parthians contended for the region. The Romans long disputed the Parthian rule, and eventually, at the beginning of the third century A. D., came into possession of the valley, only to confront a revived Persian Empire, which for ages was the enemy of Rome's successor, the Byzantine Empire.

The rising tide of the new religion and the Mohammedan power in the eighth century prevailed over the Persians, and Bagdad became the capital of the eastern Mohammedans. In the thirteenth century the nomadic Arabs ruled the country and the canals fell out of use. In the seventeenth century the Turks became the masters, and did nothing to restore it to fertility. Just before the World War the Germans were pushing their project of a "Berlin-to-Bagdad" railroad which was to give them control of Asia Minor and Mesopotamia. During the war the country fell wholly into the hands of the English, who expect to keep it, lest it become a gateway toward India for enemies. There is no evidence that the inhabitants desire any rule except that of their own contending tribes.

The country contains valuable oil fields and could probably be made a cotton-producing region. The **area** is 143,250 square miles and the **population** is, according to the 1920 census, 2,849,282.

Chronology.

B. C. 3000–539. Mesopotamia is the seat of Babylonian and Assyrian civilization.
B. C. 539. Conquest of Babylon by Cyrus the Persian. During the following centuries Macedonians, Parthians, Romans, Sassanians, and Byzantines by turn control and contend for the region.
A. D. 762. **Bagdad founded;** chief city of Mesopotamia (Euphrates-Tigris Valley); capital of the caliphate and **center of the Islamic world.**
1258. **Bagdad captured by Mongols** and ceases to be the religious center of Mohammedanism. Canals abandoned and country loses importance.
1638. City and region become **part of Ottoman Turkish Empire.**
1798–1914. For British interests in Persian Gulf, see *Arabia,* under HEJAZ.
1845–1851. Layard's explorations in Assyrian ruins.

1888. Concession to a German company for a short railway east from Constantinople; beginning of the **"Berlin-to-Bagdad" plan** for German interest in Asia.

1899. *Nov. 27.* Concession to Germans to continue the Anatolian railway from Konia to Bagdad and Persian Gulf, with a branch to the Persian frontier. Further convention March 5, 1903. By 1914 the line extends from Constantinople to Karabunar in Cilicia, with various disconnected sections farther on.

1902. *Jan. 22.* Official **British** announcement of intention to preserve **ascendancy in the Persian Gulf;** repeated May 5, 1903.

1911. *Aug. 19.* Convention between Russia and Germany ("Potsdam agreement"), recognizing **German control of the Bagdad railway** in return for a free hand in building railways in Persia to link up with the Bagdad line.

1914. *June 29.* Official British announcement of agreement with Germany and Turkey for the German plan of railway to Busrah, but German line not to extend beyond that point toward the Persian Gulf. Further understanding with Turkey respecting British ascendancy in the Gulf and control of Koweit. Not made formal; World War intervenes.

Nov. 6. British Indian army begins the Mesopotamian campaign. On November 21 Busrah is occupied. Kurna is captured December 9.

1915. *Oct. 24.* **Great Britain** in agreement with Husein on **Syrian state** (see SYRIA) reserves provinces of Bagdad and Busrah.

Nov. 22–24. British advance repulsed below Bagdad; Townshend retreats to Kut-el-Amara, where on December 8, he is besieged by the Turks.

1916. *April 29.* **Townshend surrenders at Kut-el-Amara,** three relief expeditions having failed.

May 9. Secret agreements between Great Britain and France. Lower Mesopotamia (from Persian Gulf to a point north of Bagdad) assigned to the British; northerly portion an Arab state divided into British and French spheres.

1917. *Feb. 24.* **Kut-el-Amara reeaptured** by General Maude.

March 11. **Bagdad taken.** Economic restoration of the region goes steadily forward under British control. Busrah-Bagdad railroad completed.

1918. *Oct. 28–30.* Final operations in Mesopotamia; surrender of the Turkish force below Mosul. Mosul is occupied on November 14.

1919. Great Britain given a **mandate for Mesopotamia** by the Supreme Council at Paris.

1920. *May 11.* By peace treaty handed to Turkey, **Mesopotamia** is recognized as an **independent state with British mandate.**

MEXICO.

Historical Outline.

THE earliest Spanish discoverers learned that in the central plateau of southern North America lived a people who had a considerable degree of culture. This was the empire of the Aztecs under Montezuma, whose principal city was on an island in the lake of Tezcoco. Like the Peruvians in South America, the Aztecs had reached the upper stage of barbarism. They dwelt in vast communal houses of red stone coated with white stucco, which were divided into rooms by cedar partitions hung with tapestries. The city of Mexico was connected with the mainland by three stone causeways, each nearly five miles in length, and by a solid masonry aqueduct. The temple was surrounded by walls eight feet high and in the courtyard were twenty pyramids not far from one hundred feet in height, on which were offered human sacrifices to the war god. From this strategic position the Aztecs waged war and levied tribute upon the surrounding tribes and were able to oppose the Spanish conquests with some success by assembling an organized army.

By making an alliance with neighboring tribes who hated their Mexican masters and by taking advantage of the belief that the Spaniard was the God of Light, Cortes succeeded in obtaining an entry to the city (1519), from which, however, he was expelled in a memorable night battle. He reformed his forces and in 1521 after a terrible siege the city of Mexico surrendered, the Aztec empire was conquered, and the chieftain Montezuma was executed.

During the long colonial period, Mexico was the seat of the viceroyalty of New Spain, which included Guatemala, Manila, and Santo Domingo and was the center of the Spanish colonial power in North America. During this period four classes of population developed: the native Indians; the Creoles, of Spanish descent but Mexican birth; "Peninsulars," Spaniards born in Europe; mestizos, or half-breeds, who were crosses between the other classes and Indians. To these classes should be added the Negro slaves and the various crosses which resulted from their intermarriages with other races. The Spanish rule of Mexico was like that of the other Spanish colonies, and the Spanish language and culture and the Roman Catholic religion were introduced and material improvements made in the city of Mexico.

The overthrow of the Bourbons aroused the Mexicans and a revolution was started in 1810 under Morelos-Pavón. In 1813 a national congress was summoned and Mexico was declared independent, but the old government rallied, defeated the popular party and after three years of guerrilla warfare restored order. In 1820 a new revolution broke out under General Iturbide who captured the capital and in 1821 the last viceroy, O'Donojú, formally recognized the independence of Mexico. Iturbide declared himself emperor of Mexico. At the end of a year the empire gave way to a republic, proclaimed by López de Santa Anna.

No stable government was possible, and the land went through a series of revolutions. In 1836 the Anglo-Saxon settlers of Texas revolted and the forces of Santa Anna were defeated at San Jacinto. Texas therefore declared independence, which was recognized by the United States. In 1845 at her own request Texas was annexed to the Union. The transfer of Texas and the desire of the United States for California led to war between the United States and Mexico. General Zachary Taylor captured Monterey and defeated Santa Anna at Buena Vista while General Winfield Scott captured Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico. The war was terminated by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, by which Mexico gave up not only Texas but New Mexico and California as well.

In 1861 Spain, England, and France invaded Mexico in order to force a settlement of their claims for injuries against their citizens and property. Spain and England withdrew, but Napoleon III declared war upon Mexico, occupied the city, and established a so-called empire under Maximilian of Austria (1864). The United States protested against any attempt to found an empire against the will of the Mexicans; hence, the French troops were withdrawn, Maximilian was overwhelmed, and executed (1867).

After a period of prosperity under President Juárez, a full-blooded Indian, broken by occasional insurrections, General Porfirio Diaz led a revolt and secured the presidency in 1877. From this time until 1911 the development of Mexico was almost wholly the work of Diaz who was reëlected from time to time and permitted no rivals. Mexico made great progress in economic and material ways. Foreign capital was secured for railroads and mines by concessions and guarantees of bonds and some of the vast resources of the country were developed. Steps were taken to establish a stable currency on the gold standard, railways were built, and the harbor of Vera Cruz was improved. There were few insurrections of importance and a rebellion of Yaqui Indians, who had never been subdued since the Spanish conquest, was ended in 1907. But the political power was in the hands of a few who exploited the lower classes for their own benefit and pledged the resources of the country to foreign capitalists.

The long administration of Diaz came to an end in 1911 when a revolt headed by Francisco J. Madero spread over the northern section of the country. Diaz resigned and Madero was elected president. During the next two years there were rebellions against the Madero government in all parts of the country and on February 18, 1913, Madero was deposed and Victoriano Huerta proclaimed president. On February 23 Madero was shot, while being transferred from one prison to another by the order of Huerta, and although some of the rebel leaders submitted to Hnerta's government, the "Constitutionalists" maintained their resistance and won important victories.

The United States refused to recognize General Huerta, who refused to resign, declared himself dictator, and was then nominally elected president. In the meantime the Constitutionalists under General Francisco Villa won important victories.

The administration of President Wilson refused to recognize Huerta and followed a policy of "watchful waiting." In 1914 some American sailors were arrested and the Huerta government refused to apologize and salute the flag. American marines and sailors were landed at Vera Cruz and after some little fighting took possession of the city. The real purpose was to prevent military supplies from reaching Huerta. Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, the "A B C" states of South America, offered to mediate in the dispute, and a conference was held at Niagara Falls which attempted to settle the international complications and hoped to arrange the internal disputes of Mexico. However, as General Carranza, the first chief of the Constitutionalist forces, refused to consent to an armistice, little progress was made in the internal settlement.

The conference had some good effects, for it showed that the United States was actuated by no selfish motives, and did much to allay the feeling of resentment which the American occupation of Vera Cruz had aroused in the South American republics. Huerta gave up the struggle, resigned the presidency, and left the country. A period of anarchy and war followed, in which the city of Mexico changed hands four times. Finally, the conflict narrowed down to one between the forces of Carranza and Villa.

The United States formally recognized Carranza (October 19, 1915) and considerable progress was made in establishing order. Villa alone stood out in active, spasmodic warfare against the government. But Carranza was unable to control the bandits and Villa (March, 1916) attacked a United States post at Columbus, New Mexico. General Pershing led a punitive expedition into Mexico to capture Villa. It remained nearly a year without reaching Villa and was at last withdrawn (1917).

A revised constitution was promulgated February 5, 1917, which established, on paper at least, a democratic form of government and Carranza was chosen president. His policy was to establish law and order, to reform the disordered finances, and to restore the industries and credit of Mexico, in which task he subjected certain foreign interests to almost confiscatory taxation. He set himself against foreign concessions and interests, believing that much of Mexico's troubles have come from such intervention. During the World War the German residents and official representatives attempted to put obstacles in the way of obtaining petroleum, and Mexico was the seat of German plotting. Although Carranza himself was not accused of unneutral action, certain of his decrees were certainly favorable to Germany. In 1918 a new form of tax on oil wells aroused opposition in the United States.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of 1917 establishes a federal republic of states which manage their own local affairs, but are subject in national and international affairs to the control of the central government. The executive power is in a president elected by direct popular vote for a term of four years. The legislative power is in a congress consisting of a House of Representatives directly elected for two years by universal suffrage at the ratio of one member for every 60,000 inhabitants; and a Senate of 58 members, two for each state, elected in the same way as the deputies. In practice the states are subject to the national executive in office at the time.

Industry and Labor. Although Mexico has a fertile soil and one of the most favorable climates in the world, her agriculture and industry are backward. The principal products are corn, cotton, wheat, coffee, and a large output of sugar and molasses. The oil fields of Mexico are widely distributed and very important, and in spite of the disordered condition of the country, the production has increased from 12,000,000 barrels in 1911 to 80,000,000 in 1919. Mexico is rich in mines, yielding gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, and antimony.

Religion and Education. The prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic, but according to the new constitution of 1917 there is toleration for all religions and the church is separated from the state. To prevent ecclesiastical influence in politics it is provided that no religious body can acquire landed property. Education is free and obligatory and controlled by the national government in the Federal District and in the territories. Elsewhere it is regulated by the state authorities. In 1912 primary education was nominally extended so that it might reach the native population. The National University of Mexico, established in 1910, is situated in the city of Mexico.

The **area** of Mexico is 767,198 square miles. The census **population** of 1910 was 15,115,612 and the estimated population in 1912 was 15,501,684.

Chronology.

1517. Córdoba explores coast of Yucatan and discovers Maya culture.

1518. Grijalva trades along the coast as far as site of Vera Cruz.

1519. *February.* Velásquez, governor of Cuba, sends **Cortes** to make a settlement. Vera Cruz founded and Cortes **enters Mexico City** in November.

1520. *June 30.* Cortes obliged to retreat from Mexico City (*Noche triste;* Spanish, "Sad night").

1521. *Aug. 13.* Final **capture of Mexico City** by Cortes after a prolonged siege. Complete overthrow of Aztecs and foundation of a **Spanish colony.** Cortes made governor and captain general. He sends expeditions to the South Sea, and also into Central America, but Central America is not attached to Mexican government.

1535. Cortes superseded in civil power by a viceroy, **Mendoza; viceroyalty of New Spain.** Natives reduced to serfs, but gradually freed. Negro slavery never of much importance. Intermarriage of natives, Negroes, and Spanish produces complex mixture of races and castes. Clergy gain great influence.

1537. Lower California discovered.

1539–1542. Coronado explores the **southwestern** portion of the present **United States,** which becomes a part of New Spain.

1542–1543. Cabrillo and Ferrer sail along the **western coast** as far as Oregon; beginning of Spanish **claim.** This region also is attached to New Spain.

1598. Beginning of settlement of **New Mexico,** a province of New Spain.

1604. Acapulco becomes the port of Spanish Oriental and **Philippine trade,** and for transshipment of goods across Mexico to Vera Cruz. Used also for Peruvian trade. Great fairs at Vera Cruz and Acapulco.

1607. Beginning of drainage of the capital, which is subject to disastrous overflow from the surrounding lakes. System not completed until 1896.

1690. Beginning of Spanish settlement of **Texas,** a part of New Spain.

1767. *June 26.* Arrest and deportation of the Jesuits; Mexicans resent it.

1769. Beginning, at San Diego, of settlement of **California,** a province of New Spain.
Gálvez arrives in Mexico as *visitador general* (commissioner) to devise reforms in administration

1806–1807. Burr conspiracy and New Spain (see UNITED STATES).

1808. Influence of overthrow of Bourbons in Spain felt in New Spain. **Conditions favor revolt;** influence of example of United States and of French thought and revolution; Creole hatred of the Spanish ("Gachupine") oligarchical rule; Indian hatred of both Spanish and Creoles. Viceroy Iturrigaray shows a disposition to grant the Creoles a voice in the government. Gachupines overthrow him, which crystallizes spirit of revolt.

1810. Hidalgo, a priest, raises a **revolt of Indians** whose fanatic excesses prevent aid or sympathy from substantial elements of society. Hidalgo betrayed and executed (1811). Guerrilla war continues; López de Santa Anna and Iturbide gain prominence on royal side; Bravo, Victoria, Guerrero, and Morelos-Pavón on partisan side. Partisans subdued by 1819.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1819. *Feb. 22.* Treaty between Spain and United States (see UNITED STATES). **Territorial claims of New Spain limited** to region south of 42° and west of present Kansas and eastern line of Texas.

1821. *Feb. 24.* **Plan of Iguala.** Gachupines, especially the clergy, under Iturbide, fearing effect of liberal Spanish constitution on their privileges, conspire. Bases of new state were independence, old privileges (*fueros*), religious intolerance, limited monarchy under a Bourbon prince. O'Donojú, Spanish commander, yields August 24, and Iturbide enters Mexico City, September 27.

Sept. 3. Chiapas, part of captaincy general of Guatemala, joins Mexico. [tlement of **Texas.**

December. Beginning of Anglo-American set-

1822. *Jan. 5.* Rest of Central America proclaims union with Mexico.

July 21. **Iturbide** crowned **emperor,** Congress under military and mob pressure having elected him. Santa Anna, alienated by the emperor, starts a republican revolt, aided by Victoria, Guerrero, and Bravo. Army deserts the emperor.

1823. *Jan. 27.* Jackson commissioned first American minister to Mexico; does not accept. Poinsett, first actual minister, not sent until 1825.

March 19. **Iturbide abdicates.**

July 1. Central America, not including Chiapas, declares its separation from Mexico.

Nov. 23. New Congress meets. Inefficient but finally adopts a federal constitution, modeled chiefly on the United States constitution; those of Spain (1812) and of French Republic also drawn upon.

1824. *July 19.* Iturbide, who has returned to Mexico in spite of a prohibition, executed.

Oct. 4. Constitution of the **United States of Mexico** proclaimed. Oct. 10, **Victoria** becomes **president,** with dictatorial powers. Foundations for foreign complications laid by public loans, especially from British. Development of Federalist and Centralist (oligarchist and monarchist) parties.

1825. Santa Fe trail between the Missouri River and New Mexico opened; increases American interests in that portion of territory of Mexico.

1827. *December.* Revolt of aristocrats under Montaño and Vice President Bravo. Put down by Guerrero.

1828. Expulsion of Gachupines ordered by Congress. Many depart, Mexico losing a strong element somewhat like the American loyalists.

Jan. 12. Boundary treaty with United States, confirming treaty of 1819.

September. Presidential election. Guerrero, popular (Federalist), and Pedraza, moderate Federalist, but with Centralist support, the candidates. Pedraza declared elected. Santa Anna heads a revolt in favor of Guerrero. Acordada Insurrection at Mexico City, December 2, drives out Pedraza and Congress declares **Guerrero president.** Inaugurated April 1, 1829.

1829. Spanish army lands, but surrenders to Santa Anna. Last effort to reëstablish Spanish rule.

Sept. 16. **Abolition of slavery** proclaimed.

December. Vice President Bustamante deserts the Federalists and leads a Centralist revolt. Guerrero flees; captured and shot.

1830. *Jan. 1.* **Bustamante** assumes control. **Alamán** real head of government.

1832. Santa Anna "pronounces" for Pedraza. Ignoring Congress, he and Bustamante reach an agreement; the latter retires and **Pedraza installed** to finish Guerrero's term, December 26.

1833. *April 1.* **Farías,** vice president elect and radical Federalist, takes over the government and attempts economic and social reforms, attacking both army and church.

May 16. Santa Anna, president elect, assumes office and checks reforms. June 16, **Santa Anna** declared **dictator** by the army. He receives support of the Clericals and Centralists, ousts Congress, and drives Farías into exile.

1835. *Jan. 28.* Santa Anna retires on leave of absence; Barragán, *ad interim* successor, his puppet.

1836. *Feb. 27.* Barragán dies; Corro becomes acting president.

March 2. **Texas** declares **independence.** At battle of **San Jacinto,** April 21, Texans defeat and capture Santa Anna, and make good their claim to independence. They desire **annexation** to United States, but receive recognition only (March 3, 1837). Mexican irritation against United States increases, as northern republic is accused of supporting and promoting Texan action, as well as of desiring California.

Dec. 28. By treaty, Spain recognizes independence of Mexico.

Dec. 30. **Seven Laws** proclaimed; a centralized constitution, adopted by Congress.

1837. Papacy recognizes independence of Mexico, on the understanding that anticcclesiastical laws have been repealed.

April 19. **Bustamante** inaugurated **president** for eight years after an election. Finances in deplorable condition, army given all available cash to keep it loyal; chaotic political conditions amounting almost to anarchy.

1838. *March.* **French** squadron appears off the coast to enforce payment of claims (**Pastry War**). April 16, blockade proclaimed. Various revolts break out against the government. November 27–28, bombardment and capture of San Juan de Ulúa, the fortress of Vera Cruz. December 5, French occupy Vera Cruz. Santa Anna loses a leg in the fight, becomes again the national hero, and proceeds to undermine the president.

1839. *March 9.* Peace convention with France; certain payments promised.

April 11. After many delays, Mexico signs a **claims convention with United States.**

1841. *Sept. 28.* **Bases of Tacubaya** issued under Santa Anna's control; new Congress to draft a new constitution; meanwhile a provisional president. **Santa Anna** virtually **dictator again.** October 5, Bustamante submits and goes into exile. Corruption rampant.

1842. New Congress, not proving amenable, barred out and dissolved. New constitution, called **Organic Bases,** framed under Santa Anna's control.

1843. *Jan. 30.* Mexico evading payments under the awards of the American claims convention of 1839, a new convention grants her more indulgent terms, which she again fails to carry out.

July. Governor of California and other northern departments ordered to expel all Americans.

1844. *January.* **Santa Anna** becomes **president** under the new constitution, but suspends Congress, and loses control of the people through his graft and evident intention of ruling absolutely; the army revolts on December 6, and he **flees.** January 11, 1845, captured and **banished.**

1845. Herrera, president of the Council of State, becomes **acting president.** Reforms attempted, but fear of the army and church and approaching war with United States over Texas make conditions hopeless.

March 1. **American** Congress passes a joint resolution for **annexation of Texas.**

Nov. 30. Slidell, special American minister sent to reach a satisfactory settlement with Mexico, arrives at Vera Cruz. Mexican government refuses to receive him.

Dec. 29. Herrera overthrown by a revolt headed by **Paredes,** who becomes **temporary president.** New government reiterates the rejection of Slidell. [UNITED STATES.

1846–1848. For war with United States, see

1846. *May 20.* Discontent against Paredes breaks into revolt. To calm it Paredes starts to take the field against the Americans, leaving Vice President **Bravo** as acting executive. Aug. 6, Bravo yields to **Salas,** who has pronounced for Santa Anna.

Aug. 16. Santa Anna lands at Vera Cruz. His return has been permitted through the American blockade after an "understanding" with President Polk's representative. [stored.

Aug. 22. **Federal constitution** of 1824 re-

Sept. 17. **Santa Anna** appointed **commander in chief,** craftily refusing civil responsibilities. Salas continues acting executive with Farías as dictator. December 22, Congress, composed largely of radical Federalists (*Puros*), elects **Santa Anna president** *ad interim* and **Farías** vice president. Latter assumes **charge of administration.**

1847. *Jan. 11.* **Act** (called Law of January 11) to meet financial demands by **pledging** or selling **property of the church.** Rising, fostered by the church and an American agent, follows. March 23, Santa Anna returns from battle of Buena Vista and supersedes Farías. Santa Anna compromises with clergy and annuls the law. His prestige restored.

Sept. 16. **Santa Anna resigns** presidency and assigns executive power to a triumvirate, Peña y Peña, Herrera, and Alcorta. Peña y Peña becomes acting president. October 7, Santa Anna ordered to relinquish command and submit to a **military trial** because of reverses.

1848. *Feb. 2.* **Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo** with United States; California and New Mexico ceded, Rio Grande boundary recognized; United States to pay Mexico $15,000,000 and assume claims.

April. Santa Anna permitted by American and Mexican governments to leave the country.

April 29. President Polk of United States informs Congress that **Yucatan,** where the Indians are in revolt, considers itself independent and desires protection or **annexation** to United States, which he favors, especially as British intervention is feared. No action taken. Indians do not submit until 1853.

June 3. **Herrera** inaugurated **president.** Financial and other reforms attempted.

July. Paredes, who has been in revolt, defeated. He leaves the country.

1851. *Jan. 15.* **Arista** constitutionally succeeds as **president,** carrying on Herrera's policies.

Jan. 25. Convention with United States for construction of a canal on the Tehuantepec route. Ratified, but denounced by Mexican Congress in 1852. [of Santa Anna.

1852. *Sept. 13.* Blancarte starts a revolt for recall

1853. *Jan. 5.* Arista resigns; Chief Justice Ceballos becomes head. He dissolves Congress as first movement in a peace plan, but resigns himself, February 7. Military leaders elevate Lombardini, a stop-gap until **Santa Anna** is elected **president,** March 17.

Sept. 21. **Santa Anna, again dictator,** centralizes the government. State militia system also submerged. However, internal improvements and education are fostered. [STATES).

Dec. 8. **Gadsden Purchase** (see UNITED

Dec. 16. Santa Anna issues a decree prolonging his dictatorship indefinitely and bestowing title of "Most Serene Highness" on himself.

1854. *March 1.* **Plan of Ayutla** issued by revolutionists; grievances of Santa Anna's despotism recited, basis for a provisional government eliminating him. **Álvarez** becomes head of the movement, which makes headway quickly.

1855. *Aug. 9.* **Santa Anna** leaves the capital, after appointing a triumvirate to succeed him. City proclaims the plan of Ayutla, August 13. Santa Anna **leaves the country,** August 17, never to regain power. **Álvarez** becomes acting president under the plan; September 24, he orders an assembly of delegates who elect him president *ad interim,* October 4. Liberal **reforms attempted;** clergy and army hostile. December 11, Álvarez surrenders office to **Comonfort,** who continues efforts for reform.

1856. *June 28.* **Ley Lerdo,** striking at mortmain, and permitting tenants of ecclesiastical and civil corporations to become owners of their leased land. Church revolts at Puebla, but reactionists defeated by end of year.

1857. *Feb. 12.* New **federal constitution** promulgated, drafted by constituent assembly. Much borrowed from United States Constitution; privileges (*fueros*) of clergy and army abolished, equality before the law a fundamental right, bill of rights. Comonfort continues in power under plan of Ayutla until government is organized under new constitution.

Oct. 8. Meeting of first Congress under new constitution. **Comonfort** elected regular **president,** installed December 1. Already conservative reaction has set in. December 17, **Plan of Tacubaya** issued to set aside the constitution and restore Comonfort's dictatorial power pending forming of a new one. Congress declares Comonfort's presidency at an end. December 18, **Zuloaga** enters capital and dissolves Congress.

1858. *Jan. 19.* Chief Justice **Juárez,** a full-blooded Indian, becomes head of the constitutional government, Comonfort having ended his vacillation by surrendering authority to him as the person legally entitled to receive it. February 7, Comonfort goes into exile.

Jan. 23. Zuloaga chosen president by reactionists under plan of Tacubaya. Civil war and virtual anarchy for three years.

Dec. 23. Zuloaga resigns following revolts among his own followers. January 30, a junta elects **Miramón** his successor.

1859. *July 12.* Juárez decrees confiscation and **nationalization of property of the clergy;** he follows it by other decrees for civil marriage, separation of church and state, control of cemeteries, and abolition of mission to the Vatican.

1859 (*continued*).

Dec. 14. **Draft treaty** and convention between **United States** and Juárez on transit and commerce and "to enforce treaty stipulations." Earlier efforts under Southern pressure for more territory from Mexico abandoned; but for money payment and assumption of claims Mexico grants right of transit by Tehuantepec and other routes. Protection by United States and **right of intervention.** American Senate declines to ratify agreements.

1860. *Dec. 22.* Decisive **victory of Juárez** over Miramón. Mexico City occupied; Miramón flees.

1861. *May 9.* Second Congress under constitution of 1857 assembles. June 11, **Juárez** declared elected **president;** inaugurated June 15.

Oct. 31. London Convention by **Great Britain, France, and Spain** for joint **intervention** to enforce claims in Mexico. United States refuses to join, while giving warning of seeing that its own rights are not injured. December 14, Vera Cruz occupied by the allied forces. Reactionists rally to the invaders.

1862. *April 22.* British and Spanish forces retire from Mexico because of evident French intention to turn the intervention into a conquest. **France begins war** on Juárez's government.

1863. *June 10.* French occupy Mexico City. Juárez retires to the north and continues the fight. **Almonte,** Salas, and the Archbishop of Mexico become provisional executive under the French.

July 8. Appointed assembly meets. July 11, assembly promulgates decree for a hereditary Catholic **monarchy,** with **Maximilian,** brother of the emperor of Austria, as **emperor of Mexico.**

1864. *April 10.* **Maximilian accepts the crown** (under French guarantees). He and his consort land at Vera Cruz, May 29, and enter Mexico City, June 12. His **policy** is conciliatory and liberal, but supported only by French arms and finances and unable to harmonize factions. Church disaffected by decree of religious freedom. Juárez holds out in spite of continued reverses.

1865. United States, freed from the Civil War, becomes **peremptory** in demand for **withdrawal of French forces.** American army sent to Mexican border.

1866. *April.* Napoleon orders withdrawal of French troops, to begin in November. Republican forces advance as French withdraw.

1867. *February.* **French evacuate Mexico City;** Mexican soil cleared of them by March 12.

June 19. **Maximilian,** refusing to leave, is overwhelmed and captured; **executed** by the Republicans.

Dec. 19. **Juárez** again elected **president.** Minor revolts continue but make little headway.

1868. Restoration of diplomatic relations with Europe begins. Measures decreed for payment of British and Spanish claims.

1871. *Oct. 12.* None of the three presidential candidates (Juárez, Diaz, Lerdo de Tejada) receiving the required majority, Congress **reëlects Juárez.** Followers of Diaz (Porfiristas) revolt; Diaz issues a manifesto, November 8. Not successful, but yet not crushed.

1872. *July 18.* Juárez dies; **Lerdo,** by right of his chief justiceship, succeeds as **president.** Diaz submits, October 26, amnesty being proclaimed. Lerdo elected by Congress, regularly inaugurated, December 1.

1873. *Jan. 1.* Opening of the railroad between Vera Cruz and the capital.

May 29. **Reform laws** as additions to constitution of 1857; separation of church and state, freedom of religion, marriage a civil contract, no monastic orders. Incorporated in constitution, September 25. Efforts of clergy to arouse old-time fanatic disturbances as protest fail.

1876. *Jan. 15.* **Plan of Tuxtepec** promulgated, denouncing Lerdo for usurpations and centralism and pronouncing for Diaz.

Jan. 31. Joint American-Mexican claims commission under convention of 1868 finishes its work.

Oct. 26. Lerdo fraudulently declared reëlected. **Ingleslas,** as chief justice, ignores the election and assumes provisional presidency himself. Diaz defeats the Lerdistas, November 16, at Tecoac. Lerdo flees the country, January 25, 1877.

Nov. 28. **Diaz** assumes the executive power.

1877. *Jan. 17.* Inglesias, refusing to accept Diaz, but unable to resist, goes into exile.

May 2. **Diaz** declared elected constitutional **president;** inaugurated May 5. Hostile movements continue for some years, but are suppressed. Economic advancement, improved foreign relations and social progress, but public finances weak.

1878. *May 5.* Constitutional amendment **prohibits reëlection** of a **president.** [France.]

1880. *October.* Diplomatic relations resumed with]

Dec. 1. **González** succeeds Diaz as **president.**

1882. *July 29.* **Convention** with United States permitting **troops to cross the border** in pursuit of Indians. Frequently renewed.

Sept. 27. Boundary treaty with Guatemala, which, however, does not end the controversy.

1883. *Jan. 20.* **Reciprocity** convention **with United States.** Ratified and proclaimed in 1884, but American Congress fails to pass necessary legislation and it ceases to be operative, May 20, 1887.

1884. *April 10.* Opening of Mexican Central Railroad between Mexico City and El Paso, giving rail connection with United States. [ish-held debt.]

November. Convention for conversion of Brit-

Dec. 1. **Diaz** inaugurated for a second term. By repeated reëlections he continues **president until 1911;** period of relative **internal peace,** promoted by Diaz's organization of the *guardias rurales* (rural guards) made up of men who had formerly been bandits; greatly increased financial and economic progress with much development of resources through foreign concessions. Government, while preserving the forms of federalism and constitutionalism, virtually central and personal. Heavy taxation of lower classes, land monopoly, and corruption cause discontent, which, however, is long unable to make headway.

1887. *Oct. 28.* Constitutional amendment to **permit reëlection** of a **president** to successive terms.

1888. *Dec. 1.* Diaz begins his third term, being eligible under the amendment of 1887.

1889. *Oct. 2.* First Pan-American Congress opens at Washington (see UNITED STATES).

1892. *Dec. 1.* Diaz begins his fourth term.

1893. Various rebellious uprisings occur, but are put down; some concessions granted.

1895. Indian uprising in Yucatan: Mayas resent white settlement.

April 1. Through American mediation the Mexican-Guatemalan boundary dispute settled and armed conflict avoided.

1896. *Dec. 1.* Diaz begins his fifth term.

1897. *June.* Yaqui Indians, unsubdued since Spanish conquest, agree to a treaty with Diaz.

1900. *Dec. 1.* Diaz's sixth inauguration.

1901. Restoration of diplomatic intercourse with Austria, broken off since execution of Maximilian.

Oct. 22. Second **Pan-American Congress** meets at Mexico City. Project adopted for voluntary arbitration and International Bureau of American Republics (later **Pan-American Union**) organized with seat at Washington.

1904. *May 6.* Because of Diaz's age, a constitutional amendment adopted restoring office of **vice president.** Terms of president and vice president made six years.

Dec. 1. Diaz begins his seventh term as president. **Corral** installed as vice president. Liberal sentiment in antagonism to centralized and autocratic power develops more rapidly as the election of Corral indicates the perpetuating of personal rule and its attendant corruption.

1907. *Jan. 23.* **Railroad across Tehuantepec** Isthmus opened. Ambitious plan for a ship railway, devised by Eads, has never been carried out.

1910. *September.* Celebration of **centenary of** declaration of **independence.**

Nov. 22. **Madero,** a Liberal, who has been a presidential candidate against Diaz, arrested for sedition until after the election and then ordered to leave the country; proclaims a **provisional government.** Revolt in north makes progress.

Dec. 1. Diaz and Corral inaugurated.

1911. *March 7.* Because of the Mexican rebellion, American troops ordered to the border to check filibustering and fighting on American side of the line. Diaz fears intervention and makes concessions, then negotiates with the rebels.

May 18. Peace proclaimed, Madero having agreed to the government's proposals of surrender.

May 25. **Diaz resigns** and goes into exile. De la Barra, with Madero's support, elected by Congress provisional president. Madero the real head.

Nov. 6. **Madero** inaugurated **president** after having received a unanimous electoral vote. Suárez vice president. Reyes, opposing candidate at popular election (October 11), withdraws. Disturbed conditions continue. Rebels in south under **Zapata** keep the field. Reyes attempts a revolt in December, but fails and surrenders.

1912. Zapata continues in revolt in the south throughout the year. Madero finds it impossible to control his followers and secure the peace necessary for his program of reforms. Property and lives of foreigners, especially Americans, endangered and lost in the disturbances.

Feb. 12. Orozco, a Madero leader, revolts and captures Ciudad Juárez.

March 2. President Taft of United States warns American citizens against taking part in the Mexican disturbances.

March 14. Taft, under authority of a joint resolution of Congress of same date, puts an **embargo on** export of **arms** or war supplies **to Mexico.** Later modified to permit supplies to Madero.

Oct. 16. Felix Diaz, nephew of the ex-president, heads a new rebellion against Madero. Surrenders, Oct. 23. Sentence of execution commuted.

1913. *Feb. 7.* Military cadets at **Mexico City mutiny** and liberate Reyes and Felix Diaz. Reyes killed in subsequent street fighting. Huerta, Madero's commander in chief, goes over to the rebels, who **arrest Madero** and Suárez, February 18. **Huerta** proclaimed **provisional president.** February 19, Orozco and other opponents of Madero adhere to new government.

Feb. 23. **Madero and Suárez shot.** Huerta personally responsible.

March 26. **Constitutionalists** repudiate the provisional government and start a counter-revolt under **Carranza. Villa** is one of his officers. **Revolt,** like Madero's, fundamentally an **agrarian** one. Constitutionalists gain possession of much of the north during the year. Zapata also continues his depredations.

Aug. 10. **Lind** arrives in Mexico City as personal representative of President Wilson to **mediate for restoration of peace** with **elimination of Huerta,** whom Wilson refuses to recognize, though accredited by various European nations. Lind fails; Huerta declines to be eliminated.

Aug. 27. Wilson addresses Congress on the Mexican situation, stating his policy of "**watchful waiting.**"

Oct. 10. **Huerta** executes a **coup d'état,** arresting 110 congressmen and dissolving Congress.

Oct. 26. Farcical election under **Huerta's** plan, results in his **election as president.** Wilson declines to recognize it as legal. Felix Diaz resigns from the army and later seeks refuge abroad.

Nov. 15. New Congress refuses to consider presidential election constitutional, but continues Huerta as provisional president.

1914. Constitutionalists continue their successes. Huerta's government, mainly because of lack of American recognition, cannot get funds, and is obliged to resort to drastic measures, including a moratorium and defaults on interest payments.

Feb. 3. Wilson **lifts embargo** on munition exports to Mexico; this aids Constitutionalists.

April 9. **American naval men** ashore at Tampico for supplies **arrested.** Released next day. American admiral demands as partial reparation salute to American flag, which Huerta refuses.

April 21. **American marines occupy Vera Cruz** because of Tampico incident, and by seizure of the customhouse attempt to prevent landing of cargo of arms for Huerta from Germany. Mexicans oppose the marines; casualties on both sides.

April 22. American **Congress supports** the **Vera Cruz occupation** by authorizing use of force against Mexico.

April 23. American **embargo** on war supplies for Mexico **restored.**

April 25. Representatives of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile at Washington offer their good services on Mexican difficulties (A B C **mediation**). Accepted by Wilson and Huerta, but **Carranza refuses to suspend hostilities.**

April 30. American army under Funston takes over possession of Vera Cruz from the navy.

May 20. Sessions of A B C representatives regarding mediation begin at Niagara Falls. Carranza not represented until June 12. June 24, mediators announce plan for a provisional government established by agreement of Huertista and Constitutionalist delegates, which United States should recognize without demanding satisfaction for Tampico affair. Huerta and United States approve this protocol; never made active.

July 4. Torreón Conference of Constitutionalists called to consider A B C protocol and breach between Carranza and Villa. Protocol rejected; breach healed for the time being. Constitutionalists continue their victories.

July 15. **Huerta resigns** and leaves the country. Carbajal provisional president; he fails to reach an agreement with the Constitutionalists.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *August.* At outbreak of World War many Germans and large German investments in Mexico, and much **German sympathy** from Mexicans.

Aug. 15. **Constitutionalists** under Obregón **occupy the capital.** Carranza arrives, August 20, and assumes provisional presidency. Enmities within Constitutionalist ranks at once become active; Carranza rules arbitrarily.

September. Zapata resumes his depredations near Mexico City. Orozco and others lead revolts; and **Villa,** September 23, **declares war** on his chief, demanding that Carranza be eliminated from candidacy for public office.

Oct. 10. Convention at Aguascalientes of delegates chosen by Constitutionalist soldiers. Assumes sovereign powers. Villa and Zapata delegates dominate. October 30, convention decrees retirement of Carranza and Villa, and, November 2, elects Gutiérrez provisional president. Neither Villa nor Carranza willing to retire.

Nov. 23. **American troops withdrawn** from Vera Cruz.

Nov. 24. Carranza withdraws from Mexico City; Zapata occupies it. December 3, Gutiérrez takes possession. Villa dominates the government and holds northern Mexico; Carranza holds southern portion.

1915. *Jan. 16.* Convention disowns Gutiérrez, who flees, and makes González Garza provisional president in name; itself the real ruler.

Jan. 28. Obregón, Carranza's general, compels the convention to leave Mexico City.

March 10. Zapatistas drive Obregón from the capital. **Fighting continues** in northern Mexico with indecisive results, but with **violation of American rights.**

June 2. Wilson warns the factions that the United States will intervene to bring about order, if not otherwise accomplished speedily.

June 9. Convention deposes González Garza and makes Lagos Chazaro figurehead

July 10. Carranza occupies Mexico City again; evacuates it July 17, and Zapatistas reoccupy it July 18. August 3, the **capital again occupied by Carranza,** who continues to hold it thereafter, meanwhile enlarging his control in central and northern Mexico.

Aug. 5. Pan-American Union delegates representing seven states appeal to the Mexican factions to hold a peace conference. Villa accepts, Carranza rejects the appeal.

Oct. 19. **United States recognizes Carranza** as head of *de facto* government, following a unanimous vote by the seven Pan-American delegates in his favor. Great Britain and other powers as well as the Pan-American ones recognize him.

Dec. 20. Most of the Villistas surrender to Carranza. Villa continues in the field as head of a bandit force and is outlawed.

1916. *Jan. 11.* Villa stops a train at Santa Isabel, takes from it 19 Americans, mostly mining engineers, and shoots them. February 17, Wilson reports to the American Senate that during 1913–1915, 76 **Americans** had been **killed in Mexico;** and during the same period 20 American civilians, 16 American soldiers, and 62 Mexicans had been killed on American side of the border.

March 9. **Raid** of Villistas **on Columbus,** New Mexico; eight American soldiers and nine civilians killed.

March 15. **American punitive expedition** under Pershing crosses into Mexico in pursuit of Villa. Carranza, after raising objections, gives conditioned consent and promise of coöperation. Some bands dispersed, but Villa not captured. April 12, clash between Americans and Carranza's troops at Parral. **Carranza** on same day **demands withdrawal** of American troops. Troops not withdrawn, but no further active operations.

May 2. Following a conference at El Paso of American commanders with Obregón, Carranza's minister of war, conditional agreement to withdraw troops is reached.

May 5. Villistas make another raid across the border, killing three soldiers and two civilians. American soldiers pursue far into Mexican territory. Wilson, May 9, orders out militia of border States and sends more regulars to the region.

May 22. Carranza renews his protest against presence of American troops on Mexican soil. This and other evidences of hostilities lead Wilson, June 18, to order all the National Guard to mobilize for service on the Mexican border.

June 20. American reply to Carranza's protest **refuses flatly to withdraw** American troops. Carranza troops treacherously attack and kill or capture an American detachment at Carrizal. June 25, United States demands release of the prisoners. Complied with, June 29.

July 1. American Congress authorizes president to draft National Guard into Federal service.

Sept. 4. Conference of a **joint commission** of American and Mexican delegates begins.

Oct. 22. Elections for a constituent assembly; voting limited to supporters of *de jacto* government. Assembly convenes, December 1.

Nov. 24. Joint commission reaches an agreement on withdrawal of American troops and patrol of border. Carranza refuses to approve.

1917. *Feb. 4.* Last of **American troops withdrawn** from Mexico.

Feb. 5. **Revised constitution promulgated;** president and bicameral congress elected by universal male and female suffrage; radical democratic provisions such as justice without cost, minimum wage, compulsory arbitration, profit-sharing, eight-hour day; severe measures against Catholic and Protestant churches; agrarian reform, but not so radical as expected; regulation of foreign capital, all national resources public property.

Feb. 28. Publication of dispatch (dated January 19) by German foreign office to ambassador at Mexico, urging that Mexico make war on the United States (see UNITED STATES).

May 1. **Carranza** inaugurated **president** (election under official pressure, March 11). He also controls Congress.

1918. Raids by Villa and other bandits continue, including some across the border with retaliation by American forces and loss of life. Mexico believed to be under **German influence,** but neutrality is preserved.

Feb. 19. Decree placing heavy **taxes on foreign-owned oil** lands and contracts, which hamper operations of the Allies. **Protests and warnings** by American and British governments against confiscatory measures. Some modification.

May 24. **Diplomatic relations with Cuba severed,** probably to show pro-German sympathy.

June 7. Notable **address by Wilson** to Mexican editors on visit in United States; sincere helpful friendship, no interference in internal settlement, no forcible "big-brother" attitude, but **Pan-Americanism by agreement and coöperation.**

1919. *April 10.* Zapata, southern bandit, killed. Felix Diaz operates against the government in the southeast.

April 23. Official statement that Carranza does not recognize the Monroe Doctrine.

June 14. American troops cross the border at El Paso and disperse a body of Villistas operating against Ciudad Juárez. Carranza protests, possibly *pro forma.*

June 28. By Treaty of Versailles **Mexico omitted from** list of neutral nations invited to join the **League of Nations.**

July. Conditions show a **weakening of Carranza's control.** Four or more rebellious forces in the field against him. Report of 317 outbreaks of disorder against him between April and July. Associates in the victory of the Constitutionalists alienated, especially Obregón. Finances in precarious condition. **Outrages on Americans** and their property **continue.**

July 22. State Department of United States threatens a "radical change of policy" unless outrages cease. Carranza's reply, July 28, elusive; caustic reference to disturbances in United States.

July 25. **American embargo** against export of arms and munitions to Mexico **tightened.**

Aug. 18. Bandits capture and hold for ransom two American aviators. Ransom paid by American army authorities and later repaid by Carranza. **Unsuccessful punitive expedition** crosses the border after the bandits.

Oct. 19. **Abdurtion of Jenkins,** American consular agent at Puebla. Released on payment of ransom, he is arrested for connivance in his own abduction in order to discredit the government. American government demands his release, November 20. Released, December 4, after a motion to sever diplomatic intercourse is introduced in American Senate. Jenkins threatened with expulsion; exequatur revoked.

Nov. 26. **Execution,** after capture and trial by court-martial, **of Angeles,** whom Villa had proclaimed president.

Dec. 24. Ban against export of arms to Mexico made yet stronger by American government.

1920. *Jan. 1.* Export duty on crude oil made 10 per cent; with lighter duty on refined oil.

Jan. 12. Decree for small-denomination paper money on deposit of gold; due to shortage of change from hoarding and melting of silver coin.

Feb. 11. First **United States-Mexico Trade Conference** opens in Mexico City; 125 American representatives attend.

MONACO.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF MONACO has an area of eight square miles. It is the smallest state in Europe. It is inclosed between the French department of Alpes-Maritimes and the Mediterranean. The population is 22,956. There is no elective assembly, the prince acting as absolute master. Its reputation is due to its casino, which is the gambling center of Europe. A joint-stock company controls the gaming tables, having obtained a concession which does not expire until 1947. The company pays the prince $400,000 annually, besides occasional bonuses which run into the millions. In reality Monaco is a dependency of France.

1327. Ranier II as head of Monaco, a feudal possession of the **Grimaldi family,** begins the regular succession of princes. His son, Charles I., acquires Menton and Roquebrune.

1524. Allegiance transferred from France to Spain.

1641. Allegiance returned to France.

1793. *Feb. 14.* Monaco formally annexed by the French National Convention.

1814. *May 30.* By Treaty of Paris region restored to Grimaldis. 1815, by Congress of Vienna placed under protection of Sardinia. [is resumed.]

1860. *March 14.* **French protection** of Monaco

1861. **Monte Carlo** is leased as a **gambling resort;** thenceforward the profits are sole revenues of the country. [France.]

Feb. 2. Menton and Roquebrune sold to

1911. *Jan. 7.* A **constitution** with representative government proclaimed.

1914. Monaco protectorate of France and associate during **World War.** [left in Europe.] Prince of Monaco one of the few titular sovereigns

MONTENEGRO.

See under JUGO-SLAVIA, page 123.

MOROCCO.

Historical Outline.

TECHNICALLY and geographically Morocco is the westward extension of Algeria, but it is the home of a diverse population — Berbers, Arab-Bedouins, Moors, Jews, and Negroes. Morocco was the last of the North African countries to fall before the Moslem invasion of the seventh century. In 1058 an independent kingdom was founded on what had been the dominion of the caliphs. At the middle of the seventeenth century Ali Shereef, born in Arabia, gained ascendancy and founded the dynasty of the Alides. Morocco was one of the group of north African states from which came the Barbary pirates over whom a victory was won by the United States a century ago. Christian slavery was abolished and piracy suppressed. From 1859 to 1873 there was war with Spain, and Morocco was obliged to pay an indemnity and to surrender territory and certain commercial advantages.

Sultan Mulai-Abd-el-Aziz succeeded in 1904. His reign was troubled and full of confusion. Brigands infested the land, and an American citizen, Perdicaris, was captured and held for ransom by the bandit leader Raisuli, which led President Roosevelt to dispatch a squadron to Tangier and demand "Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead." Great Britain and France negotiated a joint convention for the policing of Morocco, April 8, 1904; but Germany was greatly irritated by this and maintained that the German commercial interests demanded protection. On March 31, 1905, the German emperor landed at Tangier and antagonized the French policy in a public address.

This resulted in the calling of a conference at Algeciras, Spain, January 15, 1906, in which the United States had great influence. The result was a convention for the joint control of Morocco by France and Spain. Acting upon this, **Casablanca** was **bombarded** by French and Spanish vessels and occupied by French troops, to the wrath of Germany. In 1908 relations were strained by the arrest of certain German deserters who were members of the French foreign legion, and the matter was submitted to the Hague Tribunal for arbitration. Revolts occurred in 1911, and in 1912 a French protectorate was established over Morocco, assented to in the Franco-Spanish treaty by which Tangier was declared international. The French protectorate was recognized by Great Britain also in 1914, and reaffirmed by the Peace Treaty of 1919.

Organization.

Government. The government is in the hands of a sultan, who is absolute and irresponsible save as affected by foreign influence and fear of revolution. Since 1912, however, the sultan is obliged to follow the advice of the French resident-general, who is appointed by the French minister of foreign affairs. There is a grand vizier, who also is under the control of the French resident-general, and a minister of finance who acts under the control of the French director-general of finance.

Production and Industry. Agriculture is in a primitive state, but the soil is suitable for agricultural production. Grapes and a great variety of fruits are grown, and in 1911 cotton was introduced. The fisheries are very valuable, especially the sardine and tunny fisheries. There are rich but little developed mineral deposits of copper, iron, lead, antimony, sulphur, silver, gold, and petroleum. In 1917 the imports amounted to over $70,000,000 and the exports to $25,000,000.

The **area** is about 231,500 square miles and the **population** may be roughly estimated at 6,000,000.

Chronology.

1649. Establishment of present (Filali) dynasty.

1769. Portuguese expelled from Mazagan, their last possession. Policy adopted of as **little intercourse** as possible **with foreigners;** but in common with other Barbary powers, Morocco **preys on commerce,** makes **slaves** of white persons, and demands **tribute.** This lasts until about 1820.

1844. **War with France** over Algerian boundary; treaty on March 18, 1845. [claims.]

1851. French bombard Sale to secure settlement of

1859. *Oct. 22.* **Spain declares war,** captures and holds Tetuán. [demnity of $20,000,000 paid.]

1860. *April 26.* **Peace treaty with Spain;** in-

1894. *June 7.* **Mulai-Abd-el-Aziz** becomes **sultan;** his predilection for foreign ways and reforms makes him **unpopular.**

1902. *September.* Revolt in behalf of the sultan's brother, Mohammed; sultan seeks French aid.

1904. *April 8.* **Anglo-French agreement** on paramountcy of French interests in Morocco (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

May 18. Shereef **Raisuli,** who controls region around Tangier and kidnaps foreigners for ransom, takes one **Perdicaris,** an American. American squadron is sent to Tangier, but Perdicaris is released, June 24, when sultan yields to Raisuli's demands. Secretary Hay secures results through French channels.

Habitations of Mankind.

1. Interior of Eskimo Hut. Owing to the excessive heat generated by the oil lamp in these small snow houses, the inhabitants as a rule discard all clothing in their huts. They mostly live in polyandry.
2. Greenlanders. Eskimos. Moss-covered hut and circular snow house in background.
3. Ostyak Hut. Ostyak in winter costume; Northern Siberia.
4. Fuegian Hut. Natives in front. Though the cold of the climate is intense, the natives go about nearly nude, shifting a sealskin robe, fastened around their neck, from one side to the other, according to the direction of the wind.
5. Arab Tent. Tunis.
6. Kirghiz Tent. Western Siberia. Owner, a man of means. Bride on horseback.
7. Kurdish Tent. Western Asia, Kurdistan.
8. Sioux Indian Tent.
9. Pueblo Dwelling. Built of adobe—sun-dried brick. See *Carl Eikmeyer, "Among the Pueblo Indians," Nordenskjöld, "Cliff Dwellers," "Fifteenth Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology," Washington*, from which latter the figure of the Kachina Mask No. 9*a* is copied. Figure in doorway is a Taos Indian. Woman with child is from a Hopi village.
10, 11, and 12. Mambu Huts. Central Africa. Women at work constructing dwelling; sick man and sorcerers in front of huts.
13. Guahariba Huts. Amazon River.
14. Sambioa Hut. Central Brazil; after Paul Ehrenreich.
15. Kamayura House. Bororo Cazik, in front Kamayura woman carrying seven-year-old child on hip; after Karl von den Steinen, "*Unter den Naturvölkern Central Brasiliens.*"
16. House in Malbato. Island of Luzon, Philippines.
17. House from Village of Pertoemboken. Island of Sumatra.
18. Communal House of the Bahnars. Savages of the South of Anam.
19. Aërial Dwelling. Memiaou, New Guinea.
20. Tree Dwellers. East Coast of New Guinea. At the foot of the tree two women mourners in front of the House of the Dead; Kalo, Kemp Welch River.
21. Lake Dwellers. Sowek, New Guinea.
22. Anamese Floating Village.
23. Skye Crofter's House. Scotland.
24. Modern American Dwelling House.
25. Modern Business House. "Sky scraper."

For description see previous page.

HABITATIONS OF MANKIND—SAVAGE, BA

ROUS, SEMI-CIVILIZED, AND CIVILIZED.

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1904 (*continued*).

Oct. 3. **Franco-Spanish agreement** on interests in Morocco (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1905. Germany and Morocco (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1906. Algeciras Convention (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1907. *July 31.* **Raisuli kidnaps Sir Harry Maclean,** commander of the sultan's bodyguard Great Britain pays ransom of $100,000, most of which Raisuli is later forced to refund.

August. French, Spanish coöperating, bombard and occupy Casablanca, following attacks by tribesmen.

1908. *Jan. 4.* **Mulai-Abd-el-Hafid,** in revolt against his brother, is proclaimed **sultan** at Fez. Mulai-Abd-el-Aziz gives up the struggle in August, and Hafid is again proclaimed sultan at Tangier on August 23.

Sept. 25. Arrest by French of German deserters from the French Foreign Legion leads to German demands, but matter is arbitrated.

1909. *Feb. 9.* Franco-German agreement (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

July 19. Moorish tribesmen attack Spanish at Melilla. By convention of November 16, Spanish control is increased.

1911. Franco-German controversy and convention (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

June 5. Spanish land at El Araish and occupy district behind it.

1912. *March 30.* **French protectorate** is established by treaty. Powers recognize it. Treaty is followed by native outbreak and attack on Fez, with massacres.

Aug. 14. **Mulai Yusef** proclaimed **sultan,** his brother having abdicated on a French pension.

Nov. 27. **Franco-Spanish convention;** Spanish protectorate within defined boundaries (Mediterranean coastal region, Er Rif), French protectorate over rest, except Tangier, which is internationalized. Plan does not work smoothly.

1913. *Oct. 15.* Organization of new **French judicial system** intended to replace the exterritorial jurisdiction of consular courts. Various nations accept it, and it is imposed on Germany and Austria by the peace treaties of 1919.

1914. *May 9.* French occupation of Taza makes possible junction of Moroccan and Algerian interests, and promotes extension of **railway** joining Fez with coast at Rabat eastward to union with Algerian lines.

1914–1918. Various revolts during the World War, due largely to **German intrigue;** neutral Spanish protectorate complicates matters.

1919. *June 28.* By Treaty of Versailles, Germany makes a complete surrender of all interests and special rights in Morocco.

NATAL.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 66.

NEPAL.

NEPAL is one of the so-called "independent" states in the Himalayas, on the borders of British India. It stretches, a narrow mountainous belt, for 500 miles between Tibet and India as far east as Sikkim. The goverument is a military oligarchy, and the prime minister, who holds the rank of a British lieutenant general, has all the power. The regular army numbers 30,000, and there is an irregular force of about the same number.

This is the land of the famous Gurkhas, who invaded Tibet, and carried on war with China and India. Since the Treaty of Segauli in 1816, a British resident has lived at Katmandu, the capital, and the relations of the Gurkhas with the British have been friendly.

The exports include hides and skins, drugs, gums, dyes, jute, pulse, and cereals. The people are in general prosperous.

Nepal contains Mount Everest, height 29,002 feet, and other of the loftiest mountains on the globe.

The **area** is about 54,000 square miles and the **population** about 5,600,000.

1768. Nepal, occupied by mixed Mongol races, is **conquered by the Gurkhas,** who are Rajputs. (See GURKHA in the *Dictionary.*)

1791. Commercial treaty with the British East India Company.

1814–1815. War with British India following a series of depredations (see INDIA). By treaty of December 2, 1815, Nepal gives up conquered territory and receives a **British resident.**

1857. During the mutiny, **Jung Bahadur,** prime minister and *de facto* ruler, sends troops to assist the English; as a reward, portions of territory are restored. **Gurkhas** are permitted to enlist **in the Indian army,** where they are highly valued.

1914. On the outbreak of the **World War** the prime minister offers the army to the governor-general of India.

THE NETHERLANDS.

Historical Outline.

THE NETHERLANDS, or lowlands or "hollowlands," whence comes the name "Holland," popularly applied to the country (which formerly included Belgium and the duchy of Luxemburg), lie between Germany and Belgium. The coast is formed by a line of sand dunes and the land, much of which is below the sea level, is protected from the sea by a series of dikes. It is necessary to confine the rivers as well, and because of the continual deposits some of the surfaces of the rivers are higher than the surrounding land. A series of canals more than 1,500 miles in length extends throughout Holland. A people inhabiting such a territory were bound to be a seafaring race, and the sailors of Holland early gained preëminence. The Dutch became the successors of the Portuguese and Spanish East Indian empire and monopolized a large part of the carrying trade.

As a result of the long struggle with Spain (see SPAIN), the Dutch cities and country were welded into a federal union (1579), which by the Peace of Westphalia was recognized as an independent state. When Charles II. of England favored Louis XIV. of France, the enemy of the Dutch, the war was revived between Holland and England, and one of the results was the English capture of New Amsterdam in America. By the Treaty of Breda (1667) England and Holland were united as Protestant powers in opposing Louis XIV. In 1689 Prince William of Orange was elected to the throne of England, and both countries united in the struggle with France.

On the death of William III. without male heirs, the anti-Orange party in the Netherlands prevented the appointment of a Stadholder. When the Stadholdership was restored in 1747, the holders — beginning with William (IV.) Friso, of the House of Orange — were virtually kings of a declining federation.

In 1795 Holland was conquered by the French under Pichegru and converted into the Batavian Republic. This popular government gave place to the kingdom of Holland, which Napoleon created for his brother Louis in 1806. A few years later Louis was deposed by the French emperor, and Holland was incorporated with France. After Waterloo, Prince William of Orange was declared king by the Assembly of Holland.

The Congress of Vienna dealt liberally in the construction of the new kingdom. In order to prevent the expansion of France in the direction of the North Sea, Belgium was included with Holland. This arrangement was maintained until 1830, when the people of Belgium, sympathizing with the Revolutionists in France, broke into revolt and declared independence.

In the Netherlands the reign of William I. extended to 1840, and that of his son, William II., to 1849. The latter was succeeded by his daughter Wilhelmina under the regency of the Queen mother. Wilhelmina was inaugurated as full sovereign in 1898.

Since 1898 the franchise has been somewhat extended, and in 1916 women were made eligible to membership in the States-General. In 1908 there was a slight difficulty with Venezuela, and a naval force was dispatched to South America.

On the outbreak of the World War the position of Holland was precarious. Germany attacked Dutch commerce, and the Allies established a virtual embargo against her, for fear that supplies would be transported to Germany. As a result there was a great shortage of food, and riots broke out attended by serious loss of life. In 1916 the British and American governments seized the Dutch shipping in their ports and utilized it for the transportation of supplies, promising, however, ample compensation to the owners. At the end of the war Emperor William took refuge in Holland, which refused to surrender him to the Allies.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of the Netherlands was proclaimed in 1815, and was revised in 1848, 1887, and 1917. According to this charter, Netherlands forms a constitutional, hereditary monarchy. The executive power belongs exclusively to the sovereign, while the legislative authority is exercised conjointly by the sovereign and the States-General. The States-General consists of two chambers, the upper, or first, chamber and the lower, or second, chamber. By the Reform Act of December 12, 1917, universal suffrage, male and female, is extended to all Dutch citizens 23 years of age; the upper chamber of 50 members serving for terms of nine years is, however, chosen by men only; the lower chamber is made up of 100 deputies, who are elected directly for terms of four years.

Industry and Labor. The chief agricultural products of Holland are oats, rye, wheat, and sugar beets. It is renowned for its cattle and dairy products. There are a few mines of coal, which constitutes the sole mineral wealth. The fisheries are very important. There are numerous shipyards, and Dutch steamers are found in every part of the world.

Religion. There is entire liberty of conscience, although the royal family and the majority of the people are members of the Reformed Church.

Education. Public instruction is compulsory (act of 1900) between the ages of 6 and 13, and is entirely secular. The cost of primary instruction is divided between the state and the towns. 3,000 public elementary schools and more than 2,000 private elementary schools care for over 1,000,000 pupils, while 113 middle schools accommodate 19,000 pupils. There are numerous special and technical schools as well as four public universities, with more than 5,000 students.

Defense. By the act of 1912 service in the army is partly voluntary and partly compulsory. Every Dutch citizen is liable to service in the army or navy between the ages of 19 and 40. Actual service is determined by lot. The maximum strength of the annual contingent is 25,500, including 600 for sea service. The peace strength of the army is 194,000 men. There are 156,000 additional trained men, and 250,000 untrained men available for mobilization. The navy is maintained for a double purpose: protection of the Dutch coast, and the defense of the East Indian possessions. The navy consists of six coast defense ships and five cruisers. In addition are gunboats and torpedo boats. A large force was kept under arms during the World War, to protect the border and keep the country in a state of defense.

The **area** is 12,582 square miles and the **population** (1918) is 6,778,699, one of the densest in Europe.

DUTCH POSSESSIONS.

THE kingdom of the Netherlands has colonial possessions in both the West and the East Indies, together comprising an area of more than 780,000 sq miles, inhabited by more than 47,000,000 people.

In the West Indies are Dutch Guiana, or Surinam, and Curaçao.

DUTCH GUIANA.

SINCE the Peace of Breda in 1667, when Dutch Guiana was assigned to the Netherlands in exchange for New Netherland in North America, it has been twice taken by Great Britain, but both times returned to the Netherlands on conclusion of peace. It is a small territory of about 46,000 square miles, with 107,827 inhabitants in 1919, exclusive of the Negroes and Indians living in the forests. The governor and high officers are named by the sovereign, and there is a representative body, called the Colonial States, the members of which are chosen for a term of six years, one member for every 200 voters.

CURAÇAO.

CURAÇAO is the name given to the colony comprising a little cluster of islands north of Venezuela, of which the largest is Curaçao. The total area is 403 square miles and the population 57,195 (1918).

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

IN the East Indies the more important possessions are **Java, Sumatra, Celebes,** the **Moluccа Islands,** the **Sunda Isles,** about three fourths of **Borneo,** and about three fifths of **New Guinea.** Most of these were acquired by the Dutch East India Company, formed in 1602 and dissolved in 1798. On its dissolution the home government took over the control.

The entire area is about 735,000 sq. miles; total population (est. 1917) approximately 47,000,000.

Java, the most valuable Dutch possession, has an area of 48,854 square miles, and about 34,000,000 inhabitants. With the neighboring island of **Madura,** it is divided into 17 residencies, each ruled by a resident, assisted by assistant residents and *contrôleurs.* Under them is a host of functionaries, Dutch and native. The Dutch colonial army of about 42,000 of all ranks is entirely separate from the home army. One third are Europeans, including all the commissioned officers, gunners, and a certain proportion of noncommissioned officers. The greater part of the land is government property. The labor laws are stringent and vigorously enforced. Coffee, sugar, tobacco, rubber, indigo, tea, and spices are the staple productions. There are valuable oil fields.

Chronology.

The Netherlands and Dutch Possessions.

For earlier events see MEDIEVAL PERIOD and EARLY MODERN PERIOD.

1648. *Jan. 30.* At Peace of Westphalia (Münster) **independence** of the Netherlands formally **recognized** by Spain after 70 years' existence.

1651. *Oct. 9.* **English Navigation Act** limits Dutch trade.

1652. War with England over Navigation Act. November, Dutch under Tromp defeat English fleet near Goodwin Sands.

April. Dutch begin settlement of Capetown (see SOUTH AFRICA).

1654. *April 5.* English treaty of peace at Westminster.

1655. *October.* Dutch conquer Swedish settlement (New Sweden) on Delaware River in America.

1656. Dutch destroy Portuguese power in Ceylon (for Dutch in India, see INDIA).

1664. *Aug. 29.* Capture of New Amsterdam by English fleet without declaration of war (see United States). [Britain).

1665. *Feb. 22.* War with England (see Great

1667. After **De Ruyter** has menaced London, **treaty** of peace is made at **Breda,** July 31, in which France and Denmark join.

1668. Triple alliance with Sweden and England against France (see France and Great Britain).

1672. France secures alliance of England under Charles II.; war declared by them on Holland.

March 17. Dutch make **William of Orange** leader against French invasion.

1673. Frederick William of Brandenburg aids Dutch, but is forced into neutrality by French. William of Orange with Austrian allies forces French to abandon designs. [year.

Dutch occupy New York, but return it next

1674. *March 7.* **Peace** of Westminster **with England.** French war continues.

1676. *April.* **De Ruyter defeated** by the French off the coast of Sicily.

1677. *Nov. 15.* **William of Orange marries Mary,** daughter of the Duke of York (later James II., of England).

1678. *Aug. 10.* **Peace of Nimwegen** (Nijmegen) with France; French conquests restored to Holland. (See Early Modern Period.)

1689. Following flight of James II., **William** of Orange, **and Mary,** his wife, chosen **rulers of England** (see Great Britain).

Grand Alliance formed against France.

1692. *May.* Dutch and English overcome the French fleet off La Hogue (see Great Britain).

1697. *Sept. 20.* **Peace of Ryswiek** (Rijswijk) (see France and Great Britain) ends struggle with France. Conquests restored.

1702. Holland joins **War of the Spanish Succession** against France. English and Dutch fleets overcome French and Spanish at Vigo.

March 8. Death of William of Orange (William III. of England). Holland passes under administration of the Grand Pensionary **Heinsius.**

1713. *April 11.* **Peace of Utrecht** ends War of the Spanish Succession; Spanish Netherlands (present Belgium) pass to Austria.

1715. Barrier treaty is signed with Austria and Great Britain; Dutch permitted to garrison parts of Austrian Netherlands.

1717. *Jan. 4.* **Triple alliance** with France and Great Britain against Spain.

1720. *Aug. 3.* Heinsius dies; his successors govern for a quarter of a century.

1747. *April.* **William IV. of Orange** becomes stadholder; practically a limited hereditary monarchy results.

1751. *Oct. 22.* **William V.,** three years old, succeeds his father.

1780. *Dec. 20.* **Great Britain declares war** on Holland because of membership in the Armed Neutrality and supposed alliance with the United States. **Conflict for naval supremacy** follows, in which Holland is defeated (see Great Britain).

1782. *Oct. 8.* **Treaty** of recognition and commerce **with the United States.**

1784. *May 20.* Peace with Great Britain; British gains in East Indies.

1787. **Civil strife** occurs in the Low Countries, caused by opposition to the House of Orange, but Prussia interferes and restores order.

1795. **French Republicans,** having invaded Holland in 1793, **subdue the country,** which makes Holland an ally of France. The Batavian Republic is formed. British conquer Dutch colonies.

1802. *March 25.* By Peace of Amiens Great Britain restores all conquests except Ceylon; but after renewal of war in 1803 again occupies Dutch colonies.

1806. Napoleon creates the **kingdom of Holland** and bestows it on his brother Louis.

1810. Holland annexed to the French Empire.

1814. *Aug. 13.* **Peace of Paris** with Great Britain; all colonies except Capetown and part of Guiana are restored to Holland.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *June 9.* Final act of the Congress of Vienna confirms new **kingdom of the Netherlands,** including Belgium, with personal union with Luxemburg; former royal house restored in the person of **William I.,** son of William V. of Orange.

1830. Belgians revolt (see Belgium).

1840. *Oct. 7.* William I. abdicates; succeeded by his son **William II.**

1849. *March 17.* William II. dies; succeeded by his son **William III.**

1873. Dutch begin a **war on Achin,** in Sumatra, but are disastrously defeated. Struggle continued, and in 1879 a victorious peace is concluded.

1890. *Nov. 23.* William III. dies; succeeded in Holland by **Wilhelmina,** his daughter, with Queen Emma as regent. Adolphus of Nassau succeeds to the sovereignty of Luxemburg (see Luxemburg).

1891. Elections of the States-General are carried by the Liberals.

1892. Merwede Canal, connecting Amsterdam with Rhine Province in Germany, completed.

1894. *Aug. 26.* Dutch contending with the chiefs of Achin surprised and badly routed.

1895. International Exposition of Arts and Industries in Amsterdam.

1896. *Sept. 6.* **Electoral Reform Bill,** pending for several sessions of the States-General, adopted by both chambers.

1898. *Sept. 15.* **Wilhelmina enthroned.**

1899. International Peace Conference at The Hague (see Nineteenth-Century Period).

1901. *Jan. 30.* **Hague Court of International Arbitration,** formed in accordance with the convention adopted July 29, 1899, by the Hague Conference, organized.

Feb. 7. **Queen Wilhelmina weds** Duke Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

June 14. So-called **"monster alliance"** between extreme Catholics and extreme Calvinists on separation of church and state defeats the Liberal government in the election.

1903. *January.* Strike on state railroads. April 12, government passes a law making **strikes of state employees criminal** and subject to severe penalties. Socialists alone oppose it.

1907. *June 15.* Second Peace Conference opens at The Hague (see Nineteenth-Century Period).

Nov. 6. Bill introduced for reclamation of land from the Zuyder Zee.

1908. Venezuelan crisis (see Venezuela).

June 15. Representatives from 23 nations are present at the **International Suffrage Congress** in Amsterdam.

1909. *April 30.* **Queen Wilhelmina** gives birth to a **daughter,** Juliana, heir to the throne.

1913. *July 1.* **International Opium Conference** opens at The Hague.

Aug. 20. **Universal Peace Congress** begins its twentieth annual session at The Hague.

Aug. 28. **Palace of Peace** at The Hague, the gift of Andrew Carnegie, dedicated.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *August.* On outbreak of **World War,** martial law is proclaimed, troops are massed on the frontier and other measures are taken to enforce **neutrality.** Thousands of refugees cross from Belgium.

1915. *April 16.* Intense public indignation over the sinking of the Dutch steamer *Katwyk* by a German submarine.

April 27. **International Congress of Women** convenes at The Hague.

July 30. New **Landsturm Bill** becomes law; provides for a considerable increase in the number of trained soldiers.

Oct. 14. **Martial law is proclaimed** in trades providing military supplies.

1916. *April 6.* Government forbids the exportation of foodstuffs until further notice.

June 14. **Food riots** occur in Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

Sept. 9. Government's offer to care for young children from the invaded districts of France accepted by Germany.

1917. Holland suffers much from both Germany and the Allies, the former ravaging her commerce, while the latter, fearing transmission of supplies to Germany via Holland, establish a virtual embargo against her.

July. **Food riots;** troops compelled to fire on the rioters.

Dec. 12. Electoral Reform Act; universal suffrage and proportional representation, woman suffrage and eligibility for office, including States-General.

1918. *March 18.* **British and American governments seize Dutch shipping** in their ports, holding that Holland, after entering into an agreement, withdrew in response to pressure from Germany. Allied powers promise compensation to the owners and provision to meet the possibility of losses through enemy action.

April. **Dispute with Germany** over transportation of sand and gravel for military purposes across Holland.

June 14. Project for reclaiming Zuyder Zee becomes law. Amount to be reclaimed 523,000 acres. [Holland.

Nov. 10. **William of Hohenzollern** enters

Nov. 15. German troops try to return from Belgium across Dutch Limburg and are disarmed.

1919. Friction between Holland and Belgium over Belgian claim to Limburg and the Dutch territory on south side of Scheldt (see Belgium).

1920. *Jan. 22.* Dutch government **refuses to surrender the ex-Kaiser** as the Allies demanded on January 15.

Jan. 31. Dutch press publishes text of treaty with Belgium arranging navigation of the Scheldt (see Belgium).

Feb. 12. Great **dock strike** begins; later denounced as being a Bolshevist movement.

Feb. 20. **Holland joins League of Nations.**

March 5. Dutch government, again **refusing to surrender the ex-Kaiser,** promises to keep a careful guard over him.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

See under British Empire, page 73.

NEW GUINEA.

See under British Empire, page 75; Netherlands (Dutch East Indies), page 129; Germany, page 105.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

See under British Empire, page 75.

NEW ZEALAND.

See under British Empire, page 76.

NICARAGUA.

See under Central America, page 79.

NIGERIA.

See under British Empire, page 67.

NORWAY.

Historical Outline.

Geological and archæological researches have shown that a fishing and hunting population inhabited Norway as far back as 6000 B. C., but the earliest tradition attributes the settlement to Olaf, who fled from Sweden. The country was settled by numerous chieftains, whose principal occupation as described in the sagas was piracy and war. In the tenth century Greenland was discovered by Eric the Red, and Vinland (possibly part of America), was visited by his son. Christianity was introduced about 1000, and the kingdom became united under St. Olaf. Iceland was conquered in 1260, and the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were united by the Kalmarian Union (Union of Kalmar), 1397.

At the beginning of the 16th century, the king of Denmark gained the ascendancy. A long period of dependency followed until, in 1814, Norway was ceded to Sweden by the king of Denmark, who then held the suzerainty. The Norwegians were dissatisfied with the union, declared their independence, and chose a Danish prince for their king. A Swedish army overawed the country, and Norway was joined in a personal union with Sweden under the rule of Charles XIII. This continued for over a hundred years, when, in 1915, Norway declared her independence and chose Charles of Denmark as king, who rules under the name of Haakon VII.

During the World War Norway remained neutral. Her commerce suffered more than that of any other neutral nation from the depredations of the submarines. Although suffering privations almost amounting to famine from her inability to import coal and the necessary foodstuffs, her carrying trade, because of the high freight rates, greatly prospered.

Organization.

Government. Norway is a constitutional monarchy with a king whose authority is exercised by a Council of State consisting of one minister of state and at least seven councilors, who are heads of the departments of government. The king appoints the high officials, may issue provisional ordinances, declare war and peace, and may exercise the veto twice, but if the same bill passes three separate legislatures it becomes a law without his assent. The legislature, called the Storthing, assembles every year. The Storthing is chosen every third year by universal suffrage, since 1913, and consists of 126 members. On assembling, the Storthing divides itself into two houses, the Lagthing, which consists of one fourth of the members of the Storthing, and the Odelsthing, which consists of three fourths. If the two houses do not agree, a joint session is held and the final decision is made by a majority of two thirds.

Industry and Labor. Norway is a barren and mountainous country, with little opportunity for agriculture. The chief crops are potatoes, hay, and oats. The forests and fisheries are the two chief sources of national wealth. Although the country lacks coal, manufacturing is carried on successfully because of the enormous amount of water power, which in recent years has been turned to the production of electrochemical products. The fisheries furnish more than half of Norway's exports, and there are valuable mines of pyrites, iron ore, and copper.

Religion. The Evangelical Lutheran Church is the national church, endowed by the state; but all other religions are tolerated.

Education. Education is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 14, and in 1916 there were more than 6,600 elementary schools, 93 secondary schools, and 99 communal and private schools. There were 10 normal schools, and a university at Christiania with more than 1,500 students.

Defense. The army of Norway is a national militia, in which service is compulsory and universal for men, liability existing between the ages of 18 and 55.

The **area** is 125,001 square miles and the estimated **population** in 1918 was 2,632,010.

Chronology — Norway.

For earlier history, see DENMARK.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1814. *Jan. 14.* By Treaty of Kiel, **Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden.** Norwegians refuse to acknowledge the treaty. May 17, National Assembly at Eidsvold adopts a **liberal constitution** for Norway. A prince of Denmark declared king; but negotiations follow with king of Sweden. November 4, Norwegian Storthing agrees to a **personal union** only, under Charles XIII. of Sweden. Ratified by both countries in 1815.

1818. *Feb. 5.* **Charles XIV.** (Bernadotte) succeeds on death of Charles XIII.

1819. **Nobility is abolished.**

1844. *March 8.* **Oscar I.** succeeds on the death of his father Charles XIV.

1859. *July 8.* Oscar I. dies; succeeded by his son, who becomes **Charles XV.**

1872. *Sept. 18.* Charles XV. dies and his brother, **Oscar II.,** succeeds.

1896. *July.* **Fridtjof Nansen,** leader of a polar expedition, who reached the parallel of 86° 14′ north, returns in safety.

1898. **Universal male suffrage** adopted.

1901. *May 25.* Parliament confers the **franchise on women taxpayers.**

1904. *Feb. 23.* Norway, Sweden, and Denmark open negotiations for a **northern alliance.**

1905. *May 21.* King Oscar vetoes Norway's bill for separate consular service. As a result, June 7, **Norway,** through the Storthing, **declares herself separated from Sweden.** June 22, Swedish Riksdag (Diet) refers the government's proposal of settlement with Norway to a special committee. August 13, popular vote in Norway is practically unanimous in favor of separation.

Sept. 23. **Agreement of Karlstad** by Swedish and Norwegian delegates stipulates: dissolution of personal union; formation of a neutral zone between the two countries, and demolition of certain fortresses therein by Norway; freedom of transit traffic from taxation; safeguards for certain vested rights in waterways; disputes to go to the Hague Tribunal. October 9, Norwegian Storthing adopts agreement; Swedish Riksdag (Diet) does so on October 16. October 27, **King Oscar relinquishes Norwegian crown.**

Nov. 13. By a large majority of the popular vote, **Prince Charles of Denmark elected king;** on November 18 unanimously elected by the Storthing, and takes the name of **Haakon VII.** November 27, the king takes oath to observe the Norwegian constitution.

1906. *June 22.* Haakon VII. and Queen Maud crowned.

1907. *June 14.* **Suffrage is granted to women** of qualified class.

1908. *April 23.* Joint declaration by Great Britain, Denmark, France, Germany, Netherlands, and Sweden for the maintenance of the territorial *status quo* on the North Sea.

1910. *Jan. 18.* Storthing passes law admitting women to public office. [munal elections.]

June. **Woman suffrage** granted in all com-

1911. *Dec. 16.* **Amundsen,** Norwegian explorer, reaches **South Pole.**

1913. *June 11.* **Woman suffrage extended,** allowing all women to vote in parliamentary elections. **Women** also allowed to serve **on juries.**

June 26. **Royal veto abolished** by Storthing.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *May 15.* One-hundredth anniversary of the separation of Norway from Denmark celebrated.

Dec. 18. King Haakon, with King Christian of Denmark and King Gustavus of Sweden, meet at Malmö to discuss the effect of the World War on their countries.

1915. *January.* Government embarks upon the policy of developing under state ownership the principal **water powers** of the country, primarily for generating electricity for state railroads.

1916. *Feb. 3.* Constitutional amendment makes **women eligible to the Council of State.**

1917. Norway suffers **severe loss of shipping,** but maintains her policy of neutrality. At the end of November the kings of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark meet at Christiania and adopt as policy during the war close coöperation and mutual aid.

1918. *April 30.* Under an agreement with the United States, **Norway guarantees that imports** from the United States **shall not reach Germany,** and limits her own exports to Germany.

1919. *June 10.* Labor party votes to adhere to the Third International of Moscow.

Oct. 7. **Prohibition of strong drink adopted** by popular referendum.

Nov. 21. **Spitzbergen** commission having made a report favoring Norse sovereignty of the islands, the Supreme Council at Paris grants it. Treaty with Norway to that effect, Feb. 9, 1920.

1920. *March 5.* **Norway joins the League of Nations.**

NYASALAND.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65.

OMAN.

OMAN is an independent state situated on the Gulf of Oman, extending from the entrance of the Persian Gulf to the extreme point of Arabia. The coast line is nearly a thousand miles long and the area 82,000 square miles. Great Britain and France have guaranteed the integrity of Oman. The population is estimated at 500,000, chiefly Arabs. The capital is Maskat. The exports are chiefly dates, fish, limes, cotton goods, hides, and skins. A mail boat runs to Bombay and there is cable communication.

ORANGE FREE STATE.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 66.

PALESTINE.

Historical Outline.

THE name Palestine is applied to the territory lying between the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea and the line of the Jordan River, with somewhat indefinite boundaries to the northern and southern ends. It has been celebrated for ages as the seat of the Jewish people; and as the scene of the birthplace, home, and death of Jesus Christ, and hence the "Holy Land" of Christian countries.

Palestine has gone through many mutations; it has been part of the Egyptian, Babylonian, Assyrian, Seljuk, and Ottoman empires. It was the scene of the great struggles of the Crusades, and it once included a kingdom of Jerusalem with a Western sovereign. It has been the bridge for the march of armies between Asia and Africa, and is at present the object of a movement for the resettling of a Jewish community who expect to become an independent state.

The Jews who came into the land about 1160 B. C. eventually were divided into two kingdoms — Israel and Judah. Their sacred city of Jerusalem was many times taken, notably by the Roman general Titus (70 A. D.), by the Crusaders in 1099, and by Saladin in 1187. It remained thereafter under Moslem power till 1918.

The population of Palestine contains many races, of whom the majority appear to be Bedouins, or settled Arabs, and a few of Persian and Kurdish descent. A Jewish population is made up in part from colonies planted from outside during the last fifty years.

The chief products of the country are olives, wine, fruits, and other semitropical products.

There are no workings of valuable minerals.

During the World War a railroad line was completed from Egypt to Jerusalem, from which there are connections by rail north and northward to Damascus, Beirut, and Aleppo.

The **area** of the former Turkish vilayet of Jerusalem is about 6,600 square miles, and the **population,** in 1915, about 350,000; but the borders of the state of Palestine, which is under the mandate of Great Britain, contain about 9,000 square miles and a total population (1919) of about 650,000.

Chronology.

1099. *July 15.* Jerusalem taken by Crusaders.

1100–1291. Kingdom of Jerusalem. City recaptured by Saladin, 1187; held again by the Crusaders 1229–1244; kingdom ends with Moslem capture of Acre.

1516–1917. Turkish domination.

1860. Massacre of Christian **Maronites** of Mt. Lebanon by Mohammedan Druses (see SYRIA).

1864. *Sept. 6.* Autonomy granted to Lebanon under a Christian governor.

1878. Beginning of **Jewish emigration** from the Pales and elsewhere in Europe **to Palestine** for agricultural settlement, assisted first by the Chovevi Zion Society and later by Hirsch's Jewish Colonization Association.

1893. Jewish Colonization Society founded. Takes over Rothschild colonies in 1899.

1896. Publication of Herzl's *Jewish State,* advocating Zionist movement for a tribute-paying Jewish state in Palestine under Turkish suzerainty.

1897. International **Zionist Congress** held at Basel. Others follow, but no practical results.

1914. About 15,000 Jewish agriculturists in Palestine in about 40 colonies, with more or less local self-government.

1916. *May 9–16.* Secret agreement between France and Great Britain for **partition of Turkey;** provides for an international administration over Palestine. [WAR).]

1917. Allenby's Palestine campaign (see WORLD

Nov. 2. Balfour, British foreign secretary, declares the government's sympathy with Jewish Zionist aspirations.

Dec. 9. Occupation of Jerusalem.

1920. *Feb. 27, March 8.* Anti-Zionist demonstrations in Jerusalem by Arabs, other Moslems, and Christians.

April 25. Supreme Council meeting at San Remo gives **Great Britain mandate for Palestine,** established as a home land for the Jews.

May 11. Peace treaty handed to Turkey incorporates British mandate in Palestine.

PANAMA.

See under CENTRAL AMERICA, page 81.

PAPUA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 75.

PARAGUAY.

Historical Outline.

PARAGUAY is one of the South American states not touching the ocean. Its chief city, Asunción, was founded by Ayolas in the fall of 1536. After the abandonment of Buenos Aires by the Spaniards, Asunción became the capital of the whole region of the Plata. Paraguay was a dependency of Buenos Aires, when, in 1811, it rose against the Spanish authorities and defeated the Argentine leader Belgrano. The consulate, established in 1812, was supplanted two years later by the dictatorship of General Francia, who held undisputed sway until 1840. A second brief consulate was succeeded by the presidency of Don Carlos López. After him his son Don Francisco López ruled from 1862 for seven years over what was called the Republic of Paraguay. His ambition and egotism involved Paraguay in wars with Brazil and the Argentine Republic, but on April 1, 1870, López was killed and Paraguay crushed at the battle of Aquidaban. From that date Paraguay, although troubled by revolutions in 1908, 1911, 1912, and 1915, has shown great industrial progress.

Organization.

Government. By the constitution (1870) the legislative power is vested in a Congress consisting of a Senate of 20, one to every 12,000 inhabitants, and a Chamber of Deputies of 40, one to every 6,000. Both senators and deputies are chosen directly by the people. The executive power is in the hands of a president chosen for four years, who exercises his function through a cabinet of five ministers responsible to Congress.

Social Conditions. The native races of this part of South America were the Guaranis, whom the whites first conciliated, then subjected, and with whom they intermarried. The modern Paraguayans are the descendants of this relationship. The Roman Catholic is the established religion, but the free exercise of other religions is permitted. Education is free and nominally obligatory, but not everywhere available.

Defense. The army consists of about 2,500 men; the navy of three small converted merchantmen.

Industry. The country is predominantly agricultural and supports vast herds of cattle. Maté, or Paraguay tea, is one of the chief articles of export; tobacco is also exported.

The **area** is estimated at 65,000 square miles and the **population** at 1,000,000.

Chronology.

1527–1528. Exploration of the Paraguay and Paraná rivers by Sebastian Cabot.

1536. *Aug. 15.* **Asunción founded.** Region comes under viceroyalty of Peru.

1605. Jesuit missions established; become a power in the land.

1769. Jesuits expelled. [Aires.]

1776. Paraguay put under viceroyalty of Buenos

1811. *July 5.* **Independence** declared both from Spain and Argentina. Not contested.

1814–1840. Dictatorship of **Francia;** anticlerical, opposed to foreign commerce, but favorable to internal development.

1840–1862. Dictatorship of Carlos Antonio **López,** Francia's nephew.

1855. *Feb. 1.* Paraguayans fire on U.S.S. *Water Witch* on Paraná River.

1858. *June 2.* Congress of United States authorizes a commission to settle *Water Witch* and claims controversies. Naval force also sent to La Plata.

1859. *Feb. 4.* **Paraguay apologizes** and pays indemnity; also treaties of commerce, free navigation of Paraná and Paraguay rivers, and arbitration of claims. [ceeds as **dictator.**]

1862. López's son, Francisco Solano **López,** succeeds as

1865. *March 18.* López's ambition for conquests leads to declaration of **war** on **Argentina;** but **Brazil** and **Uruguay** form alliance with Argentina (May 1), and **Paragnay** is invaded, **devastated,** and **depopulated.** War lasts five years.

1870. *March 1.* Paraguayan forces crushed and López killed at battle of Aquidaban. Rivalry among allies preserves Paraguay's independence.

Nov. 25. **Constitution** proclaimed; Rivarola first president. **Revolts** are frequent; down to 1912 few presidents complete their terms.

1872. *Jan. 9.* **Treaties** of peace, indemnity, and boundaries **with Brazil.**

1876. *Feb. 3.* **Treaty** of peace, indemnity, and boundaries **with Argentina;** El Chaco territory to be arbitrated.

1878. *Nov. 13.* President Hayes of the United States decides El Chaco controversy in favor of Paraguay.

1883. *April 20.* **Treaty** of peace **with Uruguay;** Paraguay recognizes war debt.

1902. *January.* President Aceval (in office since 1898) forced to resign by a cabal of "generals."

Nov. 25. **Juan Ezcurra** inaugurated **president;** military control.

1904. *August.* Almost bloodless contest between Conservative government and Liberal party under Ferreira begins.

1905. *February.* President Ezcurra resigns; Liberals make Gaona provisional president.

December. Gaona resigns; Balz provisional president.

1906. *December.* **Ferreira** inaugurated regular **president.**

1908. *July 2.* Revolt at Asunción. Two days later Ferreira resigns; Naveiro becomes president.

1910. *Nov. 25.* **Gondra** inaugurated regular **president.**

1911. *Jan. 19.* Gondra having been forced to resign, **Jara** succeeds as **president.** Disturbances continue.

July 5. **Centennial of Independence** celebrated. On same day President Jara expelled; **Rojas** made provisional **president,** deposed in December, restored the next January.

1912. *January.* Brief controversy with Argentina involving severance of diplomatic relations. Intercourse restored in February.

March 1. Peña takes place of Rojas as provisional president; latter in hands of rebels.

March 22. Revolution forces Peña to flee. Navero provisional president.

April 27. Jara revolts. Captured and dies, May 17. **Anarchy** prevails.

July 19. **Eduardo Schaerer** elected **president;** inaugurated August 15. **Law and order** finally prevail; industrial and financial progress result.

1915. *January.* Uprising by Escobar quickly suppressed.

1916. *July 19.* **Treaty with Bolivia;** step toward settlement of boundary controversy.

Aug. 15. Manuel **Franco** succeeds constitutionally as **president.**

1919. *June 7.* President Franco dies; Vice President **Montero** succeeds.

Nov. 13. Paraguay joins the **League of Nations.**

PERSIA.

Historical Outline.

Few existing nations go farther back for their origin than does Persia. Ancient history takes note of Iran as one of the earliest seats of civilization. Following the old empire of Bactria came that of the Medo-Persians. Under the Achæmenian kings (559–330 B. C.) Persia was a conquering power, the dominion of which was extended westward to Greece, eastward to the Indus, southward to Ethiopia, and northward to the countries above the Caspian.

The Persians made successful war with almost every kingdom upon their borders, until Alexander the Macedonian turned the tide of conquest. The brief Greek ascendancy was succeeded by the dynasty of the Seleucidae, and that by the Parthian Empire. The Romans held the country for a time, including the conquest of Persia by Trajan and the subsequent campaigns of Severus. The Sassanian Empire followed, from the third century to the period of the Moslem conquest. The Persians repeatedly conquered parts of western India, and have left a mark on its religion and literature. Under the Abbasside caliphs Persia again became a great empire, the transformation of which into modern Persia may be dated from the death of Abbas III., in the year 1736. At that time the ambitious Nadir became shah. His northern conquests and wars in the west justified his reputation as one of the greatest of the shahs.

The history of Persia during the latter half of the eighteenth century is largely an account of feuds and revolutions. The Kajar dynasty was established with the accession of Aga Mohammed in 1794, who since 1779 had contended for the throne in a civil war. Fath Ali Shah was proclaimed in 1798; then followed a war with Russia, which led to diplomatic relations between Persia and England, and Persia and France. Napoleon I. cultivated friendly relations with the shah.

Persia, however, has never entered into the European system; and the Western states have not much concerned themselves with the course of Persian events. Mohammed Shah sent an army against Herat in 1837, and thus came into collision with the British. His son, Nasr-ed-Din Shah, during the Crimean War (1854–56), entered into secret relations with Russia, and it was only after the treaty of peace that friendly relations were again declared between the shah and the Western governments.

Great Britain in the nineteenth century adopted the policy of maintaining an envoy at the Persian court. In 1862 the Anglo-Indian telegraph was carried through Persia from London by way of Teheran and Bagdad. In 1873 and again in 1878 the shah visited London and other Western cities, where he was received with great distinction. In 1881 the international boundary between Persia and Russia was peacefully established. Nasr-ed-Din held the throne for forty-eight years, and was then, in 1896, assassinated by a fanatic. The Persian rule passed without controversy to his son Muzaffar-ed-Din.

Between 1899 and 1907 Russia and Great Britain were rivals for the control of the kingdom. The Russian Bank lent Persia $20,000,000 of which more than half was squandered by the shah. In return Russia obtained a valuable concession and threatened Great Britain's naval supremacy in the Persian Gulf. In 1899 Lord Lansdowne stated in the House of Lords that Great Britain would resist by all means in its power the attempt of any other nation to obtain a naval base on the Gulf; and in 1903 Lord Curzon, viceroy of India, made a naval demonstration.

The rivalry of Russia and England in central Asia extended to Persia. As a part of a general clean-up of the situation they came to an agreement in 1907 in which Persia was not consulted, by which Great Britain agreed not to seek any political or commercial concessions or to interfere with Russia in the northern zone; while in the southern zone which bordered upon Afghanistan, Great Britain was to have free hand. The central zone was regarded as a neutral belt in which either country might obtain concessions. In case Persia should fail to meet her liabilities in regard to loans previously contracted, Great Britain and Russia reserved the right to assume control of the Persian revenues within their respective spheres of influence. In addition Russia admitted the special interests of Great Britain in the Persian Gulf. This was virtually a partition of the ancient land.

In 1907 Mohammed Ali Mirza succeeded to the throne and a self-constituted Assembly demanded that he rule as a constitutional monarch. To this he agreed. Revolution broke out, the shah was dethroned and his eleven-year-old son proclaimed shah and a representative government established (1909). In 1911 W. Morgan Shuster, an American, was made treasurer-general with full powers of direction and control. The ex-shah invaded Persia with considerable forces, but was defeated. Russia demanded the dismissal of Shuster, and the Persians were forced to comply. Russia nevertheless invaded the country and occupied Tabriz. In 1913 the British and Russian governments agreed to advance $2,000,000 to Persia and in return each received concessions for railways. Ahmed Mirza was then crowned shah and in 1918 Persia informed Holland that she regarded the treaties imposed on her in recent years, especially the Russo-British treaty of 1907 fixing the spheres of interest, as no longer binding.

Organization.

Government. Until 1906 the shah, within the limits imposed by the Mohammedan religion, was an absolute ruler. The only limit upon his power was the influence of the leading doctors of the law. In 1906 a representative government, called National Council, was in theory established but never properly constituted; and since 1915 it has ceased to exist as a legislative or administrative body. The government is in the hands of a self-designated cabinet.

Religion. 8,500,000 of the population are Mohammedans of the Shiite sect, 850,000 of the rival Sunnite sect. There are about 10,000 Parsis or followers of Zoroaster, 50,000 Armenians, 30,000 Nestorians, and 40,000 Jews.

Education. Various Moslem colleges are supported by public funds in which the students are instructed in the Mohammedan religion and the Persian and Arabic literature. In 1849 a polytechnic school was opened at Teheran and there are also military colleges. Within recent years many schools modeled on military lines have been established and the whole educational system is undergoing radical changes.

Industry and Labor. Persia has from time immemorial been regarded as a garden country, notwithstanding the vast areas of desert. The products range from those of the north temperate zone to those of the tropics. Next to Arabia, Persia leads in the production of medicinal gums. All cereal grains and many of the common fruits, such as apples, peaches, apricots, plums, quinces, figs, dates, and oranges, are produced in abundance.

The oil fields of the Caspian region are extremely rich and in 1916–17 more than $17,000,000 worth of oil was exported. There are considerable mineral deposits, iron, lead, copper, and coal — none of them developed. The most important exports of Persia, besides petroleum, are, in the order of their value, as follows: dried fruits, opium, animals (live stock), cotton, rice, and skins.

Defense. The army consists of a small force at the capital of not more than 2,000 men and two brigades with their headquarters at Shiraz and Kerman. The police force is organized and commanded by Swedish officers.

The **area** of Persia is estimated at 628,000 square miles and the **population** at between 8,000,000 and 10,000,000.

Chronology.

1499. A native Persian dynasty, the Sophi, overthrows foreign rule.

1586–1628. **Abbas Shah** makes Persia again a great power in southern Asia; afterwards the Sophi dynasty declines.

1721. Persia conquered by Afghans.

1729. **Nadir** (shah after 1736) reëstablishes the Persian power and greatly extends it; but the empire falls to pieces on his assassination (1747).

1794. Aga Mohammed of the Kajars, a Turkish tribe, secures the throne; **Kajar dynasty** has since ruled.

1800. Georgia, a subject state, joins Russia; war follows (see Russia), in which Persia loses.

1828. *Feb. 22.* By the Treaty of Turkomanchai, **Russia** makes further **advances** and secures extraterritorial privileges.

1856. *Nov. 1.* Great Britain declares war on Persia because of her seizure of Herat. Peace is made at Paris, March 4, 1857, Persia giving up Herat.

1884. Russian conquest of Turkestan places her on the whole of Persia's northern frontier. **Persia becomes the object of European diplomacy:** as a field for controversy between Russia and Great Britain; as a sphere for commercial concessions; as in the way of British ascendancy in the Persian Gulf; as a stepping-stone for Germany on the way to India.

1896. *May 1.* Nasr-ed-Din Shah is assassinated, succeeded by his son **Muzaffar-ed-Din.**

1906. *Aug. 5.* The shah assents to the formation of a representative national council; **end of absolute rule.** Council meets on October 7. December 30, the shah and crown prince issue a **constitution** on the powers and duties of the council.

1907. *Jan. 8.* The shah dies; succeeded by his son Mohammed Ali Mirza, who attempts to ignore the constitution.

Aug. 31. **Anglo-Russian convention** ends the rivalry in Persia; a phase of the *Entente Cordiale* and advantageous to Russian interests. Persian independence and territorial integrity to be upheld, but country divided into three zones: the northern, a Russian sphere; the southern, a British one; the middle neutral zone, open to the influence of both.

1909. *July 16.* **Revolution** against the reactionary policy of the shah leads to his practical abdication; the council proclaims as shah his son **Ahmed Mirza,** who is 11 years old.

1911. *June 13.* **Shuster,** an American, is appointed treasurer-general in an effort to bring order out of the financial chaos; but December 28, **Russia,** by a threat of armed intervention, **compels his dismissal.** Misgovernment and general disorganization, with Russian and British loss of prestige, gives Germany an opportunity to gain influence.

1914. *July 21.* Shah is crowned.

November. Persia declares neutrality when Turkey joins the Central Powers. (For conflicts in northwestern Persia, see Armenia.)

1915. *November.* **Persia the seat of rival intrigues.** Crisis at Teheran, due to the attempt of the Central Powers to force the shah to side with them. Great Britain becomes firmly established in the south, where her position follows the fluctuations of the Mesopotamian campaign; and the Russian advance south of Teheran breaks up the Turko-German force. Persia's *gendarmerie* is reorganized by Sir Percy Sykes.

1917. *November.* Peoples of northwestern Persian province of Azerbaijan join those of Baku and Elizavetpol in forming new state of **Azerbaijan;** for a while this is part of Republic of Transcaucasia, but in May, 1918, becomes **independent.**

1918. On withdrawal of the Russians from northern Persia, British extend their operations and occupy Meshed in the northwest as a guard against the Bolsheviki.

May 3. Persia denounces Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907.

1919. *Aug. 9.* **Anglo-Persian agreement:** Great Britain to furnish administrative advisers, military officers and equipment, encourage development of communication, and lend Persia sufficient money for these purposes, customs being pledged for payment and precedence given over other loans. Agreement meets with much outside opposition as contrary to the League of Nations, but British deny all designs on Persian integrity.

Oct. 31. Shah visits England.

1920. Persia's adherence to League of Nations announced.

Feb. 8. Permission is given a British syndicate to survey a **railway** from the railhead near Bagdad on Mesopotamian frontier to Teheran and the Caspian Sea.

PERU.

Historical Outline.

In Peru was developed the highest native civilization in either of the Americas. In the highlands which extend into Bolivia the kingdom of the Piruas was established, probably as early as 800 A. D., and ruins of vast masonry edifices are found at Tiahuanaco near the southern shore of Lake Titicaca and at Cuzco. This empire was overthrown about 1000 A. D., and about 1230 the Inca Empire was established at Cuzco. A wonderful system of roads and bridges was built through the mountains, temples and fortresses were built with marvelous skill. The workers in metals showed great variety and originality of design, while the textiles which have survived show perfection of technique and pattern. A carefully planned system of land tenure and colonization provided for all the wants of the people. The native government, however, was fierce and tyrannical.

The Spaniards entered Peru in 1527. Just before their coming a civil war had raged between Huascar and Atahualpa, and the people were divided. By 1533 the Spanish conquest was completed. Quito, northern Ecuador, part of New Granada, Charcas (modern Bolivia), and northern Chile had been invaded and conquered. In 1535 Pizarro founded Lima and made it his capital. The abundance of gold excited the Spaniards and they treated the natives with cruelty unusual even for them. Peru was made a viceroyalty which included the whole of Spanish South America, but in 1718 New Granada was set off; in 1776 La Plata, and even Chile and Quito, were not wholly subordinate.

In 1780 the Indian natives, always numerous, but as a rule not formidable to the Spanish ascendancy, rose in rebellion under their hero, Tupac Amaru. The insurgents, however, were not able to hold their own against the Spaniards and were left in a worse condition than before.

When the insurrections against Spanish rule broke out in the north and east, Peru was the center of the Spanish power in South America and the Spanish military strength was concentrated at Lima. Consequently the risings in the more distant provinces such as Chile and Buenos Aires were successful. Independence, however, depended on destroying the power of the viceroy at Lima.

San Martín, the Argentine general, brought a contingent of the Argentine army across the Andes and the Chilean troops landed on the Peruvian coast in 1820, protected by a fleet of armed ships under the command of Lord Cochrane, an Englishman. San Martín was enthusiastically received and proclaimed the independence of Peru at Lima, July 28, 1821. The Spanish rallied after one defeat, but Bolivar arrived at Lima to organize an attack upon the Spanish viceroy in the interior. In 1824 the final battle of Ayacucho was fought, in which the viceroy and all his officers were taken prisoners and the Spanish power finally was overthrown. In 1826 Callao, the last Spanish port in South America, was evacuated.

For five years Simon Bolivar ruled Peru with dictatorial power. When he retired in 1826 a revolt broke out and a disastrous war was waged with Colombia. From 1835 to 1839 Peru was joined with Bolivia under the rule of Andrés Santa Cruz, who was overthrown by the intervention of Chile.

It was only after 1845 that order was restored in Peru, but here, as in the other countries of South America, the people divided into factions and presidents were made and deposed by military violence. No stable government was secured in Peru.

In 1864 Spain seized the Chincha Islands which had valuable guano deposits, intending to hold them until the Spanish claims against Peru should be satisfied. Although the islands were restored, a body of Peruvian revolutionists declared war against Spain, and the Spanish admiral bombarded Callao. In 1868 an era of speculation began which continued until 1876 when a financial crisis produced general bankruptcy, and then war with Chile broke out.

Chile alleged that Peru and Bolivia had formed an alliance against her, but the true object was to obtain possession of the rich deposits of guano and the nitrate beds on the Bolivian and Peruvian coasts. Severe fighting occurred between 1873 and 1883 and both Bolivia and Peru were crushed. By the treaty of 1883 Chile obtained absolute cession of the province Tarapacá and ten years occupation of the districts of Tacna and Arica, the ownership of which was to be decided by a popular vote at the expiration of the period, a vote which was never taken.

From this war Peru has not yet recovered. Boundary disputes with Bolivia, 1908, Brazil, 1910, and Ecuador, 1911, have been settled by arbitration, and revolutions have been frequent, the last in 1919. In 1918 war threatened between Chile and Peru, but through the influence of the United States the differences were settled and the United States acted as mediator in the boundary dispute.

Organization.

Government. According to the constitution (1920), the legislative power is vested in a Senate of 57 elected by direct vote and a House of Representatives (128) composed of deputies of the provinces in the proportion of one for every 30,000 inhabitants. Every two years one third of the members of each chamber, as decided by lot, retire. The executive power is in the hands of a president elected for five years and not immediately reëligible. The peace establishment of the army is 11,000, the police force organized as soldiers is 8,000, the navy consists now of six vessels. In no Latin-American state do the actualities of despotic military government differ more from the paper constitution.

Education and Religion. By the constitution there is absolute political and religious liberty. Roman Catholicism is the religion of the state. Elementary education is by law compulsory, but the law is not enforced. In 1919 there were 2,880 primary schools with 195,000 pupils, and in 1916 5,000 pupils were registered in the government high schools, for which a moderate tuition is charged. There is a central university at Lima with 1,500 students.

Industry and Labor. The chief agricultural products of Peru are cotton, coffee, and sugar. The coffee culture, under the management of the Peruvian corporation, is leading to the development of the country by the construction of roads and bridges. Rice and cocoa are also produced and cocaine is manufactured at Lima. Peru is rich in minerals and produces over $20,000,000 worth of copper, $10,000,000 worth of petroleum, $8,000,000 worth of silver, although the gold mines have almost ceased to be profitable.

The **area** of Peru is 722,461 square miles, but the boundaries of some portions are not yet determined. The last census was taken in 1876 and showed a **population** of 2,660,881; the Lima Geographical Society estimated in 1896 that the population was 4,620,201, but there are grave doubts whether the population is actually increasing.

Chronology.

1527–1533. **Conquest of Peru** by Pizarro and Almagro. Overthrow of Inca quasi civilization.
1533. *June 23.* Atahualpa, the Inca, murdered by Pizarro.
1535. *Jan. 18.* **Lima founded.**
1538. *April 26.* Pizarro executes Almagro.
1541. *June 26.* Almagro's followers assassinate Pizarro. **Civil wars** between factions of conquerors and between conquerors and Spanish governors continue until 1554.
1544. Viceroyalty of Peru established.
1555. *July 6.* **Hurtado de Mendoza** arrives as viceroy. He restores order.
1718. New Granada separated from Peru. [Peru.]
1776. Buenos Aires (La Plata) separated from [
1780–1783. Native revolt led by Tupac Amaru, a descendant of the Incas.
1821. *July 28.* San Martín proclaims the **Independence** of Peru.
1824. **Bolivar** dictator. December 9, independence won by defeat of Spanish at **Ayacucho.**
1826. *June.* Panama Congress (see Panama).
Sept. 3. Bolivar returns to Colombia.
1827. *Aug. 24.* Lamar elected president.
1828. *March 21.* New constitution.
1829. *June 7.* Lamar deposed. August 31, Gamarra elected president. **Disturbed conditions** continue until 1845; during which control is held by Gamarra (1829–1833, 1839–1841), Orbegozo (1833–1835), Salaverry (1835–1836), Santa Cruz (1836–1839), and Menéndez (1841–1844).
1835–1839. Santa Cruz and Bolivia (see Bolivia).
1845. *April 20.* **Castilla** elected president. He inaugurates a period of peace and prosperity.
1852. Echenique succeeds to presidency.
1854. Revolt drives Echenique from power. Castilla again president, January, 1855.
1862. San Román succeeds as president.
1863. *April 3.* President San Román dies; Vice President **Pérez** succeeds.
1864. *April 14.* Spaniards seize the Chincha (Guano) Islands as security for a claim. Chile and other states support Peru.
1865. *Jan. 28.* Pérez signs a peace with Spain. Very unpopular; Pérez overthrown by a revolt and **Prado** made dictator, November 26. December 5, treaty of offensive alliance with Chile against Spain. Ecuador also joins it.
1866. *Jan. 14.* **War declared on Spain.** Spanish fleet bombards Callao, May 2, but is repulsed. No further Peruvian hostilities.
1867. New constitution continues establishment of Catholic Church with **intolerance**; but practically Protestantism is permitted.
May. Castilla heads a revolt, but his death ends it. In December Balta leads another one, and Prado resigns in January, 1868.
1868. *Aug. 2.* **Balta** inaugurated **president.** Policy of extravagant public works.
1872. *July.* Minister of War Gutiérrez imprisons Balta, has him assassinated, and is himself lynched. August 2, Manuel **Pardo** inaugurated constitutional **president.** [dency.]
1876. *Aug. 2.* **Prado** succeeds regularly to presi-
1879. *Dec. 22.* Pierola proclaimed dictator, Prado having fled. **Government** is in complete **confusion** during the war and after.
1879–1883. **Chilean War** (see Chile).
1883. *January.* Iglesias elected president under Chilean control. Cáceres resists his authority.
1885. *Dec. 2.* Both Iglesias and Cáceres renounce control; junta rules.
1886. *June 3.* **Cáceres** elected **president.** He gradually restores order.
1887. *Aug. 1.* **Treaty with Ecuador** for arbitration of boundary dispute. Not effectual
1889. *Oct. 2.* First Pan-American Congress opens at Washington (see United States).
1890. *Aug. 10.* Bermúdez succeeds as president.
1894. *March 31.* Bermúdez dies. In May Cáceres proclaims himself president. **Civil war** breaks out under Pierola.
1895. *March 21.* Foreign legations mediate a peace after fierce fighting for Lima. Cáceres retires. Provisional junta governs.
Sept. 8. **Pierola** inaugurated constitutional **president.** Reforms and a few outbreaks.
1899. *Sept. 8.* Romaña installed president.
1903. *Sept. 8.* Candamo becomes president.
Nov. 14. **Boundary treaty** (Acre) with **Brazil** (see Brazil).
1904. *May 7.* Candamo dies. September 24, José **Pardo** inaugurated **president.**
1908. *Sept. 24.* **Legula** succeeds to presidency.
1909. Decision in Bolivian boundary dispute (see Argentina).
April 21. **Colombian treaty** to settle boundary. Controversy with **Ecuador** over **boundary** remains, while the question of **Tacna and Arica** with Chile is a constant irritation.
1912. *Sept. 24.* Billinghurst becomes president.
1914. *February.* **Military revolt** under Benavides; Billinghurst imprisoned, deposed, and exiled. Benavides provisional president, May 18.
1915. *Aug. 18.* **Pardo** again inaugurated president.
October. Congress finally passes a religious liberty amendment; but President Pardo neither signs nor vetoes it.
1917. *Oct. 5.* Peru severs diplomatic relations with **Germany** over sinking of Peruvian ship *Lorton.*
1918. *June 14.* Possession is taken of 8 interned German ships (50,000 tons).
November. Anti-Peruvian riots in Chile over **Tacna-Arica question** threaten war. Good services of United States quiet matters.
1919. *Jan. 13.* General strike at Lima and Callao inaugurates a year of **Industrial unrest.**
Jan. 18. Peru has a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.
May. Another general strike at Lima. Lasts a week, then called off. Martial law, suppression of a newspaper and other actions cause controversy between judicial and executive departments.
July 4. Because of a disputed presidential election **Cáceres** heads a **revolt.** Pardo exiled. **Legula,** Independent candidate for presidency, claims election and assumes provisional control.
September. General Gorgas of Panama Canal fame agrees to plan and supervise a sanitary system for Peru.
Sept. 27. Congress legalizes all of Leguia's acts.
Oct. 10. Government, following further strikes, promulgates a decree of compulsory arbitration.
Oct. 12. **Legula,** after a further election, inaugurated, under a constitutional amendment, **president** for 5 years.
Nov. 17. Peru ratifies Treaty of Versailles, including the League of Nations. [Bolivia.]
1920. **Chile-Bolivia-Peruvian question** (see
Jan. 15. Constitutional reforms proclaimed.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

See under United States, page 210.

POLAND.

Historical Outline.

The state of Poland originated in the Slav migrations of the 6th century and occupied the inland plains which are drained by the Vistula River. Here in the 10th century a Slavic state under the Piast dynasty was founded, which checked the Teutonic movement to the east. In the year 1000 A. D. the Emperor Otto III. recognized Boleslaus I. as king of Poland. During the 12th century the Piast dynasty declined and Poland was broken up into several principalities. In the 13th century the terrible Tatar invasion ravaged and depopulated the land.

The Poles were now so weak that they became a prey to the heathen Lithuanians and Old Prussians. These peoples were a separate branch of the Aryan race, being neither Slav nor Teuton. They lived along the southeastern coast of the Baltic Sea. To protect themselves from the invasions of these people, the Poles called in the Teutonic Knights, a Germanic crusading order pledged to subjugate or convert the Lithuanians. The Teutonic Knights established themselves on the lower Vistula, and in a series of ferocious wars almost exterminated the Old

Prussians, whose territory was resettled by German emigrants.

This influx of Germans drew together the Poles and Lithuanians, who had nominally accepted Christianity. In 1386 the Lithuanian Prince Jagello married the daughter of the Polish king, and Poland and Lithuania were united against the Germans. This kingdom of Poland-Lithuania waged a terrible struggle with the Teutonic Knights, whom they finally defeated at the battle of the Tannenberg in 1410; and in 1466 a peace was made by which the Teutonic Knights ceded West Prussia to Poland, but retained East Prussia as vassal of the Polish crown. Poland thus gained access to the sea. Under Polish rule West Prussia became partly Polonized, although the towns, especially Danzig, remained German.

Under the Jagellon dynasty a succession of able kings made Poland-Lithuania a great power. Although the old Polish provinces of Pomerania and Silesia were not recovered, the union with Lithuania brought an immense extent of territory to the east. Russia, which had just suffered from the terrible Tatar invasions, lost to Lithuania the territory beyond the Dnieper, almost as far as the Black Sea. This immense region was occupied by the Poles and Lithuanians who cruelly oppressed the Russian peasants and reduced them to a condition of serfdom.

The Jagellon dynasty became extinct in 1572, and thenceforward the Polish nobility, 60,000 in all, had the right to elect a king. The nobles split into factions and the country was plunged into anarchy. The principle of "*liberum veto*," or unanimous consent, crippled the government and led to violence and despotism. Poland's weakness attracted the greed of the great powers.

In 1772 Russia, Prussia, and Austria united in despoiling Poland by carving out the First Partition. Russia received the eastern part of Lithuania; Austria, East Galicia; Prussia, most of Polish Prussia. In the Second Partition (1793) Russia took the greater part of Lithuania; Prussia, Danzig, and Thorn, and the whole of Great Poland, which became Southern Prussia. In 1795, by the Third Partition, Poland ceased to exist as an independent state; Prussia took the region between the Vistula and the Bug and Niemen and part of Cracow; Austria took West Galicia; and Russia, all that remained. During the Napoleonic wars the kingdom of Poland was temporarily revived as the Duchy of Warsaw, but the Congress of Vienna redrew the lines of division, giving the larger share, including Warsaw, to Russia; while Prussia and Austria got comparatively little.

The annihilation of the Polish state did not extinguish the Polish nationality. Old Poland had been divided between the tyrannical aristocrats and the peasants. Under foreign control all classes alike suffered oppression and felt a common grievance. In 1830 the Russian Poles, exasperated by the report that the czar was to use their army to coerce the Belgians, broke into revolt. The Russian grand duke fled from Warsaw and open war ensued.

On the suppression of the rebellion Russian Poland was made a Russian province and severe measures were taken to stamp out all national sentiments. The universities were closed, the church harshly treated, and the Polish recruits drilled in the Russian army. Alexander II. attempted a more liberal policy, but an insurrection broke out in 1863 and caused a return to the harsh methods. However, the suppression of the nobility and gentry has caused an improvement in the economic position of the Lithuanian and Polish peasants.

In that part of Poland which fell to Prussia similar attempts at breaking down the national spirit were made. The German language was taught in the schools and German colonists were settled in the territory. In Austria, however, the Poles were treated more liberally and practically given autonomy in Galicia. Yet the Poles of all sections never lost the hope of a united and independent Poland.

The World War was Poland's opportunity. In March, 1915, Russia at last granted to Poland a limited form of self-government, hoping to prevent the Poles from becoming allies of the Central Powers, who had invaded Poland and were rapidly driving the Russians back. By the end of 1915, the Germans and Austrians occupied the whole country, and on November 5, 1916, the Central Powers proclaimed the independence of Poland, but neither determined the boundaries nor established a constitution. In October, 1918, a constituent assembly was elected to frame a constitution establishing universal suffrage, male and female, direct, secret, and proportional. By the treaties formed at the Peace Conference at Paris, in 1919, Germany and the Allied powers recognized the independence of Poland and agreed to accept whatever boundaries the Allied powers should determine. The city and port of Danzig, however, was established as a free city under the protection of Poland.

Organization.

Government. Poland is now a republic under a president and a Council of Ministers who are responsible to Parliament. Ignace Paderewski was the first prime minister; Joseph Pilsudski president.

Industry and Labor. Poland is an important agricultural country, her principal crops being rye, wheat, oats, and barley. There are important mines, particularly coal, iron, and zinc; and in Galicia oil is found. Textile industries are important, and Lódź in Russian Poland was the center of the iron industry.

Religion. The great majority of the people are Roman Catholics, but there is no established church and all denominations are tolerated. Fierce prejudice against the Jews has led to many attacks.

Education. In former Russian and Austrian Poland there were in 1919 over 10,000 public schools, with an attendance of over 1,600,000. The University of Warsaw had, in 1916–17, 2,500 students.

A Polish estimate gives the probable **area** of the new Republic as 141,854 square miles and the **population** about 30,000,000.

Chronology.

1386. *Feb. 15.* **Union of Poland and Lithuania** by crowning of Jagello, grand duke of Lithuania; becomes also king of Poland as Ladislas II. Beginning of the history of Poland as a great power.

1569. *July 1.* **Union of Lublin** (Lyublin) makes Poland one indivisible body politic; brought about by Sigismund II., last of the Jagellos. Diet has become very powerful, but the constitution is not practicable, especially because of the elective monarchy and necessity of unanimous vote in the Diet, which assist in the **decline,** speeded by the undisciplined character of the Polish nobility, who are the constitutional members of the republic.

1648–1651. Cossack rebellion, first step in the dissolution of Poland.

1654. Cossacks transfer allegiance to Russia; Russia invades Poland.

1655. Charles X. of Sweden also invades Poland; country is completely overrun by Muscovites and Swedes, but both are finally checked.

1667. *Feb. 11.* Truce of Andrusovo; Poland yields Kiev and left bank of Dnieper to Russia. Corruption, foreign intrigue, open barter of crown, and factional contests hasten **decline of the kingdom.**

1700–1720. Poland is chief sufferer in the Swedish wars (see SWEDEN).

1772–1796. Three **partitions of Poland** (see RUSSIA). Disappears from the map as a nation.

1807–1812. Duchy of Warsaw is constituted by Napoleon out of Russian Poland; feeble, and mere recruiting ground for French army.

1815. *June 9.* Final act of **Congress of Vienna divides Poland** again between Austria, Russia, and Prussia on a different basis (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD), except the minute republic of Cracow. Main portion of Russian share (except Lithuania) is formed into **kingdom of Poland** with czar as ruler, in personal union.

Nov. 30. **Constitution granted** by the czar; includes national Diet, Polish language, flag, and army, Catholic religious establishment; but king and Diet soon at odds.

1830–1831. Polish revolt (see RUSSIA), following which the kingdom loses its autonomy and becomes a mere **province of Russia,** where Russification becomes an established but not successful policy, just as in German and Austrian Poland Germanizing is attempted.

1846. *Nov. 6.* Austria occupies Cracow, with consent of Prussia and Russia; Poland entirely extinguished again.

1863–1864. Second Polish revolt (see RUSSIA). Continued policy of Russification; always unsuccessful.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

1914. *Aug. 15.* **Czar promises autonomy** and other privileges to retain allegiance of Poland.

1915. Russians in retreat **lay waste Poland.**

Aug. 5. **Germany occupies Warsaw.** This control is at first in some respects propitious; **Polish** is ordered **taught in the schools;** but requisitions and taxation are laid on the already devastated country; Germanizing and checking of Polish industries encourage emigration of Polish laborers to Germany.

1916. *Nov. 5.* Central Powers proclaim the **"Polish State,"** to be erected out of Russian Poland only, and requiring the raising of an army to be under the control of the Central Powers. **Pilsudski,** chief Polish leader, prevents the formation of any such army. The new "State" does not meet with Polish approval. Austrian plan of a union of Russian Poland with Galicia as a third Hapsburg group is rejected by Germany.

1917. *Jan. 22.* President Wilson advocates a united independent Poland.

March 29. Revolutionary Russia proclaims Poland independent and asks for a "free military union"; no more acceptable to the Poles than the German plan.

June 4. France creates an autonomous Polish army under French command at the western front.

Sept. 12. Central Powers drop the "Polish State" project, and organize a **regency council** of three, with an administrative council and a limited parliament (which does not meet). Real control remains with the Central Powers as before. Pilsudski is imprisoned in Germany, and greater repression is exercised.

1918. *Jan. 8.* United independent Poland is one of Wilson's "fourteen points."

Feb. 9. Ukraine peace treaty with Central Powers gives Polish Kholm to Ukraine. Polish protest is so great that the provision is modified, February 18.

March 3. In Treaty of Brest-Litovsk Bolsheviki surrender all of Russian Poland to the control of the Central Powers.

June 22. Polish army in France is made an independent organization under its own officers.

Oct. 16. Great Britain recognizes the **Polish National Army,** made up of various detachments in France, Italy, and Russia, as autonomous, allied, and cobelligerent. Other Allies and United States do likewise soon afterwards.

Nov. 3–11. Austrian and German armistices call for evacuation of Russian Poland, with free access of Allies. Ruthenians in **Galicia** declare for union with Ukraine, and Poles there join Poland; armed **conflict** results. In Posen (Prussian Poland) there is also strife between Germans and Poles. (For other contests and relations, see CZECHO-SLOVAKIA and LITHUANIA.)

Nov. 14. Regency Council resigns in favor of **Pilsudski,** who becomes **dictator.**

1919. *Jan. 18.* Pilsudski, while remaining head of the state and army, surrenders control to a coalition **ministry** under **Paderewski.** Poland is represented at the Peace Conference.

Jan. 29. United States recognizes the provisional government of Poland.

Feb. 9. Constituent Assembly meets, elected by a wide suffrage including women and Jews. Majority supports the ministry.

Feb. 12. Special mission arrives at Warsaw from Peace Conference to investigate various conflicts between Poland and Germany, Czechs, Ruthenians, Ukrainians, and Bolsheviki. Conflicts continue.

Feb. 21. Supreme Council at Paris decides to recognize Paderewski's government.

May. Conflict in Galicia is favorable to Polish arms; control is gained of the oil fields.

June 28. By Treaty of Versailles **Germany cedes Posen and West Prussia to Poland;** plebiscites to be held in Upper Silesia and southern half of East Prussia. **Danzig** a **free city,** but practically a Polish port. Vistula River is internationalized. Poland's eastern boundaries left unsettled pending reconstitution of Russia. At same time Poland signs the treaty required of all new eastern nations to **protect minority races** against discrimination; especially important because of the accusation of anti-Jewish agitation and pogroms.

August. Armed conflict between Poles and Germans in Upper Silesia.

Sept. 10. In the Saint-Germain peace treaty Austria agrees to such Galician boundaries as are assigned to Poland.

Nov. 21. Supreme Council gives Poland **control of Eastern Galicia** for 25 years.

Dec. 7. Paderewski ministry resigns; Skulski becomes premier. **Pilsudski leading spirit.**

1920. *April.* Poles advance in connection with the Ukrainians, and take Kiev. Look to establishing power over large non-Polish territory. Are thrown back and evacuate their conquests.

PORTO RICO.

See under UNITED STATES, page 211.

PORTUGAL.

Historical Outline.

PORTUGAL is one of the oldest states of Europe, the *Portus Galorum* of the Romans, yet it has had a very recent political development. Under the Roman Empire the country, then occupied by Gallic peoples, was called Lusitania. Afterwards it was a Visigothic dependency. Later it resisted the surrounding Moors. In the eleventh century it came into the hands of the Duke of Burgundy, and was recognized in 1143 as an independent kingdom under Alfonso I. The Burgundian dynasty ended in 1385 with the accession of John I. of the House of Aviz.

This was the age of discovery. Prince Henry the Navigator, the son of John, initiated and supported a series of voyages along the coast of Africa, which culminated in the voyage of Da Gama to India (1497). This expansion went on during the reign of Emanuel, the Great or Happy (1495–1521), and the Portuguese Empire was founded which included valuable possessions in India, the East, Africa, and Brazil.

In 1581 Philip II. of Spain forced Portugal to recognize his authority; for nearly 60 years it was a Spanish dependency and Spain took possession of much of the Portuguese eastern empire. In 1640

the nation rebelled, and the Duke of Braganza was proclaimed king under the title of John IV. Independence was won by the decisive battle of Monte Claros (1665). During the seventeenth century the Spanish Bourbons long hoped to reëstablish the Spanish ascendancy and their policy was hostile toward Portugal in 1737 when formal independence was proclaimed. At this time the reigning sovereign was John V., whose high character and influence were recognized throughout Europe.

Meanwhile the seafaring and adventures in the East reacted upon the national intellect, and an age of literature and art was opened. Lisbon in the sixteenth century was one of the intellectual centers of Europe, the home of poets, historians, and philosophers, of whom Camoëns is the most celebrated.

In 1750 Joseph I. became king — a reign of disaster. Lisbon was wrecked by the earthquake of 1755; and one half of the capital was destroyed. The authority of the state passed into the hands of the ecclesiastics and the monarchy was dependent on foreign support. The Marquis of Pombal reformed the financial and commercial system, established sugar, silk, and woolen industries, fostered colonial development and tried to establish commercial independence. The order of the Jesuits was expelled from Portugal and the funds obtained from the confiscation of the property were used for education.

Portugal had long been a kind of trade dependency of England. During the French Revolution Portugal remained neutral until 1801 when a Franco-Spanish army compelled Portugal to cede a frontier fortress to Spain, to pay an indemnity, and to exclude British ships from the ports. In 1808 Portugal was in the hands of the French. Napoleon declared that the House of Braganza (Bragança) had forfeited its throne. The Braganza family fled to Brazil and for nearly fifteen years remained in Rio de Janeiro.

In the meantime the British had driven the French from Portugal and under a new constitution (1821) John VI. resumed the throne. His son, Dom Pedro, remained behind, first as prince regent and later as emperor of Brazil (see Brazil). When his father died, in 1826, Dom Pedro might have become king of Portugal, but he chose to send his daughter Maria instead. Her younger brother, Dom Miguel, usurped the throne, but England compelled him to yield.

Frequent revolutions and insurrections occurred until 1870. In 1889 Carlos I. succeeded to the throne. His country was involved in disputes with Great Britain and Germany over African territory, and more than one collision took place between the Portuguese and the British forces; in 1893 these boundary disputes were settled. In 1892 the extravagant management of the railways which were guaranteed by the state caused such a deficit that the Portuguese government committed a formal act of bankruptcy by issuing a decree reducing the amount then due to foreign bondholders by two thirds.

The political condition of Portugal was unhealthy. The two regular parties were run by professional politicians, who manipulated the election returns and kept out Republican and Independent candidates. Finally, in 1906, a dictatorship was established under João Franco, a man conspicuous for his integrity, energy, and courage, who set out to reform the national finances and administration. King Carlos was accused of financial irregularity and attacked by the Republicans. Passion rose to the point where the king and the crown prince were assassinated (1908) and the second son, Manuel, became king. A coalition ministry representing all parties was formed and Manuel swore to uphold the constitution. In 1910 the Republican soldiers at Lisbon, aided by the warships, attacked the municipal guards and after severe street fighting became masters of the capital. The king fled to England and a republic was proclaimed, which was officially recognized by the powers.

The life of the new republic has not been tranquil. The separation of church and state was decreed and the monks and nuns expelled. Monarchist outbreaks occurred from time to time, and one president, Doctor Sidonio Paes, was assassinated (1918). With the outbreak of the World War, Portugal announced its intention of fulfilling its treaty obligations to Great Britain in 1916. The German ships lying in Portuguese harbors were seized, Germany declared war, and Portuguese regiments were sent to the lines in northern France.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of 1911 provides for two chambers: a National Council of 164 elected by direct suffrage for three years; and a second chamber of 71 elected by the municipal councils and renewable half at a time every three years. The president of the republic is elected by both chambers for four years, but cannot be reëlected. The president appoints the ministers, but they are responsible to and may be removed by Parliament.

Industry and Labor. The industries of Portugal are all about the same as those of Spain, but on the whole the methods of production are less advanced. Agriculture is backward. There is a bad system of land ownership. Only recently has free ownership become the right of the people. The chief agricultural products are wheat, rye, and oats; wine is also produced in large quantities, as is olive oil and figs and other fruits. A fifth of the area of the country is covered by forests; the cork furnishes one of the principal sources of wealth. Portugal has minerals, but because of the lack of coal and cheap transportation many of the most valuable mines are unworked. The fisheries are important, especially of sardines and tunny fish. The most characteristic Portuguese industry is the manufacture of *azulejos*, or porcelain tiles, an art inherited from the Moors.

Religion. Before the establishment of the republic the national religion was Roman Catholic, although other forms of faith and practice were tolerated. The great number of monasteries and convents exercised influence not only in religion, but in politics. With the establishment of the republic state support for the maintenance of the church was abolished. The conventual establishments of Portugal were nominally suppressed by a decree in 1834 and their property was supposed to be confiscated for the benefit of the state. Nevertheless, several such establishments were formed in later years, and later suppressed by the Republicans.

Education. There are three kinds of education in Portugal: (1) Primary, which is compulsory and rigorously enforced. In 1915 there were more than 6,700 elementary schools. (2) Secondary, which includes 32 secondary schools, with more than 11,000 students, the teachers for which are trained in the normal departments of the universities of Lisbon and Coimbra. (3) Higher, which was reorganized in 1911. There are now three universities — at Lisbon, Coimbra, and Oporto — with various faculties. There is also a technical school at Lisbon, special colleges for music and art, and a military academy.

Defense. The army of Portugal is raised by conscription and all adult males are liable to service between the ages of 17 and 45, but practically service begins at the age of 20. Service is required in the active army for ten years, ten years in the reserve, and eight in the territorial army. In the active army the recruits undergo a preliminary training from 15 to 30 weeks. Afterwards there are two weeks of training during the annual mobilization. The peace establishment of the active army consists of 30,000 men, but during the World War 65,000 men were sent to France, and 35,000 European troops served in Angola and Mozambique. The Portuguese navy consists of three protected cruisers, a variety of old gunboats, five destroyers, and four submarines.

The **area** of Portugal (including the Azores and Madeira) is 35,490 square miles and the **population** in 1911 was 5,957,985.

PORTUGUESE DEPENDENCIES.

The colonial empire of Portugal comprises 936,000 square miles with a population of about 8,735,000 It includes possessions both in Africa and Asia. On August 15, 1914, partial autonomy was granted to all Portuguese colonies; they have the right to establish their own codes of laws.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

In India Portugal still holds **Goa**, on the Malabar coast, captured by Albuquerque in 1510 and formerly the capital of the Portuguese Empire in the East; **Daman**, north of Bombay, and **Diu**, a small island west of Daman. Besides the salt works in these colonies, in 1906 deposits of manganese were discovered. In China Portugal holds **Macao**, situated on an island at the mouth of the Si (West) River, near Canton. In the Malay Archipelago Portugal still controls the eastern portion of the island of **Timor**, the chief exports from which are coffee, sandalwood, and copra.

POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

These comprise: (1) the **Cape Verde Islands**, fourteen in number, which produce coffee, medicinal produce, hides, and millet. (2) **Portuguese Guinea** on the coast of Senegambia, which produces rubber, wax, oil seeds, ivory, and hides. (3) The islands of **Saint Thomas** (**São Thomé**) and **Principe** in the Gulf of Guinea. The islands are hilly and the vegetation is rich, the chief commercial products being cocoa, coffee, and rubber. (4) **Angola** (**Portuguese West Africa**), which has a coast line of over a thousand miles, lies between the French Equatorial Africa and British South Africa and has a population of more than 4,000,000. The chief products are coffee, rubber, sugar, vegetable oils, and ivory. The rubber supply is becoming exhausted, but cotton growing is increasing. There are also valuable mineral deposits. (5) **Mozambique** (**Portuguese East Africa**) lies between British Central and South Africa and what was formerly German East Africa. Three distinct provinces occupy the total area of 426,000 square miles. The chief products of the provinces are sugar, coconuts, beeswax, and mining products. Valuable gold deposits and coal have been discovered. The chief port is Lourenço Marques. Considerable progress has been made in building railways.

For Portuguese possessions and interests in India, see India.

Chronology.

For earlier events, see Medieval Period, *Chronology*, and Early Modern Period, *Chronology*.

1650. War with Spain, begun in 1640 for the recovery of independence of Portugal, carried on by John IV. [II. of England.]

1662. Catherine of Braganza espoused by Charles

1668. *Feb. 13.* Treaty of Lisbon. Spain recognizes **independence of Portugal.**

1693. Discovery of gold in Brazil; brings in vast revenues to the crown.

1697. Last meeting of Cortes for over a century.

1703. *May.* Portugal enters **War of the Spanish Succession** as ally of England. December 27, Methuen commercial treaty with England.

1713. *April 11.* Portugal a signatory of the Treaty of Utrecht. [Utrecht.]

1715. *Feb. 6.* War with Spain ended by Treaty of

1750–1777. Marquis of **Pombal** chief minister. Period of reform.

1755. *Nov. 1.* **Earthquake** almost completely **destroys Lisbon.** [Joseph I.]

1758. *September.* Assassins attempt to kill King

1759. Jesuits expelled from Portugal.

1762. Force of Spaniards with French allies invades Portugal, but the British interfere, and a treaty is signed at Fontainebleau, November 3, by Spain, France, Great Britain, and Portugal.

1801. Short **war with Spain.** Portugal loses district of Olivenza.

1807. *November.* Junot leads the **French** in an **invasion of Portugal,** and **John VI. and court set sail for Brazil** (for relations with Portugal, see Brazil). Lisbon is occupied by the French army. (For Wellington's campaign in Portugal, 1808–1812, see France.)

1814. Portugal cedes Guiana back to France.

1820. Revolution breaks out in Oporto and a constitutional junta established.

1821. John VI. returns from Brazil, and makes modifications in the constitution.

Brazil becomes independent (see Brazil).

1826. *March 10.* John VI. dies and is succeeded by his son **Pedro I.** of Brazil, who **abdicates** the Portuguese throne in favor of his daughter, **Maria II.**

1828. Miguel, the regent, usurps the throne. Portugal calls on Great Britain for aid, and British troops are sent against the usurper.

1831. Pedro of Brazil returns to Portugal to oppose Miguel.

1834. *April 22.* Treaty signed by Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, in opposition to Miguel. In May the regent makes his submission, Maria being declared of age in September.

1846. Revolution, fomented by Liberals; queen calls for aid. Spain enforces a temporary peace.

1851. Insurrectionists under Saldanha force the queen to dismiss her minister, Costa Cabral; Saldanha becomes administrator of the government.

1853. *Nov. 15.* Maria II. dies; succeeded by her son, **Pedro V.,** with the prince consort as regent.

1861. *Nov. 11.* Pedro V. dies; succeeded by his brother, **Luiz I.** [is overthrown.]

1870. Saldanha leads a military insurrection, but

1872. Fire destroys a great part of Lisbon. Conspiracy is discovered in the army. [**Carlos.**]

1889. *Oct. 19.* Luiz I. dies; succeeded by his son,

1892. Failure of the Royal Portuguese Railroad to pay the interest on its bonds precipitates a **financial crisis,** involving the overthrow of the ministry and commercial troubles.

1896. Rebellions in the Portuguese **colonies.** Insurrections in East Africa and in Goa and Timor.

1907. *May 10.* King dissolves the Cortes; Premier Franco thereafter acts without reference to the Assembly. Great dissatisfaction, riots, and other disorders.

1908. *Feb. 1.* **Carlos I.** and Prince Luiz **assassinated.** February 2, surviving son proclaimed king as **Manuel II.** Premier Franco resigns and a generally liberal ministry formed.

1909. *Jan. 8.* Plot to dethrone Manuel II.

April 7. Telles forms a new cabinet, but Dec. 22, under Beirão a new Liberal ministry comes in.

1910. *Oct. 4.* **Revolution at Lisbon** begins with an attack from the warships in the harbor. The king escapes to England. **Republic proclaimed** October 5, with **Braga as president.** October 8, the provisional government at Lisbon decrees the expulsion of monks and nuns, and, October 28, the total separation of church and state. Oct. 30, ex-premier Franco arrested for alleged abuse of power.

1911. *Jan. 29.* Pension granted to King Manuel.

May 28. Assembly elections result in an overwhelming victory for the Republican government. June 19, **first constituent assembly opened.**

August–September. **Republic officially recognized** by the United States and European powers.

Aug. 24. **Arriaga** elected **president.**

Sept. 2. Cabinet formed by Premier Chagas. In September and October, royalist demonstra-

1911 (*continued*).
tions occur, chiefly in the northern mountainous country. November 8, Premier Chagas and his cabinet resign. Vasconcellos heads the new ministry. [ues. More bishops expelled.]

1912. *January.* **Hostility to the clergy** contin-

Jan. 29. **Martial law** declared in **Lisbon** on account of strike riots; transit facilities suspended and theaters closed.

June. Ministerial crisis overcome by formation of a coalition ministry with Leite as premier.

1913. *January.* **Severe treatment of political prisoners** calls forth the censure of the foreign and domestic press.

Jan. 8. Cabinet under Costa, leader of the Democrats, succeeds the Leite ministry.

June–July. **Outbreaks of anarchists** or syndicalists. [guese legation at the Vatican.]

June 19. Parliament votes to abolish Portu-

Oct. 20. **Monarchist outbreaks** in Lisbon. Expected support from the north not arriving, movement fails.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 8.* On outbreak of World War government announces intention of fulfilling its treaty obligations to Great Britain.

Nov. 22. Parliament authorizes the government to aid Great Britain " at the proper time " in the war with Germany.

1915. *Jan. 25.* Continho ministry resigns, and **Castro** forms nonpartisan cabinet.

March 5. **Revolutionary government,** known as the " Republic of Northern Portugal," proclaimed, with Barreto as president. May 15, revolution extends to Lisbon and other cities against Premier Castro. May 16, President Arriaga continued in office by revolutionists. **Castro** ministry **overthrown,** and a new cabinet headed by Chagas is formed. Premier is shot and seriously wounded a few hours after assuming office. May 20, revolutionary committee dissolved; general quiet prevails. May 25, Chagas resigns premiership. May 27, President **Arriaga resigns,** and two days later **Braga** unanimously elected **president** by Congress.

June 13. Elections pass without disorder with a majority for the Democrats over the Revolutionists. [**president** by Congress.]

Aug. 6. Braga resigns, and **Machado** elected

Aug. 27. Monarchical uprising in the north.

Dec. 1. New cabinet headed by Costa.

1916. *Feb. 23.* Portuguese navy seizes 36 German and Austrian merchant ships in Portuguese ports.

March 8. **War is declared by Germany,** primarily because of the seizure of German merchant ships.

March 15. War cabinet formed, with Almeida as premier. [mier.]

1917. *April 25.* Costa succeeds Almeida as pre-

Dec. 8. **Paes,** leading **a revolutionary movement,** overthrows the Costa cabinet and arrests President Machado.

1918. *Jan. 9.* **Mutinies on warships** in Lisbon harbor, but the sailors finally consent to return to their barracks on shore.

April 28. **Paes,** leader of the December Revolution, elected **president.**

Dec. 14. President **Paes assassinated** in Lisbon. On December 16 **Canto e Castro** becomes provisional **president.** Barbosa ministry organized.

1919. Portugal mobilized 200,000 men during **World War,** of whom 8,367 were killed. War cost Portugal $140,000,000.

January. In the north monarchist forces meet with success. Barbosa ministry resigns, Relvas ministry succeeding; but people rally to support of the government and the revolt fails in February.

Jan. 18. Portugal has one, later two, delegates at the Peace Conference in Paris.

March 30. Pereira ministry formed.

Aug. 5. **Almeida** elected **president.**

1920. *March 6.* Silva ministry formed, Pereira ministry being forced out by Labor opposition. Castro ministry succeeds shortly afterwards and in turn gives place to Baptista ministry within a week. **Labor trouble** continues to be the great problem.

QUEENSLAND.

See under British Empire, page 75.

RHODESIA.

See under British Empire, page 66.

ROUMANIA.

Historical Outline.

The modern kingdom of Roumania comprises the former principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. It also includes the territory of Dobruja (Dobrogea) ceded by Turkey at the Congress of Berlin in 1878. The country lies between the Carpathians, the Pruth, the Black Sea, and the Danube.

The overwhelming majority of the population are Wallachians or Roumanians, descendants of Wallachians who include some of the descendants of Latin colonists of the Roman province of Dacia and of the Moldavians who were of Slavic stock.

Roumanian history begins with the foundation of the Wallachian state by Radul Negru in 1220. By 1526 Wallachia was conquered by the Turks. Moldavian history begins with the reign of Stephen the Great (1458–1504), after whom the country was made tributary to Turkey. By the Treaty of Adrianople (1829) Turkish troops were withdrawn from the two principalities, and Russian influence became strong. In 1848 a revolutionary movement opposed Russian domination and for a time a Russian army occupied the territory to restore order. The native princes fled to Vienna and Austria, induced the Russians to withdraw, and occupied the provinces with a force to restore order.

The Treaty of Paris (1856) established local autonomy free from Turkish influence and rectified the frontier; and in 1861 the union of the two provinces was accepted and the election of Colonel Couza as Prince Alexander Joan I. was ratified. In 1866 a revolution forced Prince Alexander to abdicate, and Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was elected domn (lord) of Roumania as Carol (Charles) I.

Roumania joined the Russian troops after Russia declared war upon Turkey in 1877. At the Treaty of San Stefano, however, Russia demanded the cession of Bessarabia by Roumania, though it was largely inhabited by Roumanians, and offered compensation in the form of the Dobruja as far as Constanţa. The Congress of Berlin revised the Treaty of San Stefano. As far as the territorial cessions were concerned Roumania's position was unchanged — she lost Bessarabia, but gained Dobruja. Her independence was recognized by the great powers and Prince Carol (Charles), who had ruled as domn since 1866, was crowned king (May 22, 1881).

During the long reign of King Charles I. (as prince, 1866–1881; as king, 1881–1914), Roumania steadily progressed and developed a lively consciousness of nationality. The fact that large numbers of people of the Roumanian race lived under Austrian rule in Transylvania and under Russia in Bessarabia led to the desire for a greater Roumania. In the first Balkan War of 1912 (see Turkey, Bulgaria, Greece, Serbia), Roumania took no part. In the second Balkan War (1913), however, Roumania attacked Bulgaria in the rear and forced the cession of a strip of territory south of the Dobruja (Dobrogea).

At the outbreak of the World War, Roumania, in common with the other Balkan states, was in a dangerous position, which was increased by the entrance of Bulgaria on the side of the Central Powers. King Charles died and his son was anti-German in sympathy. On August 27, 1916, Roumania entered the war on the side of the Allies. She invaded Transylvania and achieved some initial success. But the Dobruja was overrun by General von Mackensen with a force of Bulgarians, Turks, and Germans, and the armies from Transylvania were recalled. Von Falkenhayn, the German commander, fell upon these armies in their retreat. Bucharest was abandoned, and the whole country fell into German control. May 6, 1918, Roumania was forced to sign a definitive peace with the Central Powers, thereby losing her Black Sea coast and many important mountain passes.

On the overthrow of the Central Powers, the Roumanian people reasserted themselves. New elections were held for Parliament and a Liberal ministry was installed. The new government proposed many political and social reforms, among which were the establishment of universal suffrage and the distribution of land to the peasantry by the expropriation of the large estates. Moreover, the Liberal government sought to realize Roumania's ambition for a combination of all Roumanian people and a union was established with Transylvania, while almost constant warfare was kept up with Soviet Russia and Bolshevist Hungary, largely, however, for territorial purposes. In 1919 a Roumanian army invaded Hungary and occupied Budapest in defiance of the wishes of the Allied Powers, retreating only when Roumania had extorted territorial compensation and partial reparation for some of her suffering during the war.

Organization.

Government. The constitution of Roumania was adopted by a constituent assembly elected by universal suffrage in 1866, and has twice been modified (1879, 1884). The Senate consists (March, 1920) of 170 members elected for 8 years; the Chamber of Deputies of 347 members elected for 4 years. Since 1918 these have been elected by universal suffrage. The king has a suspensive veto over all laws passed by the Assembly and the executive power is vested in a council of ten ministers.

Industry and Labor. A good part of Roumania is like the American prairies, fertile and flat, and most of the people are engaged in agriculture. Nearly half the land, however, is held by proprietors of vast estates. There is no middle class between the large landholders and the small peasants. The important crops are wheat, corn, barley, and oats. Roumania is rich in deposits of coal, possesses a very productive oil field, and therefore was regarded as a valuable prize by the Central Powers.

Religion. The overwhelming majority of the people are adherents of the Orthodox Greek Church, although there are about 269,000 Jews and 43,000 Mohammedans. Only the clergy of the Orthodox Church are supported and recognized by the state. There is nominal toleration, but the United States government has several times protested against the discriminations applied to Jews.

Education. Education is nominally compulsory and free " wherever there are schools," but has been greatly neglected, and in 1910 only 41% of the army recruits could read or write. In 1912, however, there were over 5,000 elementary schools, with more than 600,000 pupils. The peasants are among the poorest and most ignorant in Europe. There are two universities, with nearly 4,000 students.

Defense. Before the World War military service was universal and compulsory between the ages of 21 and 46, with two or three years of active service in the ranks. By the Treaty of Bucharest the Germans reduced the army to 30,000 men and took control of the war material. After the fall of the Central Powers, the army was reorganized and 400,000 men were placed in the field. Roumania has one cruiser, several gunboats and coast-guard vessels, and a few torpedo boats.

After the second Balkan War the **area** of Roumania was about 56,000 square miles and the **population** 7,700,000. Should the annexation of Transylvania be ratified by the powers, Roumanian territory and population would be substantially increased.

Chronology.

For Roumanian history before 1860, see Bulgaria and Turkey.

1861. *Dec. 23.* The two principalities of **Wallachia and Moldavia unite** and take the name of **Roumania.**

1866. *Feb. 23.* Revolution forces Prince Alexander Joan I. (Colonel Couza) to abdicate. April 20, Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen is elected domn, or lord, of Roumania.

1871. After Franco-Prussian War Charles tries to abdicate. Popular sympathy with France.

1877. *April 16.* Secret treaty with Russia allows the Russian troops to cross Roumania against Turkey. (For Russo-Turkish War, see Turkey.)

May 21. Roumania declares its independence and sends troops to join Russian forces in Turkey.

1878. *July 13.* **Roumanian independence is recognized** by the Congress of Berlin. Bessarabia lost to Russia and Dobruja gained from Bulgaria. In Dobruja, the great naval port of Constanţa built.

1881. *March 26.* Prince Carol (Charles) proclaimed king, as Charles (Roumanian Carol) I.

1889. *March 18.* Prince Ferdinand, nephew of the childless Charles I., declared heir to the throne.

1902. *Sept. 17.* United States Secretary of State, John Hay, sends a note to the powers, urging that Roumania be compelled to ameliorate the condition of her Jewish subjects.

Dec. 27. Roumanian Senate adopts a measure providing for **naturalization of the Jews.**

1913. For second Balkan War, see Bulgaria. Lower Dobruja gained from Bulgaria.

1914. *Oct. 10.* King Charles I. dies; is succeeded by his nephew **Ferdinand.**

Dec. 22. Roumania agrees to restore to Bulgaria most of the territory acquired after the second Balkan War.

1915. *July 7.* Austro-Hungarian minister presents proposals for neutrality and facilities for supplying Turkey with munitions of war.

1916. *March 2.* Queen Elizabeth (Carmen Sylva), consort of Charles I., dies.

Aug. 17. **Secret treaty** with the Allies, under which Roumania is to enter the war; she is to receive Bukowina and most of Hungary south and east of the Tisza, including the Bánát.

Aug. 27. **Roumania enters the war** on the side of the Allies, but being assailed by Austria, Bulgaria, and finally by German troops, is **disastrously defeated.** Large part of the country occupied by the enemy and resources looted before the end of the year.

1917. **Agrarian reform:** all estates larger than 500 hectares to be divided.

July 27. Cabinet is reorganized, Bratiano remaining premier.

1918. *Feb. 17.* Russian government demands the evacuation of Bessarabia and the right to transport Russian troops through the territory.

March 5. Roumania, signing a **preliminary peace** with the Central Powers, agrees to surrender Dobruja and to accept certain economic arrangements and frontier rectifications.

May 6. **Definitive peace** with Central Powers signed at Bucharest; control of Black Sea coast and important passes lost.

1918 (*continued*).

July 31. **Agreement with the Ukraine** provides that Bessarabia shall be incorporated with Roumania.

1919. *May 28.* Royal decree **emancipates the Jews**, making them citizens.

Occupation of Hungary (see HUNGARY).

Aug. 1. Crown Prince Carol renounces the throne rather than give up a morganatic marriage contracted on August 27, 1918.

Aug. 20. Roumanian civil government is established in Bessarabia, where the Roumanians are in conflict with the Russian Bolsheviki.

November. New "cabinet of generals," headed by Vaitolano, includes members from Bessarabia, Bukowina, and Transylvania. In general elections both **Jews and peasants vote** for first time.

Nov. 1. **Bessarabia** is formally **annexed.**

Dec. 9. Roumania finally signs the **Austrian treaty of peace** (see AUSTRIA); delay due to opposition to the **protection of racial minorities** required of all the Eastern states. She is then permitted to sign the Bulgarian treaty. On the same day the Vaïda-Voévod ministry is organized.

1920. *March 15.* Averescu ministry succeeds the Vaïda-Voévod cabinet.

March 17. Agreement with the Soviet government is reported, involving recognition of Roumania's right to Bessarabia and cessation of Bolshevist activity within her territory.

RUSSIA.

Historical Outline.

THE history of Russia may be said to begin in 862, when Rurik and his two brothers, who were probably Northmen, entered Russia at the invitation of the Slav and Finnish tribes and founded a capital at Novgorod. They at once began to conquer the country, and in two centuries had established themselves at Kiev, threatened Constantinople, checked the nomadic tribes of the steppes, and formed alliances with Poland, Hungary, Norway, and France. During this period, Russia consisted of a large number of independent principalities ruled over by the descendants of Rurik, of which Novgorod was the most important.

From 1238 to 1462 Russia was overrun by the Mongols and Tatars, one tribe of whom, known as the "Golden Horde," built a capital at Sarai on the lower Volga. Their chief, Genghis Khan, created a vast empire stretching from China to the Danube. In 1380 a coalition of Russian princes under Dimitri Donskoi defeated the "Golden Horde" at Kulikovo and later (1462) the Russians under Ivan III. founded the czardom of Muscovy, the first three rulers of which had a united reign of 122 years. They established an absolute autocracy on the Asiatic model and suppressed the independent principalities.

Of these rulers Ivan IV., commonly known as Ivan the Terrible, ruled for over fifty years and first took the title of Czar of all the Russias. He unsparingly put down all movements toward independence within the empire and pushed the frontier eastward at the expense of the Tatars. Here was settled a class of Russian colonists whose descendants became the Cossacks, the best fighters in the Russian military force. Russia also attempted to expand to the west at the expense of Lithuania and thus came in conflict not only with the Lithuanians, but also with Poland and Sweden.

Ivan was succeeded by his son, Feodor I., in whose reign the agricultural laborers were forbidden to migrate from one estate to another, thereby fixing on the country the institution of serfdom. There followed a period of civil war and disorder, ending with the election of Mikhail Romanov as Czar in 1613, who founded the Romanov dynasty. This native dynasty was much Germanized by marriages with Germans. In the reign of Alexis (1645–76), the successor of Mikhail, Russia intervened in the Ukraine, and as a result of the war with Poland gained territory to the middle course of the Dnieper River, which thus became the boundary between Russia and Poland.

The great sovereign of the Romanov dynasty was Peter the Great (1682–1725), who more than any other monarch brought Western civilization to Russia. With autocratic high-handedness he abolished some of the most cherished customs, and abandoned Moscow for his newly created capital of St. Petersburg (now Petrograd), which was founded on the Neva to serve as "a window through which his people might look into Europe." In foreign affairs Peter the Great was an expansionist. At first he desired with the aid of the European powers to drive the Turk from Europe; but finding no response to this idea he turned his attention to the problem of reaching the Baltic. He made an alliance with the king of Poland by which Russia, Denmark, and Poland should acquire the Swedish provinces along the Baltic. But he had not counted upon Charles XII. of Sweden, who came to the defense of the Swedish possessions and carried on the Northern War for more than twenty years. Finally, by the Treaty of Nystad (1721), Peter acquired for Russia the provinces of Ingria, Karelia, Livonia, Esthonia, and part of Finland.

On the death of Peter the Great without male heirs, the crown passed to several sovereigns in the female line who married German princes, and German influence greatly increased. In 1762 Catherine II., a German by birth, came to the throne and followed a strong and ruthless policy which caused Russia to be recognized as one of the great powers. Peter the Great had attempted to establish some essentials of good government, to introduce the arts, and to develop the natural resources of Russia. Catherine did the same, and attempted to raise Russia to an intellectual level with western Europe. Secondary schools were founded in the principal towns, an academy was established at St. Petersburg, and a taste for French literature spread rapidly throughout Russia.

In foreign affairs Catherine pushed the frontiers of Russia south and west. Her first step was to acquire Kurland in 1795. She joined with Austria and Prussia in the first partition of Poland in 1772 (see POLAND); in the second partition of Poland, in 1793, by which Russia acquired the eastern provinces, including the Ukraine; and in the final partition, in 1795, by which Poland disappeared from the map.

To the south Russia also was successful in acquiring, by the Treaty of Küchük Kainarja (1774), the liberation of the region of the Bug, of Crimea and Kuban, the opening of the Bosporus and Dardanelles to Russian vessels, and the right of intervention in the Danubian provinces. Catherine had even more ambitious plans, and desired to partition Turkey as Poland had been divided. In alliance with the Emperor Joseph II., war was declared upon Turkey in 1787. Although Russia was successful, Austria signed a separate peace; and in 1792, by the Peace of Jassy, Russia gained additional territory between the Bug and Dniester and privileges in the Danubian Principalities, although the Turks remained at Constantinople.

When the French Revolution broke out Catherine abstained from joining the opposing coalition, hoping to be able to solve the Eastern Question unrestrained by other European powers. Before such an opportunity presented itself, she died and was succeeded by her son, Paul, whose reign of four years left little mark on Russian history. Paul was succeeded by his son, Alexander I. (1801–25), in the early part of whose reign liberal movements took place, certain oppressive measures were repealed, and schools, colleges, and universities were founded.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

Alexander I., however, is best known for his opposition to Napoleon. At first he believed that his aims were not irreconcilable with those of the First Consul, and made the Peace of Tilsit after the defeat of Austria in 1807. Russia would not carry out Napoleon's Continental system, and Napoleon invaded the country and was frightfully defeated in 1812 in the memorable retreat from Moscow. From this time on Alexander was head and front of the coalition against the French emperor; and after 1814 became, with Count Metternich, the apostle of reaction in the restoration of Europe.

During the reign of his successor, Nicholas I. (1825–55), Russia again attempted to settle the Eastern Question, but was thwarted by the intervention of Great Britain, France, and Sardinia in the Crimean War and forced to sign the Peace of Paris (1856), which ended her advance in that quarter.

The reign of Alexander II. (1855–81) was an epoch of great reforms. The serfs were liberated, the courts reformed, the elected provincial and district councils were given charge of the roads, schools, and hospitals; the natural resources of the country were developed, and a considerable amount of liberty allowed to the press. These reforms, however, were all from above downward. The people had no share in their government, no representative assembly, and no one was safe from secret "administrative proceedings" which resulted in death or banishment. The courts, though an improvement over the old tribunals, did not always administer justice. The liberty of the press was dependent on the temper of police officials. Revolutionary societies were formed, spreading at first purely academic doctrines, but later preaching Nihilism. To meet this movement a secret police was organized, arbitrary arrests and banishments took place, and an era of oppression was established. After frequent attempts upon his life Alexander was assassinated March 13, 1881, on the eve of announcing a representative constitution.

In foreign policy Alexander attempted to expand both south and eastward. In the south he fought the successful Turkish War (1877–78) and dictated the Peace of San Stefano, in sight of Constantinople, but was deprived of the fruits of his victory by the Congress of Berlin. He was brilliantly successful in Asiatic expansion, and began a movement by which a large part of the Amur basin was acquired; then he made Russia master of practically all the territory between Siberia on the north and Persia and Afghanistan on the south.

The reign of Alexander III. (1881–94) was one of reaction. The local self-government in the towns and villages was restricted, and the liberalism which existed in his father's reign was suppressed. He attempted to establish Russian nationality throughout his vast domains, and therefore suppressed the local institutions and, as far as possible, the native language of the various national groups which went to make up his empire, especially in Finland and the Baltic Provinces.

Russia's foreign policy was also changed. Although at first Alexander joined the secret revival of the *Dreikaiserbund*, or Three Emperors' League (1884–87), he gradually turned toward France, with which country a military convention was made in 1894. Not until 1895, however, was the word "alliance" used of the understanding between France and Russia. In Asia he extended his influence to the south, even entering Afghanistan, but was checked in that direction by the energetic preparation of the British, and a boundary convention was signed in 1887.

Nicholas II. (1894–1918) was somewhat more liberal than his father, but he held the same ideas concerning the spread of Russian nationality. Thus he pushed to the extreme, but unsuccessfully, the attempted policy of Russification in Finland. In the Balkan affairs Nicholas II reversed the policy of aloofness and acted as the protector of the Balkan states. In Asia, however, he continued his father's policy of expansion, and by the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railway he attempted to dominate northern China and the little kingdom of Korea. Thus, in 1895 Russia deprived Japan of her conquests in the successful Japanese-Chinese War (see CHINA, JAPAN), and subsequently acquired from China a lease of Port Arthur, which became a frontier fortress. As a result of Russian expansion Japan declared war 1904). The Russo-Japanese War (see JAPAN) was a defeat for the Russians, who were beaten at sea, driven from northern Korea, deprived of Port Arthur, and pushed back in Manchuria. After peace was made Russia, by diplomatic and peaceful means, attempted to acquire a dominant position in Manchuria, but was thwarted by Japan.

From its very beginning the war with Japan was denounced by some Russians as the work of a small minority for their own benefit; the sufferings of the war revealed the inefficiency of the government. The maintenance of peace and order within Russia was in the hands of the minister of the interior de Plehve, who pitilessly prosecuted the Liberals everywhere. In July, 1904, he was assassinated, an act approved by the revolutionary socialists, who maintained that in Russia violence was the only means possible to fight tyranny. The emperor somewhat mitigated the policy of repression — allowed more freedom of the press and permitted the provincial assemblies, the zemstvos, to send representatives to St. Petersburg to discuss the needs of the country. The Liberals demanded a constitution for Russia by which the people should have a share in making the laws of the empire and should control the officials. These demands the czar refused to grant as a whole; but in December, 1904, he issued a manifesto in which he granted some of them, but denied the right of a national assembly to frame a constitution.

The agitation continued, and on January 22, 1905, occurred "Bloody Sunday," when an immense number of workmen under the leadership of Father Gapon attempted to approach the palace and present their demands. They were attacked by the Cossacks and a great number slain under the eyes of the emperor. Disorders continued throughout the summer, and on August 19, 1905, the czar announced that he would summon a Duma, to be merely a consultative body. Feeling that this concession was not sufficient the Liberals organized a general strike; and throughout the month of October Russia was cut off from the outside world, industry and commerce were paralyzed, and the schools, stores, and courts were closed.

Finally, on October 30, the czar announced that he would summon the Duma and would guarantee that no law should come into force without its approval, but he refused the popular demand for a constitutional assembly. Moreover, he instituted the Council of the Empire, which consisted largely of appointed officials, as the upper chamber of the legislature. Then, before the Duma met, he issued certain decrees, organic laws which were beyond the power of the Duma to alter.

The Duma met May 10, 1906, and was in session for two months before it was dissolved by the emperor. It demanded amnesty for political offenders, reformation of the Council of the Empire, the granting of the town lands to the peasants on long-term leases, and, finally, the appointment of a ministry which should be responsible to it rather than to the emperor. This the czar refused to grant and dissolved the Duma July 22, 1906.

A second Duma was summoned March 5, 1907, but failed to satisfy the government, and sixteen of its members were arrested and many others indicted

for carrying on revolutionary propaganda. On June 16, 1907, this Duma was dissolved and the czar, contrary to his promise made on the summoning of the first Duma, altered the electoral law, thereby giving to the landowners the power to choose a large majority of the members.

A third Duma was summoned November 14, 1907, and continued until September, 1912; it was unsuccessful in checking the power of the autocracy. Its greatest act was the law of 1909, which broke up the historic form of collective ownership of land (the mir) and substituted individual ownership. But neither the third Duma nor the fourth, which was summoned in 1912, were much more than consultative bodies, the power of initiation remaining in the autocracy and the power to check the acts of the Duma in the Council of the Empire. The policy of Russification steadily continued, and although certain concessions were made in 1905 in Finland, and ancient liberties were restored in 1909, the Russian government determined to end the autonomy of that country and to incorporate it within the state.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

On the outbreak of the World War, August 1, 1914, domestic affairs were in unstable equilibrium. The government ordered mobilization in answer to the mobilization of Austria and let it be known that it was the champion of the Slavic states in the Balkans. Refusing Germany's peremptory demands to demobilize, Russia accepted the war declared by Germany, invaded East Prussia, and won some initial successes; but was defeated at the Tannenberg and after some success was driven back to Warsaw. Russia was more successful in dealing with Austria and captured Przemyśl (March, 1915), but later in the same year was defeated to the north of Warsaw by Hindenburg and driven back in the south by von Mackensen, Warsaw and Vilno being finally captured. In 1916, under Brusilov, a great offensive took place. Hungary was invaded and considerable Austrian territory occupied.

These reverses and these victories were accompanied by great sacrifices and sufferings; and the government showed itself neither efficient nor free from German influence. The Duma, which just before the war had been dissatisfied with the repressive measures of the government, in 1915 gained the right to choose five members of the ministry and passed measures extending the franchise to the peasants. It was becoming extremely critical of the policy of the government, and on March 12, 1917, refused to dissolve on the order of the czar. This was the signal for revolution and the first complete change of government since the first Romanov.

March 15 the czar abdicated. The Duma, in conference with the labor leaders, appointed a provisional cabinet headed by Prince Georges Lvov and Paul Milyukov as ministers of foreign affairs, and Aleksandr F. Kerenski, a Social Revolutionary, as minister of justice. The provisional government announced a program of reforms which included freedom of speech, universal suffrage, the election of a constituent assembly, and a general grant of amnesty; and assurances were given the Allies that there would be no slacking on the part of Russia in the common struggle. A week later, however, the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates decided to hold a peace conference in some neutral country, and in June appealed to the labor organizations of the world for a peace without annexations or indemnities. They finally declared the Duma abolished and invested Kerenski with unlimited powers.

Kerenski attempted to carry on the war against Germany, but was thwarted by a decree of the Council on April 30, 1917, which vested the discipline of the army in soldiers' committees. Nevertheless, in July he launched an offensive along the Strypa and in three weeks captured 40,000 prisoners; but in the full flood of success the troops mutinied and fell into disorderly retreats. This was practically the end of the effective resistance of Russia to Germany.

On November 8, 1917, the extreme Social Democrats — the Bolsheviki — who believed in carrying the doctrines of socialism to their farthest logical conclusions, overthrew Kerenski and his government, and declared that the final public authority rested in the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates. They promised immediate peace, distribution of land among the peasants, and the convocation of a constituent assembly. November 10, Nikolay Lenin was made prime minister and Leon Trotski, who had been a journalist in New York, minister of foreign affairs. In order to accomplish their first promise the Bolsheviki signed an armistice on December 17 and in March, 1918, signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with the Central Powers, by which Russia gave up all claim to the Ukraine, Poland, Kurland, Lithuania, Finland, and western half of Livonia and Esthonia. In addition Russia relinquished the region of Batum, Kars, and Erivan to the Turks.

The promise of the Bolsheviki to call a constituent assembly was redeemed in January, 1918. However, finding themselves outnumbered by the less radical elements, the Bolsheviki dissolved the assembly by force and forbade it to meet again. The functions of the government were carried on by the "people's commissioners" supported by a congress of delegates from the Soviets. The actual power, however, was in the hands of Lenin and Trotski, who through their control of the treasury and the army ruthlessly suppressed all opposition.

Before the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, Finland had declared its independence and it had been recognized by the Bolshevist government (January, 1918). The Ukraine region did likewise, and its independence was recognized later (May 23, 1918). Germany proclaimed an autonomous Poland and an independent Lithuania.

The Allied Powers, fearing that Germany might utilize the resources not merely of the ceded territory but of Russia itself, dispatched troops to the Murman Region on the northern coast of the Kola peninsula, and American, Japanese, and Czecho-Slovak troops, who occupied Vladivostok to protect the military stores, came in conflict with the Bolsheviki. August 9, Lenin declared that Russia was at war with the Allies. Thus, for more than two years, Russia, shorn of some of her most important possessions, was cut off from the Western world and under the unchecked control of the most extreme adherents of Socialism, the Bolsheviki.

Under the rule of the Bolsheviki Russia suffered all the horrors of a social revolution. Thousands of the upper and middle classes were executed, property both in the form of capital and real estate was ruthlessly confiscated. Communism was attempted, the capitalistic industrial system was overthrown, and the theories of extreme socialization of industry established. Cut off from the rest of the world, unable to export her products and to import the necessary machinery, the transportation system in confusion, economic life was almost destroyed. Thousands upon thousands perished from starvation and in the disorders which attended the overthrow of the old system. Possessing a paper constitution, apparently of the most democratic sort, and passing many laws of a most liberal character, the power was concentrated in the hands of Lenin and Trotski and utilized for the fulfillment of their extreme social theories.

Resistance to the Bolshevist government was organized outside the center of the empire. In the east Admiral Kolchak, and in the south General Denikin, attempted to hold the fronts; while on the west the Poles, and farther north the Esthonians and Letts, attempted to check the Bolshevik power. In the extreme north the British troops on the Kola peninsula, and the Russian troops around Archangel, held their own. Yet at the beginning of the year 1920 little progress had been made in the overthrow of the Bolsheviki, and on January 2 the Esthonians signed a truce by which their independence was granted, thus recognizing the Bolshevik state. Soon after, the forces under Admiral Kolchak were dispersed and General Denikin was defeated; and on January 8 it was announced that the Allies would open trade with the coöperative societies in Russia. To this Lenin refused assent unless an armistice was granted. A center of resistance to the Bolsheviki still existed on the Black Sea coast, where Wrangel organized a force.

Organization.

Government. Before the Revolution of 1905 the government of Russia was usually spoken of as an unlimited autocracy. All power in theory originated in the czar and was exercised according to his directions. Nevertheless, the emperor was limited by certain fundamental laws and customs of the empire; as that the empire might not be partitioned, but must descend entire in order of primogeniture and by preference to the male heir; and that the emperor and empress must be members of the Eastern Orthodox Church. Further limitation on imperial power was the impossibility of one person exercising through such a vast domain all powers of government. Ministries, councils, and organs of local government, though nominally subject to the unchecked power of the emperor, carried out or neglected to carry out his will. The whole administration was honeycombed with corruption and there was a powerful German influence in public and industrial life.

In 1905 the emperor voluntarily limited his legislative power by declaring that no measure could become a law without the assent of the Duma. In 1906 the Council of the Empire was established as the upper house of the imperial legislature, and its assent was necessary for the passage of any law by the Duma. Above both, however, was the emperor with the absolute power of veto and the right to prorogue or dissolve the Duma. The government from 1906 to 1907 might well be described as a self-limited autocracy, tempered by revolution and strikes.

The Council of the Empire (*Gosudarstvenniy Soviet*) consisted of 196 members, 98 of whom were nominated by the emperor and 98 elected. Of the elected members, 3 were returned by the monks, 3 by the secular clergy, 18 by the corporations of nobles, 6 by the academy of sciences and the universities, 6 by the chambers of commerce, 6 by the industrial councils, 34 by the governments having zemstvos, 16 by those having no zemstvos, and 6 by Poland.

The Duma (*Gosudarstvennaya Duma*) after 1907 consisted of 442 members chosen by a complicated process of indirect election so contrived that the wealthy and landed class should secure the preponderance. The members were chosen by electoral colleges, which in turn were selected by electoral assemblies, elected by the three classes, landed proprietors, citizens, and peasants. The large landed proprietors sat in person in the assembly while the small proprietors were represented by delegates. The largest taxpayers of the cities chose delegates directly to the electoral college, but the smaller taxpayers were scarcely represented. The peasant delegates were elected by the volosts, which consisted of delegates chosen by the mirs, which were the communes of the various villages. Thus the peasants were represented only in the fourth degree, and would have received no representation in the Duma had not the law required that each class should be represented.

At first sight the legislative powers of the Duma seemed large, but the legislative grant was subject to numerous restrictions. First, all measures dealing with the organization of the army and navy were outside of its province, being considered not as laws, but as administrative rules. Although the Duma had some power over the budget nearly one half of the expenditures of the country were beyond its control. Moreover, if the budget finally voted by the Duma was not sanctioned by the emperor, that of the previous year remained in force; and the government had power to levy new taxes to carry out new laws. Furthermore, the emperor had the power to issue ordinances having the force of law. Although these ordinances might not infringe the fundamental laws or statutes and must have been submitted to the Duma for its assent, yet, since the emperor had power to prorogue or dissolve the Duma as often as he pleased, temporary ordinances might easily become permanent. Finally, the ministers were appointed by the emperor and responsible to him, not to the Duma. In spite of these limitations the third Duma succeeded in establishing its position and in making a return to the old undisguised absolutism impossible.

Russia was divided into 78 governments, 21 provinces, and 2 districts. For the purposes of local government there were: (1) the mirs, (2) the zemstvos, (3) the municipal Dumas. The mir, or the peasant village commune, a Slav institution which existed from time immemorial, was very interesting. After the freeing of the serfs in 1861, the mirs were relieved from the jurisdiction of the landholding nobility and consisted of the heads of the households of the village. A number of mirs were united into a volost, which had an assembly consisting of delegates of the mirs. The powers of self-government of both the mirs and volosts were limited, however, by the action of the police commissionaries, representing the central absolute government.

In "Old Russia" the 34 governments had provincial assemblies or zemstvos which consisted of a representative council and an executive board. The executive board was composed of five classes of delegates representing: (1) the large landed proprietors; (2) the small landholders; (3) the wealthy townsmen; (4) the less wealthy townsmen; (5) the volosts. The municipal Dumas were established in 1870 and consisted of delegates chosen from three groups of electors determined according to wealth. In the Duma, the zemstvos, and the municipal Dumas alike, the representation was by wealth and classes rather than by population or territory.

July 19, 1918, the fifth All-Russian Soviet congress published a constitution for the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic. According to this constitution Russia is a republic of soviets, or councils, composed of workers', soldiers', and peasants' delegates; and all central and local authority is vested in these soviets. The soviets are thus industrial or social groups not based on numbers or territorial areas. Private property and ownership of land was abolished; all forests, mines, and waters, all live stock, model estates, and agricultural concerns became national property. The state owns all factories, mines, railways, and other means of production and transportation. Every one is compelled to work, and a dictatorship of the proletariat was proclaimed.

Freedom of conscience, freedom of opinion, freedom of the press, and freedom of association are guaranteed by this constitution. Universal military service is incumbent on all citizens, but the privilege of defending the revolution with arms is reserved to the laboring class only. The political rights of Russian citizenship may be acquired without any formalities by residing in the territory of the Russian Republic for the purpose of labor. The Russian Republic is thus a socialistic community of all the laboring masses of Russia.

The highest authority in the state is the All-Russian Congress of Soviets, composed of representatives of town soviets on the basis of one delegate for every 25,000 electors, and of provincial congresses

of soviets on the basis of one delegate for every 125,000 inhabitants. The supreme legislative, administrative, and controlling body in the republic is an elective All-Russian Central Executive Committee of 200 members, chosen by the All-Russian Congress of Soviets. This committee chooses the council of people's commissioners for purposes of administration.

The franchise is given to all citizens over 18 years of age who earn their livelihood by productive labor, without regard to religion, nationality, residence, or sex; and to sailors and soldiers in the Soviet army and navy. Thus the old political classes of landowners, professional and business men, and government officials are totally excluded, so far as they still exist.

Industry and Labor. Most of the industries of Russia were still in the primitive stages of development till the twentieth century. It was ages before the European habits of life were substituted for the Asiatic. The, *terem*, or harem, was long a Russian institution. About 1880 rapid advances were made in the European factory system. In many large towns were enormous factories employing vast numbers of workmen, which exemplified the worst and most dangerous features of modern industrialism. The crying need in Russia's industrial life is transportation, and although in 1913 there were more than 46,000 miles of railways and 153,000 miles of navigable rivers, canals, and lakes, vast regions of Russia were still in frontier conditions. Four years later the railroads were almost out of service.

In her natural resources Russia is one of the richest countries in the world. Her agricultural land is vast and much of it is still uncultivated. In 1913 it was estimated that over 300,000,000 acres were under cultivation, and the cereal crop was apparently limited only by the lack of proper farm machinery and means of transportation. In central Asia and the Caucasus there are more than 1,800,000 acres under cotton cultivation; and in 1911 there were more than 200,000 acres of tobacco. There were about 550,000,000 acres of forests, which have always yielded a net profit.

The country is rich in all kinds of ore, and the mining industry steadily increased. Gold, platinum, silver, lead, zinc, copper, iron, coal, and salt are among the minerals found. The oil fields of Russia are varied and of unsurpassed wealth. In the Baku district alone, in 1913, 56,000,000 barrels were produced.

Factories in 1915 numbered over 14,000 and employed nearly 2,000,000 workpeople. The chief industries were the manufacture of woolen, silk, and cotton goods, leather, tallow, candles, soap, and metals, and flax spinning. Russia ranks third among the countries of the world in the production of fish and other sea food. In the year before the war the most valuable exports of Russia were cereals, lumber, wooden ware, flax, eggs, dairy produce, furs, leather, oils, and hemp; and exports of 1,420,949,000 rubles (about $731,789,000) were shipped to Germany, to the United Kingdom, Holland, France, and other countries. In the same year her imports amounted to 1,220,539,000 rubles (about $628,577,500).

The condition of labor, whether peasant or in manufactories, is now desperate. The high taxes, lack of communication, and want of appliances keep the peasants miserable. In the large, manufacturing towns the wages are low and the housing conditions wretched. Centuries of oppression have illfitted this class to enjoy political liberty or economic opportunity.

Religion. The Orthodox faith was the established religion of Russia. The emperor was the head of the church and had full appointing power, although he delegated this generally to the Procurator of the Holy Synod. According to the latest census (1897), which is imperfect, the Orthodox Church included about two thirds of the population. There were 13,000,000 Mohammedans, 11,000,000 Roman Catholics, 5,000,000 Jews, 2,000,000 dissidents, and 1,000,000 Armenian Gregorians.

Education. Higher education was well cared for in Russia by 10 universities, to which should now be added two new universities established by the Bolsheviki, and the school of technology. January 1, 1914, over 1,800 middle schools cared for 700,000 students; and in 1910 over 2,000 special schools counted more than 223,000 pupils. Altogether, according to the Year Book of Russia of 1914, there were over 7,000,000 in attendance at school, of which number 6,000,000 were primary pupils. This is but a twentieth of the population, and mostly urban at that. Illiteracy is very high in Russia. In the central Asian provinces only 6% of the people were able to read and write, in Siberia 16%, in the Caucasus 17%, in European Russia proper 30%.

Defense. The frontiers of Russia, before the war, particularly in the west, were well fortified. Military service was universal and compulsory, extending from the 20th to the 43d year and life service for the Cossacks, who are not a different race, but a group of military communities with whom the profession of arms is hereditary. The peace strength of the armies of Russia in 1914 was above 1,300,000. After the Russo-Japanese war, Russia reorganized her navy, and in 1915 possessed a fleet of 6 dreadnoughts, 8 predreadnoughts, and 117 destroyers, in addition to other vessels. By January, 1920, thirteen armies were organized under Bolshevist rule, estimated to number more than 700,000 infantry. Service was compulsory upon all citizens.

Before the outbreak of the war the **area** of Russia was estimated at 8,247,624 square miles and its **population** about 166,561,000, including all the Asiatic possessions. Of these fully 20,000,000 perished in or as a result of the World War.

FORMER RUSSIAN POSSESSIONS.

By the Bolshevist revolution in 1917 the empire of Russia was broken up. Several independent or semi-independent states were formed or are in the process of formation. Of these Finland and Poland have been recognized by the United States and European powers and are described elsewhere. The former Baltic Provinces are fully treated on page 143. The independent states that have developed from them are treated separately (see ESTHONIA, LATVIA, and LITHUANIA). In Transcaucasia the Republic of Georgia has been erected out of former Russian provinces, and the republics of Armenia and Azerbaijan have been formed in the regions south of Georgia, formerly held in part by Turkey and Persia (see ARMENIA, AZERBAIJAN, and GEORGIA).

The Ukraine, still apparently a part of Russia, is treated below. Other states have at one time or another since 1917 set themselves up as independent. These, however, have now ceased to exist as states and form part of the present Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic. Some of the more important of these temporary states were: the Republic of North Russia; the Murman, or Murmansk, Region; the Don Republic; the Tatar-Bashkir Republic; the Republic of White Russia; the Kurland Republic; the Tauride Republic; the Yakutsk Republic; the Republic of Eastern Karelia; and the Kuban Republic.

THE UKRAINE (UKRAINIA).

THE Ukrainians, sometimes known as Little Russians, and the Ruthenians, or Red Russians, occupy the plains stretching from Poland across the south of the former Russian Empire to the river Don, bordering on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov. They are also found in eastern Poland, in Galicia, and to a slight extent in Roumania. They settled this region during the early centuries of the Christian Era, and in the 9th century founded a strong kingdom around Kiev, which was the center of Russian life until the Tatar invasion of the 13th century. At that time the kingdom of Ukrainia was overthrown and the remnants in the west came under the Polish rule.

On the decline of the Tatar power Ukrainian colonists pushed eastward from Poland and resettled their country, founding a military republic. This was displeasing to the Poles, who attempted to overthrew them in a series of wars which lasted until the 17th century. Not feeling strong enough to resist the Poles alone, the Ukrainians put themselves under the protection of Russia, which attempted to Russianize them and oppressed them as cruelly as the Poles had done. With the partition of Poland in the 18th century Russia acquired practically all of the Ukraine territory. In the 19th century there was a revival of Ukrainian race consciousness and literature, which by the beginning of the 20th century had made great headway, in spite of Russia's attempt to suppress it. The language is a dialect of Russian.

November 21, 1917, the Ukrainian People's Republic was proclaimed, and a constitution was adopted December 23, 1917. At first the hetman, the head of the state, was supported by the Germans; but on December 16, 1918, German influence was removed and a ministry, under Martos, was appointed (April 25, 1919). The Allied Powers recognized the independence of the Ukrainians in March, 1918.

A large part of Ukrainia belongs to the "Black Sod" region of Russia, which yields large quantities of grain, particularly wheat, for export. Agriculture is thus the chief occupation. There are also valuable deposits of iron ore — the most available in Russia. These iron deposits are within 200 miles of rich coal deposits which assure a profitable development of the iron and steel industry. The other industries are sugar making, distilling, and tanning. In 1919 there were 950,000 acres devoted to the sugar beet, yielding 3,200,000 tons of sugar.

The territory claimed by the Ukrainians embraces all the southwestern portion of former Russia, as outlined above, and also the Kuban region between the Black Sea and the Caspian. The **area** of this territory is stated to be 498,000 square miles, and the **population** about 46,000,000.

SIBERIA.

SIBERIA was proclaimed as the Independent Republic of Siberia, with its capital at Tomsk, December, 1917. The first Siberian Duma, with 30 members, was opened February 5, 1918. On November 18, 1918, all the power was seized by Admiral Kolchak, who summarily dealt with the attempts at democracy. In 1920 the Bolsheviki gained control of most of Siberia. The political status, however, of much of this former vast empire of Russia in Asia is still undetermined.

DEPENDENCIES IN ASIA.

Two states in Central Asia, Bokhara and Khiva, were, before the revolution of 1917, under the suzerainty of Russia. The khanate of **Bokhara**, south of Russian Turkestan, was founded by the Usbegs in the 15th century, after Tamerlane had crushed the "Golden Horde." The ameer of the country proclaimed a holy war against Russia in 1866, but was overcome, and in 1873 a treaty was signed by which Bokhara became virtually a Russian dependency. Silk, corn, fruit, tobacco, cotton, and hemp are produced as well as cattle, horses, and camels. The **area** of the state is 83,000 square miles and the **population** about 1,250,000, mostly Mohammedan.

Khiva is a khanate lying west of Bokhara, and was also founded by Usbegs after the fall of Tamerlane's empire. A Russian expedition in 1872 overcame the khan and compelled him to sign a treaty by which Khiva came under Russian control. The **area** is 24,000 sq. miles; the **population** is estimated at 646,000.

Chronology — Russia and Former Possessions.

For earlier events, see MEDIEVAL PERIOD, *Chronology*, and EARLY MODERN PERIOD, *Chronology*.

For the former BALTIC PROVINCES of Russia, see below, page 143.

1654. The **Cossacks,** having revolted against Poland, place themselves under the protection of Russia, by the petition of their leader, Chmielnicki, and a **war between Poland and Russia** follows. In the next year Charles X. of Sweden invades Poland; the Cossacks return to their allegiance to the Polish crown in 1656, and join in defense of the country after the **Treaty of Vilno** has been concluded between Russia and Poland.

1655. Charles X. takes Warsaw and Cracow.

1656. Czarniecki leads the **Poles** in a series of successful campaigns, but they are **overwhelmed** in the battle of Warsaw, July 28 to 30.

1657. Austria comes to the **aid of Poland,** and the elector of Brandenburg also changes to the side of the Poles. Poland by the Treaty of Wehlau relinquishes her suzerainty over Prussia.

1660. Peace of Oliva puts an end to the war with Sweden, and by the Peace of Kardis Russia renounces all claims to Livonia and Esthonia.

1667. Treaty is made at Andrusovo with **Poland,** by which Poland loses the Ukraine east of the Dnieper and Kiev. In the following year John Casimir of Poland abdicates the throne; Michael Wisniowiecki is elected his successor in 1669.

1670–1671. Great rising of the Cossacks of the Volga under Stenko Razin.

1672. Peter (the Great) is born.

1674. Wisniowiecki having died in 1673, **John Sobieski** is chosen king of Poland

1676. Feodor III. succeeds to the throne of Russia, on the death of his father, Alexis.

1681. By **Treaty of Bakhchisaray** Turkey recognizes Russia's new acquisitions in the Ukraine.

1682. Feodor is succeeded by his brothers, **Ivan V.** and **Peter,** with their sister, **Sophia,** as regent.

1683. Poles aid in war against Turks (see AUSTRIA).

1689. Peter marries Eudoxia Lopukhina.

The Streltzi form a conspiracy under the direction of the regent, Sophia, to seize the government of Russia, but the scheme is thwarted by **Peter,** who **assumes the sovereign authority.**

1690. Ivan V. dies, leaving **Peter** sole sovereign.

1696. John Sobieski of Poland **dies;** in the following year he is succeeded by Frederick Augustus I. of Saxony, who takes the title of **Augustus II.** Peter the Great, in a war against the Turks, routs the enemy and captures Azov (see TURKEY). In December, 1697, a truce is signed at Karlowitz.

1697–1698. Peter's first visit to the West. He stays for some time in Holland, where he works as a common laborer in a shipyard.

1699. Peace of Karlowitz ends Poland's conflict with the Turks, and she recovers a part of Ukraine.

1700. Russia and Poland join in a war waged by Denmark against Sweden; the army of **Peter the Great** is vanquished by **Charles XII.** at Narva, November 30 (see SWEDEN).

1702. Charles XII. makes a campaign in Warsaw and enters Cracow.

1703. Peter the Great founds **St. Petersburg.**

1704. Augustus II. is dethroned by Charles XII. of Sweden, who secures the election of Stanislas Leszczynski to the crown of Poland.

1708. Russia is invaded by Charles of Sweden, but in the following year, July 8, **Peter the Great crushes the Swedish army** at **Poltava** and Charles becomes a fugitive. Augustus hereupon is restored to the throne of Poland.

1711. Peter the Great is compelled to make a disadvantageous peace, by which the Turks recover Azov and other territories.

1712. Peter marries his second wife, Catherine.

1714. Russians defeat the Swedish fleet at Hangö.

1717. Peter visits Versailles. By the Treaty of Passarowitz (1718) peace is made with the Turks.

1718. Peter's son Alexis dies, due, it is said, to punishment inflicted for his treasonable conduct.

1721. **Treaty of Nystad** puts an end to the war with Sweden; Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Karelia, and part of Finland are ceded to Russia.

1722. Peter the Great wages a **war against Persia,** and in the following year annexes a large territory in the Caucasus.

1725. **Catherine I.** succeeds her husband, Peter the Great, on the Russian throne. In the following year Russia joins with Austria and Spain in a **triple alliance** (see AUSTRIA and SPAIN).

1727. **Catherine I. dies;** she is succeeded by **Peter II.,** grandson of Peter the Great.

1730. Peter II. is succeeded by **Anna,** a niece of Peter the Great.

1733. Augustus II. dies and Stanislas Leszczynski is elected king of Poland. Frederick Augustus II., claims the title of Augustus III. Russians and Austrians support Augustus, while France under Louis XV. (son-in-law of Leszczynski) assists his relative.

1735. By preliminary Treaty of Vienna the **War of the Polish Succession ends** in victory for Augustus III. Stanislas Leszczynski abdicates, but is granted the duchy of Lorraine. (See FRANCE.)

1736. Russia and Austria renew the war against **Turkey,** and Azov is captured.

1739. Russians under Münnich make a victorious campaign and conclude the Peace of Belgrade.

1740. Anna, empress of Russia, dies and is succeeded by the infant **Ivan VI.,** with Biron as regent. In 1741 Ivan VI. is deposed and the throne is taken by **Elizabeth,** daughter of Peter the Great.

1741. Russia again engages in a **war with Sweden** (see SWEDEN); a treaty between the two countries is signed two years later at Åbo; Russia gets a considerable slice of southeastern Finland.

1747. Elizabeth of Russia forms an **alliance with Maria Theresa** of Austria and sends an army to the aid of the Austrians. (See AUSTRIA.)

1757. Russia participates in the **Seven Years' War** and, after a victory at Gross-Jägersdorf, overruns East Prussia; the army under Soltikov assists the Austrians in crushing the army of Frederick the Great at Kunersdorf, August 12, 1759. The next year they enter Berlin with the Austrians.

1761. *Aug.–Sept.* Russians under Buturlin, with aid of Austrians, attack Frederick the Great.

1762. *Jan. 2.* Empress **Elizabeth dies;** she is succeeded by **Peter III.,** of the House of Holstein-Gottorp. He changes the policy of Russia and supports Frederick the Great. **Catherine II.,** German by birth, the wife of Peter III., usurps the throne, July 9; July 17 Peter is assassinated; and the brief alliance with Frederick is broken off

1763. Augustus III. of Poland dies; in the following year **Stanislas Augustus** (Stanislas II.), aided by Catherine II., is chosen as his successor.

1766. Catherine calls a great Legislative Assembly at Moscow.

1768. The Poles form the **Confederation of Bar** to resist the encroachments of Russia. At the same time the Turks begin a war against the Empress Catherine II.

1770. The Russians are victorious in Wallachia and the fleet under Orlov and Elphinstone overcomes the Turks at Scio.

1771. **Russians** under Dolgoruki attack the lines of Perekop and **gain** possession of **the Crimea.**

1772. Catherine II. of Russia, Frederick the Great of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria unite in **first partition of Poland.** A large territory on the Dvina and upper Dnieper is taken by Russia; Polish Prussia, except Thorn and Danzig, is apportioned to Prussia along with other tracts; a vast area on the borders of Hungary is added to the Austrian Empire and erected into the kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria. The residue of **Poland,** including Warsaw, **continues as a kingdom** under the sovereignty of Stanislas Augustus.

1773. The Russians in the **war against Turkey** advance through Bulgaria.

Pugachev leads a great **rising** in southeastern Russia. The revolt spreads through the whole Volga basin before the leader is finally captured (1775).

1774. Negotiations for **peace with Turkey;** a treaty is made at Küchük-Kainarja, by which Turkey yields up her suzerainty over the Crimea.

1780. **Armed Neutrality** of Russia, Holland, and other powers against Great Britain.

1783. The **Crimea** is formally **annexed** to Russia.

1787. **Turkey** again **goes to war** with Russia, and the following year **Sweden also** begins hostilities. Russia makes a **commercial treaty with France. John Paul Jones,** the American, becomes **a Russian admiral.**

1789. Russians with Austrian allies defeat the Turks at Focşani, and make an advance. **Russia and Sweden conclude peace** at Verela.

1792. *January.* **Peace between Russia and Turkey** is signed at Jassy, Austria having already concluded a treaty; Ochakov added to Russian domain and **empire extended to Dniester.**

1793. **Second partition of Poland;** Russia acquires a large part of Lithuania, part of Volhynia, Podolia, and Polish Ukraine; Prussia annexes the western territory and **Danzig,** a free city since 1772.

1794. General **uprising of the Poles** occurs, with **Kosciusko** as its leader, but Russia, Prussia, and Austria unite to suppress the insurrection; Kosciusko is taken at Maciejowice, Oct. 10. Warsaw surrenders, Nov. 8, and the **rebellion is at an end.**

1795. **Polish kingdom is divided for the third time,** and with this partition its **independence** definitely **ends.** Prussia gains Warsaw, and Russia annexes the rest of Lithuania and all of Kurland. **Stanislas** Augustus formally **abdicates.**

1796. Catherine II. of Russia dies and is succeeded by her son **Paul,** November 17.

1798. *December.* Russia forms an **alliance with England** against the French.

1799. **Suvaroff,** commander in chief of the allied Russian and Austrian armies in Italy, **defeats Moreau** at Cassano, April 27 (see FRANCE).

1801. Russia makes a **treaty of peace with France** in October. Gruziya, or **Georgia, is annexed to Russia.** A conspiracy is formed in the capital against Paul; on March 23 he is assassinated; succeeded by his son, **Alexander I.**

1804. **War** breaks out **with Persia** and continues till 1813.

1806. **War with Turkey** again breaks out.

1807. Russia joins Prussia in the **war against France.** After a defeat at Friedland, June 14, Alexander concludes with Napoleon the **Treaty of Tilsit,** by which the grand duchy of Warsaw is erected. Vast plans of world power are accepted by both potentates.

1808. **Finland is taken** by Russia **from Sweden** by force of arms; in the following year the conquered territory is ceded to the czar.

1809. Russia declares war against Austria, May 3. (See FRANCE, also AUSTRIA.)

1810. In war with Turkey, **Kamenski** leads his army on a **victorious campaign** into Bulgaria.

John Quincy Adams, received as **first American minister** to Russia. He finds Russia beginning to turn against Napoleon.

1811. Kutuzov makes a **campaign against the Turks** along the Danube.

1812. On May 28 Russia concludes a **treaty of peace with Turkey,** at Bucharest, by which the Pruth is established as the boundary between the two nations. June 22, **Napoleon declares war** against Russia and prepares to make an invasion. He is victorious at Smolensk in August. Kutuzov is defeated at **Borodino,** Sept. 7, and the **French enter Moscow,** Sept. 14. The city is fired by the Russians, and in October the **French begin a retreat;** they are harassed by the Russians until the **Grand Army is virtually destroyed.**

1813. By the **Treaty of Gulistan** Persia is forced to cede to Russia Dagestan, Shirvan, Baku, and other regions; these domains are formally transferred by the **Treaty of Tiflis,** in the following year. **Russia joins** Prussia and Austria in the **great war against Napoleon.**

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. **Congress** of powers at **Vienna,** in June, confirms Russia in the possession of Finland and the bulk of Poland, which is granted autonomy. In September of this year Russia unites with Austria and Prussia in forming the **Holy Alliance** (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1825. Alexander I. dies, December 1. After a rising known as the **"December revolution"** (see DECEMBRIST, in the *Dict.*), he is succeeded by his brother, **Nicholas I.**

1826. **Treaty of Akerman** with Turkey. Persians begin a war. [of the Greeks.

1827. *Oct. 20.* Naval **battle of Navarino,** in aid

1828. *February.* Peace with Persia by which **Persian Armenia is ceded to Russia.**

April. Russia undertakes another **war against Turkey.**

1829. Russians under Paskevich enter Adrianople September 14, and the **Peace of Adrianople** follows. Turkey cedes to Russia the northeastern coast of the Black Sea and renounces the suzerainty over the tribes of the Caucasus. **Russian protectorate over Moldavia and Wallachia** is also permitted; the district of Akhaltsikh is ceded to Russia, and Turkey acknowledges the **independence of Greece.** (See TURKEY; GREECE.)

1830. **A revolution begins in Poland,** on November 29, and the Russian troops withdraw from Warsaw. Chlopicki made dictator in December.

1831. Chlopicki resigns in January. Czartoryski, at the head of the national government, proclaims the **independence of Poland,** January 25. Warsaw capitulates, September 8, and the **liberty of Poland is lost.** In the following year the czar proclaims **Poland** an integral **part of the Russian Empire.**

1832. A new law code is published.

1833. *July 8.* Russia agrees to help Turkey against Mehemet Ali, and concludes the **Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi.**

1846. *February.* **Polish insurrection.** The leader, Mieroslawski, is arrested by the Prussians. **Peasants** in Galicia **rise** against the Polish nobles; Austria annexes Cracow.

1848. The Poles in Posen rebel again under Mieroslawski, but the movement collapses.

1849. Russian expeditionary force under Paskevich assists in suppressing revolution in Hungary.

1853. *March.* The czar through his special envoy, Prince Menshikov, demands that a **Russian protectorate** shall be extended **over the Greek Christians in Turkey.** The demand is refused, and England and France prepare to aid Turkey in resistance. In June the Allied fleets of these powers are sent to Besika Bay. In July the Russians enter the Danubian Principalities. Three months afterward the ships of the English and French sail through the Dardanelles. Hostilities begin. November 4, the Russians are defeated at Oltenița, but the **Russian fleet** under Admiral Nakhimov **annihilates the Turkish squadron** at Sinope, November 30. In December, at Vienna, a protocol of the great powers is directed against Russia.

1854. The fleets of England and France enter the Black Sea in January. In March the Baltic fleet of the English sails, under the command of Sir Charles Napier. Prince Gorchakov leads a Russian army across the Danube.

The English and French now formally declare war against Russia (March 27), thus precipitating the conflict historically known as the **Crimean War.** In March and April the British and French armies are landed in Turkey, and the French fleet in the Baltic sails for the scene of war, in April. Odessa is bombarded by the allies. Bomarsund forts in the Baltic surrender to the allies, August 16. Austria presents an ultimatum to Russia demanding that she evacuate the principalities. Russia yields and Anstria, by an agreement with Turkey, replaces Russia in Moldavia and Wallachia. September 14, the English and French reach the Crimea under the command of Lord Raglan and Saint-Arnaud (later under Canrobert); they defeat the Russians under Menshikov in the **battle of the Alma,** September 20. In October, the Allies besiege **Sebastopol,** which is defended by Totleben. The battle of **Balaklava,** in which the **charge of the Light Brigade** occurs, is fought October 25. November 5, the Russians are routed at **Inkerman.**

An embassy is sent under General Perovski to the khan of Khiva; a treaty greatly in favor of Russia is negotiated.

1855. Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia allies himself with France and England against Russia in January. In March, Nicholas I. dies and is succeeded by his son, **Alexander II.** Gorchakov is sent to take command of the Russian troops in the Crimea. In April a protracted bombardment of **Sebastopol** is made by the allies, who are reënforced by Sardinians. Marshal Pélissier succeeds Canrobert in the command of the French. Russians move forward to relieve Sebastopol, but are defeated at the Chernaya, August 16. September 8, the French storm the Malakoff and the English the Redan; **Sebastopol falls.** November 27, Kars surrenders to Muravev.

1856. *March 30.* **Treaty of Paris** is signed, and with it the **Crimean War ends.** Black Sea is declared to be neutral. Russia cedes a part of Bessarabia and it is added to Moldavia; Russia also renounces her protectorate over the Danubian Principalities. An international Danubian commission is instituted. New principles of international law are declared on April 16 by the Declaration of Paris.

1858. *May 28.* By the **Treaty of Aigun** with China, Russia acquires the region along the Amur.

1859. *Sept. 6.* At Gunib, **Schamyl,** chief of the Caucasians, **surrenders;** by this act authority of Russia over the mountain tribes fully established.

1860. *Nov. 14.* By the **Treaty of Peking,** China cedes to Russia the whole coast region east of the Usuri River, south to where Vladivostok now stands.

1861. *March 3.* Alexander II. issues a decree by which 22,000,000 **serfs are freed.**

1863. **Poles** make a disastrous **attempt to rise.** The committee of the revolution issues a summons calling the patriots to arms; those who respond are **routed** by the Russian troops. Insurrection ends (1864) in disaster to the patriots.

1864. Russians complete **the subjugation of the Circassians.** [are instituted.

Jan. 13. By imperial decree the **zemstvos**

1865. **Tashkend captured** by the Russians.

1868. **Samarkand is subdued** by Russia, and the emir of Bokhara becomes a vassal.

1870. Russia declares her refusal to abide longer by the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris as to the **neutrality of the Black Sea.** In the following year a conference of the powers is held in London, January 17, to consider the question of the Black Sea, and a new treaty is formulated and signed, March 13. This second agreement omits the clause declaring the neutrality of the Black Sea. Russia reorganizes her municipal government.

1872. The emperors of Russia, Austria, and Germany reach an agreement known as the *Dreikaiserbund* (League of the Three Emperors).

1873. General Kaufmann leads an expedition against Khiva, which is taken (June 10). Peace is made in August.

1874. **Universal military service** is introduced.

1875. **Annexation of Kokand.**

1876. *Oct. 30.* The **czar** insists on Turkish reforms in the Christian provinces and **issues an ultimatum to the Porte** (see TURKEY).

1877. *April 24.* Turkish rejection of the czar's proposals leads Russia to declare **war against Turkey** (see TURKEY). December 10, the Russians take **Plevna.** In the following year the Russians, after a victorious campaign, occupy **Adrianople,** January 20. January 31, an armistice is signed, and March 3, the **Treaty of San Stefano** is concluded (see TURKEY). Discontent in Russia against the autocratic and oppressive government takes the form of an anarchical organization advocating **Nihilism.**

1878. Congress of the powers meets at Berlin on June 13, and the **Treaty of Berlin** is concluded on July 13. Russia receives the larger part of Turkish Armenia, with Kars and Ardahan, and also Batum and that portion of Bessarabia formerly ceded to Moldavia. In general the terms are unfavorable to Russia. (See TURKEY.)
General Mezentsov, director of the third section of the imperial chancellery, falls a victim to a plot of the Nihilists and is murdered.

1879. *Feb. 21.* Krapotkin, the governor of Kharkov, is assassinated. April 14, Soloviev tries in vain to kill Alexander II. December 1, the Nihilists endeavor to blow up the train on which the czar is going to Moscow, but are again foiled.

1880. *Feb. 17.* Nihilists try to blow up the imperial family of Russia in the Winter Palace. February 24, General Loris-Melikov is made chief of a supreme **commission,** with autocratic authority, **to suppress Nihilism.** Commission abolished in August.

1881. Geok-Tepe is captured by the Russians on January 24, and in the following month a treaty with China is concluded, respecting Ili (Kulja). March 13, **Alexander II. is assassinated** by a Nihilist; he is succeeded by his son, **Alexander III.** In April, a persecution of the Jews begins. May 16, **Ignatiev** is appointed minister of the interior, to succeed Loris-Melikov.

1882. **Count Dmitri Tolstoy** succeeds Ignatiev as minister of the interior.

1883. *May 27.* Alexander III. crowned at Moscow.

1884. The czar meets the emperors of Germany and Austria at Skierniewice, September 15, for a conference of three days and revives the defunct *Dreikaiserbund* (League of the Three Emperors). Tekke-Turkomans of Merv yield their allegiance to Russia.

1885. Russians gain possession of the Zulfikar Pass on the road to Herat; England fears a Russian charge on Herat and makes a settlement of the **boundaries between Turkestan and Afghanistan** to the advantage of Russia.

1887. Russia and Germany conclude the so-called "Reinsurance Treaty."

1888. **Trans-Caspian railway** is opened as far as Samarkand.

1891. **Trans-Siberian railway** is begun.
April 29. The government orders the expulsion of the Jews from St. Petersburg, and they are later banned from the greater part of the empire.
July. The **French fleet arrives** at Kronstadt and is accorded an enthusiastic welcome; at the same time a preliminary *entente* is signed between Russia and France.

1892. Russia is afflicted with famine and Asiatic cholera; the latter breaks out again in 1893-1894.

1893. *May.* **Nihilist plot discovered** and 1,500 implicated in the conspiracy are sent to Siberia.
October. Russian **fleet visits Toulon,** and is magnificently welcomed by the French.

1894. The Franco-Russian alliance is definitely concluded. Russia makes a commercial treaty with Germany.
Nov. 1. Alexander III. dies; he is succeeded by his son, **Nicholas II.,** who weds Princess Alix of Hesse on November 26.

1895. In conjunction with Germany and France, Russia effects a revision of the **Treaty of Shimonoseki,** to Japan's disadvantage (see CHINA).

1896. Russia said to have concluded the so-called **Cassini Convention** with China.
May 26. The czar is crowned at Moscow. May 30, a panic among the crowds outside the city causes the death of more than 1,000 persons.

1898. Wide suffering from **famine** prevails in nineteen provinces. Russia leases the Liaotung peninsula and Port Arthur from China for 25 years.

1899. *Feb. 15.* Imperial manifesto **annulling autonomy of Finland.** In May, **Peace Conference,** at invitation of czar, meets at **The Hague** to consider international disarmament, war reforms, and arbitration (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1900. For Boxer rising, see CHINA.
July 3. Imperial ukase **abolishes,** in large measure, **banishment to Siberia.**
Sept. 28. **Count Tolstoy, the author, is excommunicated.**
December. A serious **outbreak of students** in Kiev.

1901. Crop failure and resulting **famine** in western Siberia.
Bogolyepov, minister of instruction, is fatally wounded by a student. The official announcement of Tolstoy's excommunication, March 9, arouses the students anew. The riots are suppressed with great cruelty by the Cossacks. Protests are signed by leading Russian writers. Reforms in the scholastic system are granted in April, and the czar pardons the soldier students and other absentees from the universities.
Feb. 16. Russia retaliates on the advance of the United States duty on Russian sugar by additional duties on certain American goods.
July. Another step in the **denationalization of Finland** is taken by abolishing Finland's national army and converting it into a body of Russian troops officered by Russians.
Nov. 3. Rail laying on the **Northern Manchurian Railway** is completed, giving through rail service from **Moscow to Vladivostok** except for the break at Lake Baikal.

1902. For Chinese relations, see CHINA.
Continued disorders at the University of Kiev are accompanied by peasant outbreaks in South Russia. In April Shipjagin, minister of the interior, is assassinated. Venceslas de Plehve is appointed to replace him.

1903. *March 12.* The czar, in a **manifesto,** promises to grant **freedom of worship** to his subjects; a degree of **self-government** in the communes; and opportunity for the peasants to escape some communal restrictions and taxations. April 19, the Russian Easter, **taxes** unpaid by the peasantry amounting to $100,000,000 **are canceled,** and the peasants are in part released from service to the commune.
April 19–20. At Kishinev a **mob kills 45 Jews,** injures nearly 500, and destroys 700 houses. The government takes little action.
May 20. Bogdanovich, governor of Ufa, is assassinated.
May 29. **Bicentenary** of the **foundation of St. Petersburg** is celebrated.
Anti-Jewish outbreaks occur at Tiraspol, Gomel, Lódź, etc., in May and June.
June. In Finland the sale of guns, ammunition, and explosives is practically prohibited and numerous repressive measures are introduced.
In July and August, **strikes** at Kiev, Odessa, Baku, Tiflis, Rostov, Nikolaev, and other towns; **suppressed by the military** with the loss of hundreds of lives. [JAPAN.

1903–1905. For Japanese relations and war, see

1904. *June 16.* Bobrikov, governor-general of Finland, is mortally wounded by an assassin as a protest against Russian rule. The czar reconvenes the Finnish Diet.
July 28. **Plehve,** minister of the interior and an extreme reactionary, is **assassinated.**
Prince Sviatopolk-Mirski succeeds him in September, and adopts a more liberal policy.
Aug. 12. A son and heir is born to the czar.
October. Russian fleet under Admiral Rozhestvenski *en route* to the Pacific fires upon a fleet of British fishermen off Hull, near the Dogger Bank. For a time Anglo-Russian relations are tense.
Nov. 19. **Zemstvo Conference,** in session at St. Petersburg, signs a memorial to the czar **asking for various concessions,** including a constitution. Intense excitement results. December 27, the czar replies, ordering certain legal reforms, but declaring that the autocracy will be kept unimpaired. The year is one of marked internal disturbance and revolutionary activity. The mobilization of troops causes disorder and distress, and industries suffer from the war.

1905. The country is in a condition of upheaval the entire year. January 22, troops in St. Petersburg fire upon strikers who are marching to the Winter Palace under leadership of Father Gapon to petition the czar for reforms. Thereupon **St. Petersburg is put under military rule,** with Trepov as dictator. Many hundreds of unarmed men, women, and children are killed. The massacre has far-reaching effects, as **strikes and riots** spread to other cities. Procurator-General Soininen of Finland is killed, February 6. February 17, Grand Duke **Sergius,** uncle of the czar, is **assassinated** in Moscow. These events have some effect on the authorities, and in April an extension of the zemstvo system is granted, and soon after concessions are made to Jews and Poles.
May 6. A congress of zemstvos in Moscow declares for universal suffrage, as well as freedom of the press and right of assembly.
June 28. The battleship *Kniaz Potemkin* is seized by its crew. **Mutinies** on other ships.
Aug. 19. Manifesto for the regulation of the **national Duma,** to meet in January, 1906, the powers of which, although much increased, are still very limited. This manifesto is accepted by the conservative reformers as a first step, but the revolutionary party demands an assembly elected by direct and universal suffrage with much larger powers. As a means to bring this about, a **strike is organized** in the large cities during the last week in October. The government thereupon declares the districts affected as in a state of war. Railway communication with St. Petersburg is cut off, and industrial Russia threatened with paralysis.
Sept. 5. Peace of Portsmouth (see JAPAN).
Count Witte persuades the czar **to grant concessions,** and, on October 30, a manifesto is issued extending the power of the Duma and promising "freedom of conscience, speech, union, and association." It also promises that no law shall come into force without approval of the Duma. It does not grant habeas corpus or constitutional government, and keeps from the Duma all control of army and navy. This is followed by the resignation of the reactionary ministry and the appointment of a cabinet with **Count Witte as premier.**
On November 1, the Procurator of the Holy Synod, Pobyedonostsev, who has been the heart of the reactionary party, is succeeded by Prince Obolenski. A constitution is not granted, the revolutionary party still consider that the reforms are not liberal enough, and organize further strikes, without much success, however.
November 4, a **revolt in Finland** results in the issuance of a manifesto restoring to Finland her constitutional rights and summoning the Finnish Senate, which meets Dec. 22. Later, terrible **massacres of Jews** occur in Odessa and other cities.

1906. *Jan. 22.* Anniversary of "Red Sunday" passes quietly. January 26, a **serious mutiny** breaks out among the reservists at Vladivostok. In January and February, rioting occurs in the Baltic Provinces. Severest measures of repression employed. In April a new election law granted to **Finland,** assuring a larger **degree of home rule.**
May 2. Count **Witte resigns as premier,** and on May 7, Goremykin is appointed. The czar proclaims new "fundamental laws" which the Duma must not alter, thus greatly restricting the latter's power.
May 10. Muromtsov is elected president of the Duma. May 17, the **Duma makes numerous demands:** amnesty for political prisoners, freedom of the press, of speech, and of meeting, the abolition of the Council of the Empire, a responsible ministry, and the expropriation of large land holdings for the benefit of the peasantry.
June 15. A savage **massacre of Jews** occurs at Bialystok, instigated by government officials.
July 21. Czar dissolves Duma. **Goremykin** is removed as premier and **Stolypin** is appointed. Great excitement.
July 23. Many members of Duma meet at Viborg, Finland, and issue manifesto urging Russian people to refuse to pay taxes or submit to conscription until Parliament is again given power.
July 31. Garrison at Sveaborg **mutinies,** also the troops at Kronstadt.
Aug. 25. A bomb is thrown into the residence of Premier Stolypin during a reception, killing 27 and wounding 34 [Syedlets.
Sept. 8–9. A great **massacre of Jews** occurs at
October. The government grants further rights to the peasants and makes concessions to the Old Believers.

1907. *Jan. 9.* General van der Launits, prefect of St. Petersburg, and General Pavlov, chief military public prosecutor, are assassinated.
March 5. **Second Russian Duma** is opened. Golovin, a Constitutional Democrat, is elected president.
June 16. Duma is dissolved by the czar's edict, after accomplishing practically nothing. A **new electoral law** is established by imperial decree.
July 30. **Russia and Japan** sign a **treaty** defining their position as regards China.
Aug. 1–7. Czar meets the German emperor at Swinemünde.
Aug. 31. Anglo-Russian treaty on spheres in Asia; **beginning of the entente cordiale.**
Nov. 14. **Third Duma meets,** having been elected under such severe restrictions of the suffrage that the "Monarchists" and "Octobrists" are in a majority. Khomyakov, an Octobrist, is elected president.

1908. *Feb. 12.* Finnish Diet reassembles. Finnish governor is replaced by a Russian.
Feb. 20. **Court-martial** on the defense of Port Arthur **condemns General Stössel** to death, with the recommendation (later accepted) of commutation to imprisonment.
Feb. 26. The Duma is received by the czar, who urges certain measures.
March 15. The minister of justice asks an appropriation of $1,000,000 to enlarge the prisons.
April 4. **Finnish Diet is dissolved** as a result of remarks made as to the Russian Revolution.
April 23. Russia, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden sign a convention providing for the preservation of the *status quo* in the Baltic.

1908 (*continued*).
May 22. President and **many members of the Duma are arrested** and confined in prison until August 24 [Revel.]
June 9–10. The czar and Edward VII. meet at [theater at Kiev.]
June 17. Duma officially censures minister of finance for negotiating a loan without its consent.
June 27. Council of the Empire votes the battleship bill which had been rejected by the Duma.
Sept. 4. The czar issues an edict, ordering all university professors to withdraw from opposition political parties.
September. Outbreak of cholera; 1,000 new cases are reported daily.
Dec. 30. Duma unanimously rejects a ministerial bill which introduces new regulations in land sales in Baku.

1909. *Jan. 31.* Lopukhin, a former director of police, is arrested on a charge of high treason. Opposition leaders in the Duma sharply attack the government for this arrest
Feb. 22. Order from the czar dissolves the Finnish Diet.
May 4. Russia decides to dismantle her forts on the Polish frontier. [lievers.]
May 28. Duma legalizes sect of the Old Be-

1910. *March 9.* The trials of Nikolay Chaykovski and Mme. Breshkovskaya for conspiring against the government result in acquittal of Chaykovski and conviction of Mme. Breshkovskaya, who is exiled to Siberia. [Duma, resigns.]
March 17. Khomyakov, president of the
June 22. Construction of a new **Southern Siberian railroad** is proposed.
July 25. 8,000 **Jews** said to have been **expelled from Kiev.**
July 28. Spread of cholera; 90,000 deaths reported during the summer. [Potsdam.]
Nov. 4. Czar visits the German Kaiser at
Nov. 20. Count Tolstoy dies at Astapova.

1911. *Aug. 19.* Germany and Russia reach an agreement on the Bagdad Railway and Persian questions.
Sept. 14. **Premier Stolypin is shot** in a
Sept. 23. **Kokovtzov,** minister of finance, **becomes premier.**
Dec. 22. Duma introduces a bill providing for a tariff war against the United States.

1912. *April.* Russia agrees to recognize Italian sovereignty in Tripoli in return for support of the czar's Balkan policies.
September. Duma, which has been sitting since 1907, is dissolved, and new elections are ordered **Fourth Duma inaugurated** November 28.
Dec. 31. Treaty of 1832 with the United States goes out of existence by action of the United States, because of the refusal of the Russian government to recognize passports of American citizens of Jewish descent.

1913. *Jan. 1.* Council of the Empire confirms the law passed by the Duma abolishing serfdom in the Caucasus.
March. **Romanov tercentenary** is celebrated. Amnesties are granted to various political offenders, including the exiled writer Maksim Gorki.
April 23. Panslavists hold great demonstration in St. Petersburg to celebrate capture of Scutari by Montenegrins.
June 8. The czar reminds Bulgaria and Serbia that he is the arbiter to whom they are to appeal on Macedonian controversy. (See BULGARIA.)
September. **Russification of Finland** proceeds steadily against a storm of protest.
October–November. Outbreaks of **anti-Semitism** occur during the trial at Kiev of Mendel Beiliss, a Jew, accused of ritual murder of a Christian boy. Trial ends in an acquittal.
Nov. 5. Russia and China conclude an agreement as to Mongolia. (See CHINA for relations on Outer Mongolia.)

1914. *June–July.* Repressive policy of the government toward the working class results in **general strikes,** notably in St. Petersburg.
June 22. British squadron under Beatty visits Kronstadt. Evidence of secret understanding
July 22. **Austrian ultimatum to Serbia** which is recognized as a threat of war on Russia.
July 29. Diplomatic intercourse with Austria-Hungary is suspended.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 1.* **Germany declares war on Russia.** (See WORLD WAR for military events.)
Aug. 15. Russia proclaims reconstruction and autonomy of Poland.
Sept. 1. **St. Petersburg** is renamed **Petrograd** by imperial edict.
Sept. 5. Russia, France, and England agree not to make peace separately.
Oct. 21. Czar prohibits state sale of alcohol.
December. In consequence of the Russian defeats, **disorders break out in Petrograd,** necessitating the institution of martial law, measures against Socialists, closing of the university, etc.

1915. **Closing of the Dardanelles** makes impossible the exportation of the wheat crop.
Feb. 1. Appropriation for a government railroad to Aleksandrovsk, an ice-free port on the Kola peninsula.
Feb. 9. Duma opens with a unanimous resolution to carry on the war
March. Decree conferring upon **Poland** local **self-government** on the limited scale obtaining in Russia, and permitting the use of the Polish language in the local zemstvos thus established.
May. Port of Archangel is closed to private business.
June 14–25. Anti-German mobs in Moscow. Commission of six Russians and six Poles is appointed to work out Polish autonomy.
Aug. 31. **Enlargement of the cabinet** by ten members, five to be chosen by the Duma and five from the Council of the Empire.
Sept. 7. Czar Nicholas takes command of the army, transferring Grand Duke Nicholas to command of the army in the Caucasus, in consequence of defeats on the eastern front.
Sept. 15. The czar proclaims an **amnesty** of all **political prisoners.**
Sept. 16. Duma is prorogued. Strikes follow and 18 Duma members are arrested.
Oct. 11. Riots break out in Moscow.
Oct. 17. A state of war is proclaimed.
Oct. 24. Foreign credit loan of $2,750,000,000 is authorized.
Oct. 31. Jewish relief societies report that in territory swept by Germans 1,500,000 Russian Jews are without means of support, homeless, and starving.

1916. *Feb. 1.* **Stürmer,** an alleged pro-German reactionary, succeeds Goremykin as **premier.**
Feb. 22. Duma opened with the czar attending for the first time in history.
Feb. 26. Kuropatkin appointed commander in chief of the Russian armies on the northern front
Duma passes a bill calling for four meatless days per week.
April 20. Russian expeditionary force lands at Marseilles. More contingents arrive during the summer.
July 2. Duma passes bill conferring upon **peasants** the same **civil rights** as other classes possess; since 1890 the peasants have not been entitled to elect deputies to the zemstvos.
July 3. Duma is suspended till November 14.
July 22. Foreign Minister Sazonov resigns. Premier Stürmer takes over the portfolio.
September. Transfer of the Russian troops in France to the Saloniki front.
Oct. 1. Protopopov succeeds Khvostov as minister of the interior.
December. **Women** admitted to **Moscow university** in full equality with men.
Dec. 2. Premier Trepov informs the Duma that the Allies have agreed that Russia shall have Constantinople and the Dardanelles.
Dec. 30. The Duma and Council of the Empire pass resolutions condemning the "Dark forces" opposed to victory.
Dec. 31. For reply to German peace proposal, see WORLD WAR.

1917. *March 11.* **Food riots** break out in Petrograd and elsewhere.
March 12. **Duma** refuses to dissolve on the order of the czar. It **demands reforms,** prosecution of the war, and stamping out of pro-German influences.
March 15. **Czar Nicholas,** under arrest, **abdicates** in favor of his brother Michael, who refuses to accept the throne, unless authorized to do so by a constituent assembly.
Duma in conference with labor leaders, appoints an Executive Committee, headed by Prince Lvov, with Milyukov as minister of foreign affairs and **Kerenski** (Social Revolutionary) as minister of justice.
March 16. The provisional government announces a **program of reforms** including freedom of speech, universal suffrage, and the election of a constituent assembly.
March 18. Milyukov sends a circular to Russian representatives declaring Russia's unalterable resolve to carry the war to a successful conclusion. The ex-czar retires to his estates in the Crimea.
March 21. Provisional government orders the arrest of the ex-czar and his wife. Constitution for Finland is confirmed. United States grants partial recognition to the new government.
March 26. The government removes all the civil and political disabilities of the Jews.
March 29. Women declared eligible for all government posts.
April 4. Provisional government repeals all laws abridging religious freedom.
April 30. Minister of war accepts new regulations, proposed by the soldiers, which practically take the power of discipline out of the officers' hands and intrust it to elected committees.
May 1. Assurance is given to the Allies that "there will be no slackening on the part of Russia in the common struggle of the Allies." This causes **riots in Petrograd.**
May 11. **Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates** decides to appeal to the peoples of the world.
May 13. General Kornilov resigns from the command of the Petrograd army.
May 17. Guchkov and Milyukov having been forced out of the cabinet, **four Socialists are given portfolios.** This change marks the growing radicalism of the revolution.
Kerenski becomes minister of war and leader of the government upon the resignation of Guchkov, who found his hands tied by the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates.
May 19. The government issues a declaration of policy rejecting "all thoughts of separate peace," but welcoming a general peace.
June 2–3. **Outbreaks of armed anarchists** in Petrograd and elsewhere.
June 3. **United States commission,** headed by Elihu **Root,** reaches Vladivostok.
June 5. **Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates,** addressing labor organizations throughout the world, appeals for a peace without annexations or indemnities.
June 23. Ukraine Military Conference calls on the Ukraine National Assembly to sever relations with Russia.
June 27. Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates denounces "every policy tending toward the conclusion of a separate peace and armistice."
Provisional government abolishes the court-martial.
June 28. Council of Workmen's and Soldiers, Delegates abolishes the Duma and Council of the Empire.
July 19. **Finland** virtually proclaims her **independence.** (See FINLAND.)
July 20. Socialists, forcing Prince Lvov to resign, make **Kerenski premier** in his place.
Regiments affected by **Bolshevist propaganda** begin to desert from the front in large numbers.
July 23. The Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates invests **Kerenski with "unlimited" powers.**
July 25. The death penalty for desertion is reestablished. Kornilov issues orders to fire upon deserters.
Aug. 1. **Kornilov** succeeds Brusilov as **commander in chief** of the Russian armies.
Aug. 3. Provisional government declares that, without the consent of the Russian people, Finland cannot legally separate itself from Russia.
General Gurko is arrested on the charge of spreading Bolshevist propaganda.
Aug. 15. The ex-czar and his family are removed to Tobolsk, Siberia, after the discovery of a royalist plot.
Aug. 23. General Soukhomlinov, former minister of war, is placed on trial for high treason, being accused of withholding ammunition from Russian armies and communicating information to the enemy; he is found guilty on September 26.
Aug. 30. Kerenski announces the partial reestablishment of the death penalty.
Sept. 10. Kornilov marches toward Petrograd with armed forces.
Sept. 13. Kornilov movement collapses. **Alekseyev** appointed **commander in chief.**
Sept. 14. General Kaledin arrested and dismissed for attempting to proclaim himself dictator of South Russia.
Sept. 16. Provisional government of **Kerenski proclaims Russia a republic.**
Sept. 21. Increasing chaos in the army leads Alekseyev to resign as commander in chief.
Sept. 27. Democratic congress from the Social Democratic and Social Revolutionary parties meets at Petrograd.
Oct. 4. **Kerenski** forms a **coalition cabinet,** notwithstanding the fact that the Democratic congress, by a vote of 813 to 180, opposed coalition.
Oct. 10. Kerenski leaves for the front.
Oct. 18. In the municipal elections, with universal suffrage and secret vote, the extreme Socialists called **Bolsheviki have little success.**
Oct. 20. Government dissolves the Fourth Duma and announces that the Constituent Assembly will be elected on November 25.
Nov. 8. **Bolsheviki** having seized the telegraph, the state bank, and public buildings, **overthrow the Kerenski government** and declare final authority to rest in the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates. They promise immediate peace, distribution of the land among the peasants, and the convocation of a constituent assembly.
Nov. 10. **Nikolay Lenin is made premier** by the Bolsheviki; **Leon Trotski minister of foreign affairs.**
Nov. 12. General Kaledin temporarily assumes the government of the Cossack Territory and refuses to recognize the Bolshevist government.
Nov. 14. **Kerenski escapes** from Petrograd **in disguise.**

1917 (*continued*).

Nov. 20. **The Ukraine** proclaims itself a **separate state.** See *Ukraine*, under Russia, above.

Nov. 27. Delegation of Bolsheviki visit the German lines to arrange for an armistice of all belligerents.

Dec. 4. Commander in chief **Dukhonin,** who has opposed negotiations with Germany, is killed by a Bolshevist mob. Officers and troops at the front recognize the **Ukrainian Republic.**

Dec. 9. Kaledin, the Cossack hetman, and Kornilov lead a movement against the Bolsheviki in southern Russia.

Dec. 17. Representatives of the **Bolsheviki and Central Powers sign an armistice** at **Brest-Litovsk.**

Dec. 23. Russian delegates meet the delegates of the Central Powers and their allies at **Brest-Litovsk** and begin **peace negotiations.**

Dec. 24. By order of Krylenko, the commander in chief, **all rank is abolished in the army.**

Dec. 30. **Bessarabia** proclaims itself a separate state as the **Moldavian Republic.**

1918. *Jan. 10.* **Republic of the Don** is proclaimed, with Kaledin as president.

Jan. 19. The Bolsheviki withdraw from the Constituent Assembly when they find themselves greatly outnumbered by less radical elements. Lenin then dissolves it.

Jan. 26. A congress of the Councils (Soviets) of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates (625 in number) meets at Petrograd, and on January 30 adopts the constitution of the **Russian Soviet Republic.** [lations with Roumania.]

Jan. 28. Bolshevist government breaks off re-

Jan. 30. **Revolutionary movement** gains headway **in Finland** in opposition to the government which declared independence from Russia.

Feb. 1. Constituent Assembly of the Tatars meets and proclaims the **Crimean Republic.**

Feb. 3. **Lenin,** at the head of the Bolshevist government, issues a decree **separating church and state.**

Feb. 8. Bolshevist government officially proclaims its **repudiation of the national debt.**

Feb. 9. The **Ukraine signs a peace treaty** — the first of the war — with the Central Powers at **Brest-Litovsk.**

Feb. 11. Government, declaring that war with the Central Powers is ended, orders **complete demobilization** on all fronts

Feb. 18. Bolshevist government adopts the modern (Gregorian) calendar.

March 1. Generals **Kaledin and Kornilov** are **defeated** by the Bolshevist forces at Rostov on the Don River.

Russian government having recognized (Jan. 9) the **independence of Finland** signs a **peace treaty** with the new state (see Finland).

March 3. **Peace treaty signed at Brest-Litovsk** whereby Russia submits to all Germany's demands; cession of Riga, Kurland, Lithuania, and Poland; Esthonia and Livonia to be guarded by Germany until their self-determination; Russians to evacuate Finland, also Erivan, Kars, and Batum; the Ukraine recognized.

March 11. President Wilson sends a message to the Congress of Soviets expressing sympathy with the Russian people.

March 14. Congress of Soviets, sitting at Moscow, ratifies the **peace treaty with Germany** by a vote of 453 to 30.

March 18. Premiers and foreign ministers of the Entente countries, meeting at London, denounce the terms of the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk,** calling it "a political crime against the Russian people."

April 5. Japanese and British troops land at Vladivostok.

Bessarabian National Assembly proclaims the **union of Bessarabia and Roumania.**

April 10. The Russian commissioner of commerce states that the **treaty with Germany** has taken away 300,000 square miles of territory, with 56,000,000 inhabitants (a third of the country's population), and one third of her railways, 73 per cent of her iron, and 89 per cent of her coal.

April 20. Siberian Provisional Duma proclaims the formation of the **"Government of Autonomous Siberia."**

Armenia and Georgia, refusing to recognize the Brest-Litovsk treaty, resist the attempts of the Turks to occupy Batum, Kars, and Ardahan.

April 21. British and French troops land on the **Murman Coast** on the northern side of Kola Peninsula on the Arctic Ocean.

April 22. Federal **Republic of Transcaucasia** is declared, composed of Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Russian Armenia. It dissolves in a few weeks, and the three sections form separate and conflicting governments. (See Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia.)

May 14. Germany proclaims the **independence of Lithuania** and assumes that, "being allied to the German Empire," the new state will "participate in the war burdens of Germany" (see Baltic Provinces below, and Lithuania). Caucasia proclaims its independence.

May 23. Treaty of peace is signed with Ukraine; the Russian government recognizes the independence of the region.

General Semenov sets up an autonomous government, opposed to the Bolsheviki, in Transbaikalia.

July 1. American forces land on the **Murman Coast.**

July 4. New **provisional government for Siberia** is established, the Czecho-Slovaks (see Czecho-Slovakia) assisting; the program includes liberation from Bolshevist rule.

July 6. Count von Mirbach, German ambassador, is assassinated at Moscow.

July 8. **Counter-revolution in Moscow** suppressed by the Bolsheviki with heavy loss of life.

July 10. General Horvath forms an anti-Bolshevist government at Novo-Nikolaevsk, Siberia.

July 16. The **ex-czar and family** are **executed** by order of the Ural Regional Council at Ekaterinburg, according to later well-established reports.

July 29. Lenin declares informally that a **state of war exists between Russia and the Allies.**

Aug. 3. United States announces its plan to aid the Siberian governments with a small force and a large amount of material, in coöperation with Japan, France, and Great Britain.

Aug. 7. Chinese and French troops land at Vladivostok.

Aug. 25. **Esthonia** declares its **independence** (see Esthonia).

Aug. 27. Three supplementary treaties between Soviet government and Germany include provisions for great indemnity by Russia.

Aug. 30. Lenin is seriously wounded by a member of the Social Revolutionary party.

Aug. 31. Bolshevist troops **sack the British embassy** at Petrograd.

Sept. 4. **American troops,** landing **at Archangel,** join French and British troops in a march southward to effect a junction with the Czecho-Slovaks and maintain control of the trans-Siberian railway. Junction is not made.

Sept. 14. United States gives out a series of documents obtained in Russia which, if authentic, show that the Bolshevist leaders, Lenin and Trotski, were in close relations with the German government and receiving large sums of money from it. (Sisson documents.)

Sept. 23. Directorate of five of the All-Russian Government results from a **coalition** of the provisional government of **Siberia** with other political bodies.

Sept. 26. Serious conditions in eastern Russia; imprisonment without trial, executions, and massacres — fruit of Bolshevist rule.

Oct. 12. Japanese troops arrive at Irkutsk.

November. For Polish affairs, see Poland.

Nov. 17. British forces occupy Baku on the Caspian and remain until the end of 1919, during which the formation of the republican government of **Azerbaijan** proceeds.

Nov. 18. Kolchak, minister of war and marine under the Siberian directorate, succeeds to the power of the directorate.

Nov. 30. **Republic of Lithuania** proclaimed.

Dec. 24. Allies decide against dispatching a large force to aid Russian opponents of the Soviet government.

1919. History of Bolshevist Russia during 1919, so far as known outside, is chiefly one of retreating and advancing armies.

Jan. 4. Bolsheviki capture Riga.

Jan. 15. Peasant uprising against Bolshevist rule in interior reported; due to excessive taxation imposed by "Committee for Fighting Poverty."

March–April. **Bolsheviki fighting on four fronts:** in the north they oppose Russian and Allied forces advancing from Murmansk and Archangel; on the Baltic and Polish front the Reds are pushed back; in Ukraine and Caucasus (Denikin's Cossacks) their opponents have some aid from French and Greek troops, and also from Roumanians in Bessarabia, yet the Bolsheviki advance and take Odessa early in April; in Siberia they yield before **Kolchak,** behind whose troops in Siberia are some 118,000 Allied and associated forces.

April. Ukraine government appoints a minister of Jewish affairs.

May–June. Converging movement of the forces opposing the Bolsheviki advance on all fronts; Finns and Esthonians threaten Petrograd.

June 12. Supreme Council at Paris partially recognizes Kolchak, promising aid and support.

June 15. **Last American troops** on **Archangel front** are relieved and **sail for home.**

June–July. Though the Finns continue their advance, the Esthonians are pushed back. In the south, **Denikin,** in a sustained advance, captures Kharkov. In the east Kolchak retreats to the Siberian border. On the Archangel front the Allies prepare to retire, leaving the anti-Soviet Russian government to carry on the campaign.

July–August. Denikin continues to advance and Kolchak to retreat. President Wilson informs Congress on July 23 that the presence of **American troops in Siberia** (8,400) continues to be necessary while the Siberian railway is in charge of American engineers under J. F. Stevens.

August–September. A new government (**Yudenich**) is organized over the northwestern provinces fighting against the Reds, and there and on the Petrograd front the Bolsheviki continue to retreat, but on August 27 capture Pskov from the Esthonians. The **Allies blockade Baltic ports;** the United States refuses to assist in this, but interdicts food exports to Soviet Russia. British forces in the north begin to withdraw. Denikin continues his success; he takes Odessa on August 18 and Kiev on September 4. Reds continue to drive Kolchak. Representatives of the Allies and United States hold a conference at Omsk, the seat of Kolchak's government, on his affairs.

September–October. Yudenich's White army gets to the suburbs of Petrograd on October 18, but then retreats. Denikin gets within 175 miles of Moscow, but the Ukrainians, whose independence he opposes, harass his rear.

October–November. **Yudenich's force collapses,** and the **Esthonians** begin to **negotiate** with the Soviet government (see Esthonia). Factions and rear attacks hinder Denikin, while the Reds drive Kolchak out of Omsk.

November–December. Red advance continues on all fronts; Kharkov and Kiev are taken from Denikin.

1920. *January–February.* Georgia and Azerbaijan form a defensive league against the **Bolsheviki,** who now threaten their territory, having regained almost **complete control** over European Russia, including Odessa, and give evidence of a world-wide propaganda. Their success brings them to the Indian and Chinese border, and the control of the Siberian railway as far as Irkutsk, early in March. February 7, **Kolchak** who had been succeeded in command by Semenov, **is executed** by rebels at Irkutsk. February 20, **Bolsheviki occupy Archangel.**

Jan. 13. Supreme Council at Paris recognizes Georgia and Azerbaijan as *de facto* governments; but later revelations indicate Turkish sympathy and intrigue, if not attempted alliance.

Jan. 16. Supreme Council of the League of Nations announces permission to **trade with the Russian people** through their coöperative societies, without, however, modifying its attitude toward the Soviet government. Bolsheviki, while desirous of opening negotiations, refuse to permit trade under such conditions.

Feb. 1. **Withdrawal of American troops** and engineers **from Siberia** is ordered. Last leave on April 1. Also the Czecho-Slovaks and other non-Russian Slavs in the Siberian forces are withdrawn.

March 6. Reds begin a drive on Poland, but are repulsed; Poles aided by Ukrainians advance and capture Kiev on May 8.

April 8. **Japan,** deciding **not to withdraw** her forces from Siberia, seizes Vladivostok.

FORMER BALTIC PROVINCES OF RUSSIA.

Historical Outline.

The Baltic Provinces are situated on the eastern shore of the Baltic Sea, touching on the north the Gulf of Finland. The "provinces" under Russia were Esthonia, Livonia, Kurland, and St. Petersburg. Ancient Lithuania was incorporated into Kovno and Vilno, no official district retaining the name.

The history of this region begins with its conquest during the 12th century when the Teutonic Knights of the Sword attempted to Christianize the fierce Lettish, Finnish, and Esthonian tribes. The result was the establishment of an ecclesiastical state governed by the Teutonic order, which not only Christianized the natives but imposed German civilization upon them. The Teutonic element, though never composing more than a tenth of the population, has succeeded in dominating the economic and political life of the region, and in the towns constitutes the majority of the upper class.

In the middle of the 16th century Ivan the Terrible attempted to wrest this region from the Teutonic order, but was unsuccessful. In 1721, however, Peter the Great, after a long struggle, succeeded in incorporating the provinces in Russia. Until the latter half of the 19th century the Baltic Provinces enjoyed a considerable degree of home rule, but with the growth of Pan-Slavism the Russification of the provinces was undertaken and an attempt was made to set the Lettish and Esthonian peasantry against the German upper classes. This was fairly successful, and by 1914 the Germans had lost their political supremacy. As a further result of the movement the inhabitants became conscious of a nationality distinct from that of the Russians.

In spite of the severe climate and poor soil, the peasants have succeeded in producing large crops, especially of rye, oats, barley, and flax. The vast meadow lands make stock raising an important in-

dustry. The industrial life is centered at Riga, Libau, and Revel, and in the last half century numerous textile and flax-spinning mills, tanneries, breweries, sugar refineries, and distilleries have been established.

The World War swept backward and forward over much of these lands; and fighting continued at intervals for nearly two years after the armistice of 1918. The provinces resisted Russian attempts to form a consolidated province; and could not form a federal union. They were affected by the Bolshevist propaganda and even fought each other. The chief common interest was the determination to be neither Russian, Polish, or German.

The combined area of the three Russian provinces — Esthonia, Kurland, and Livonia — was about 35,000 square miles (about the size of Indiana) and the **population** before the World War was 3,000,000. The native population of Letts and Esthonians was about 2,500,000. The Letts of Kurland and part of Livonia are peasants and town workmen of fairly high intelligence, and with growing economic prosperity are rapidly gaining political power. The Esthonians are mostly peasants, sailors, and fishermen, more steady and energetic and prosperous than the Letts, but not so quick intellectually. They are devout Protestants. Within this region were settled about 210,000 German and German-speaking people and about 142,000 Russians.

Chronology.

1030. **Yurev** (in Livonia) is **founded** by Russians. Inhabitants of Livonia, originally Livs, a Finnish race, are gradually displaced by Letts from the south and Esths (Esthonians) from the north.

1158. **Riga is founded** by German merchants, and a century later becomes a part of the **Hanseatic League,** refusing allegiance to the bishop or the Teutonic Knights.

1202. German Brethren of the Sword, located at Wenden (Livonia), begin a **long-continued strife** with the native Slavic Wends for the control of the region.

1219. **Danes** conquer the Esths, a Finnish race, and **found Revel. Revolts** are **incessant.**

1237. Duchies of Kurland and Semgallen, inhabited by the Letts under the Brethren of the Sword, pass to the Teutonic Knights. **Virtual serfdom** under feudal rule.

1250. Mendowg, a chief of the Lithuanians (a kindred ethnic stock to the Letts), accepts Christianity and is crowned king under protection of the Teutonic Knights.

1325. **Alliance of Poland and Lithuanians** against the Teutonic Knights.

1345–1377. During the reign of Olgierd, the Lithuanian grand duchy extends as far as the Black Sea.

1346. Danish king sells his conquest to the Brethren of the Sword.

1386. *Feb. 15.* Olgierd's son Jagello is crowned king of Poland as Ladislas II. This **personal union of Poland and Lithuania** continues (except during 1401–1447).

1410. Bishop recovers control over Riga, but his fief is abolished in 1566. Subsequently the Esths and Letts become Lutherans; the Lithuanians remain Roman Catholic.

1521. Nobles and cities of Esthonia put country **under protection of Sweden.**

1561. *Nov. 28.* Brethren of the Sword and the bishop of Riga place Kurland and Livonia under Lithuania (Poland); but Russia has occupied Yurev region. [**Lithuania.**]

1569. *July 1.* **Organic union** of **Poland** and

1621. **Livonia** is conquered by Sweden.

1721. *Aug. 30.* By the Peace of Nystad Esthonia and Livonia are ceded to Russia.

1772–1796. **Lithuania passes to Russia** in the various partitions of Poland; but the portions of the grand duchy especially considered as Lithuanian, *i.e.*, Kovno, Suvalki, and Vilno are under Russian administration and do not remain as a part of Poland, though the nobles are Polish and also the language, except that of the peasants. The clergy are chiefly responsible for keeping the language and national spirit alive.

1795. Nobles of the duchy of Kurland place the country under Russian control. The landholding nobility of the Baltic Provinces is mostly German, the government is in their hands, and though **serfdom is abolished in 1817** the condition of the peasants is but little improved thereby. The privileges of the provinces are gradually curtailed and Russification promoted.

1863. *Sept. 6.* A decree permits the peasants to purchase and hold as hereditary property the land on which they have worked. This creates an intermediary class between the German nobles and the landless peasants; the landless continue to constitute the bulk of the inhabitants.

1885. Pan-Slavism and **Russification policy** is greatly increased.

1895. Yurev University is closed; final step in forcing the **use of the Russian language.** Both Balts and natives resent the Russification; the latter are forced by it into nationalistic movements.

1905. **Revolt** throughout the provinces and Lithuania. In the provinces it is a desperate socialist and landless peasant uprising; suppressed and followed by a reaction. The landlords, favoring Pan-Germanism, adopt the policy of bringing in and settling **peasants from Germany,** there being none else to support them. In Lithuania the revolt is mild; a national assembly pronounces for autonomy. **Russia raises the ban on the native language** and adopts the policy of playing the nationalists against the Polish nobles. She tries the same method of Pan-Slavism in the provinces; in neither case successfully.

1914–1917. For the Baltic Provinces in the World War, see ESTHONIA, LATVIA, LITHUANIA, POLAND, RUSSIA, and WORLD WAR.

SAHARA, THE.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

SALVADOR.

See under CENTRAL AMERICA, page 80.

SAMOA ISLANDS.

See under GERMANY, page 105, and under the UNITED STATES, page 210.

SAN MARINO.

SAN MARINO is an independent republic situated near the Adriatic, in the northeastern part of Italy. It has existed for over a thousand years. It has a legislature, made up of the Grand Council of sixty members and of another Council of twelve members. Two of the Grand Councilors are appointed every six months to act as Regents and exercise executive functions. The little army consists of 950 men and 39 officers. The State has no public debt. Agriculture is the main occupation of the people. The chief exports are wine, cattle, and stone. Actually San Marino is a dependency of the kingdom of Italy. The **population** (1919) was 11,944 and the **area** 38 square miles.

885. Monastery of San Marino exists; traditionally founded by patron saint of same name.

1631. Papacy, on acquiring Urbino, recognizes the **independence** of San Marino, which has been gradually established through several centuries.

1797. Bonaparte respects the independence, at this time and later.

1815. Congress of Vienna makes no attempt to disturb San Marino, and two years later the pope confirms the independence anew.

1862. *March 22.* **Treaty with Italy;** independence recognized and protection given. Practically a dependency of Italy.

SANTO DOMINGO.

See DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, page 91.

SCOTLAND.

See BRITISH EMPIRE, page 50.

SENEGAL.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

SERBIA.

See under JUGO-SLAVIA, page 121.

SIAM.

Historical Outline.

THE kingdom of Siam is ancient, having a history reaching back to the early years of the Christian Era. The city of Lampun is reputed to have been founded in 575 A. D. Before this time, Siam is said to have been under the dominion of Cambodia. There are inscriptions antedating the close of the thirteenth century, in which the boundaries of the country are declared. When the Portuguese and other Europeans reached southern Asia, the court of Siam attracted them.

During the eighteenth century, warfare was made upon the so-called Laos States on the north and northeast, and Siamese supremacy was established in these countries. The great cities of Luang Prabang and Wieng Chan were transferred to Siam in 1828. Meanwhile, trade intercourse had sprung up between the kingdom and several of the Western nations. Commercial relations were begun with France as early as the close of the sixteenth century. About the same time, similar relations were established by the Japanese. The Dutch traders visited Siam, and in 1752 trade was opened with the Dutch factories in Ceylon.

The present dynasty of Siamese rulers was established in 1782, when the capital was transferred to Bangkok by the successful general Phaya Chakkri. In 1856 a treaty with Great Britain was negotiated by Sir John Bowring, by the terms of which Siam was opened to foreign residence. The conditions of trade were made conformable to the usages of civilized nations.

The recent rulers of the kingdom have shown breadth of view and attainments. The reign of Maha Mongkut extended from 1852 to 1868. In the latter year he was succeeded by his eldest son, Chulalongkorn I., whose long reign was marked by a broad policy that attracted the attention of the Western peoples.

The great misfortune of the kingdom is its weak geographical position, as Siam is wedged between British and French possessions in the East and both Great Britain and France occasionally "rectify" the frontier. France took in 1907 about 7,000 square miles, Great Britain in 1908 an equally large area, and in 1909 an additional area of 15,000 square miles.

By the last treaty British jurisdiction in Siam proper practically ceased, thus suggesting the abandonment of exterritorial rights by the other European powers.

In recent years Siam has given great attention to internal reform. Two successive American advisers, Strobel and Westengard, received almost absolute power to establish a proper financial system and to adjust difficulties with European powers. The government has been unified and trade expanded. A progressive railway policy has attracted to Siam European trade and capital.

Organization.

Government. The executive power is exercised by a king advised by a cabinet. The Legislative Council consists of the ministers of the state and others, not less than twelve in number, appointed by the crown. The present number of the council is forty. It meets at least once a week and may promulgate laws without the royal assent in case of any temporary disability of the crown.

Religion and Education. The prevailing religion is Buddhism. Very little influence upon the popular faith has been exerted by foreign intercourse and there are nearly 7,000 Buddhist temples with a total of 170,000 priests. In each province there is a commissioner of education and the government primary schools in 1917, numbered 329, with more than 25,000 pupils. There were more than 3,100 non-government primary schools, 116 government secondary schools and six special governmental schools.

Production, Industry, and Commerce. Forced labor is still demanded from the rural population, but this service is decreasing and Chinese coolies do the chief part of both the skilled and unskilled labor. Waste tracts of land are being developed by irrigation. The chief product of the country is rice, which forms the national food and is the most important article of export. Other products are hides, cattle, cotton, and fruits.

Defense. Universal liability for military service is now in force in all the provinces. The peace strength of the army is 20,000 men. There is a navy of 21 vessels of small size, but they have no fighting value.

The area of Siam is about 195,000 square miles and the **population** (1916) 8,819,686.

Chronology.

1350. **Siamese** have gained **ascendancy** over the whole country; beginning of national history.

1511. First contact with **western European traders,** the Portuguese. Dutch and English East India companies follow in seventeenth century; but English factory discontinued in 1688.

1782. Present dynasty is established by Phaya Chakkri.

1826. *June 26.* **Anglo-Siamese treaty** of friendship and commerce; beginning of direct European contact. Similar treaties with other powers follow.

1855. *April 18.* **Anglo-Siamese treaty** provides for a consul at Bangkok, **exterritorial rights,** and other limitations on Siam's suzerainty. Similar treaties follow with other powers.

1867. *July 15.* Siam recognizes French protectorate over Cambodia.

1868. *Feb. 8.* Settlement of the Burmese boundary line with Great Britain.

Oct. 1. **Chulalongkorn** becomes king. He adopts **Western ideas** and improves conditions in spite of foreign aggressions. Foreign (especially American) advisers assist him.

1893. **Contest with French Indo-China** over boundary on upper Mekong River. French blockade Bangkok; Siam, October 3, yields to enlarged French demands, ceding all territory east of the Mekong, with special privileges west of the river, and occupation of Chantabon.

1896. *Jan. 15.* **Anglo-French agreement** on Siam; neither nation to occupy, or permit any other power to occupy, the central portion of Siam, but the regions east and west of the Menam valley are within their **spheres of influence;** advantageous to France, but also increases Siamese stability.

Development of the World's Navy from the Earliest Phœnician Time.

1. Chinese Junk. Propelled by oars and by sails made from reeds matted together. Rudder so arranged as to be lifted out of the water when desired; decorations; flags, etc.

2. Egyptian Boat. Reconstructed from a Bas-Relief on the walls of the Terrace Temple of Dêr-el-bah'ari (West of Thebes) representing a fleet which was sent out by the Egyptian Queen, Makara-Ha-t-shop (17th century B. C.). Sails colored, and decorated with either religious or other emblems. Design and color of the sails copied from the tomb of Ramses III., at Thebes. *F. Steinitz, The Ship.* Bench of rowers protected from enemy by broad gunwale. Boat steered by two steering oars, one on each side at the stern; Military mast, etc. *Sir J. G. Wilkinson.*

3. Phœnician Bireme. Reconstructed from a few remaining coins, and from a relief in the Palace of Kuyunjik, built by King Sennacherib. *Layard, Monuments of Nineveh.*

4. Greek Galley. Battle of Salamis. Reconstructed from a Bas-Relief found near the Erechtheum, and a Bronze Votive Boat found at the same place. *Stern, Iconographic Encyclopædia.*

5. Roman Trireme. Punic War. Reconstructed after a drawing by Lemaître, and from relief found at Porto near the mouth of the Tiber. The special type shown here, known as "Navis turrita" (*Winckelmann*), carried attached to the yardarm of the military mast a heavy weight (dolphin) worked by rope and pulley, which by its sudden descent upon the deck of the enemy caused havoc there, the force of the fall often being sufficient to drive the weight through the ship and sink it. Boarding bridges were also carried by these boats to enable the military force to get rapidly upon an enemy's deck when held to the ship's side by grappling hooks. Sails decorated with the Roman She-Wolf. The position of the Trireme in this picture was especially chosen with a view of showing the arrangement of the three benches of oars, to which the galley slaves were chained.

Concluded three pages in advance.

For description see previous page

DEVELOPMENT OF THE WORLD'S NAV

FROM THE EARLIEST PHŒNICIAN TIME.

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6. Drakar, or Norse Dragon. Reconstructed from: (*a*) the rock-cut pictures at Kyrkoryk and Bohuslän, and (*b*) the fragments of a vessel of the Viking period, taken from a tumulus near Fredrikstad, Norway; (*c*) the 30 oared boat found in the turf of Nydam, Sleswick, and preserved in the Museum at Kiel; (*d*) the Gokstad, Norway, boat; (*e*) the Viking ship at Sandefiord, with (*f*) the Bayeux tapestry carefully considered. These Viking boats carried as many as sixty pairs of oars, had a length of 300 feet, a breadth of 32 feet and a depth of 10 feet.

7. Venetian Galleass. With 26 oars. After Dürr's engraving in *Dilich's "Kriegsschule,"* 16th century. Sail decorated with the winged Lion of St. Mark. Guns carried in the bow of the boat.

8. French Man-of-War. Beginning of 14th century. Reconstructed from the model of the so-called "Nef." (A large table ornament for holding all manner of table utensils.) See *Viollet-le-Duc "Mobilier français,"* and the MSS. *"Statuts de l'ordre du Saint-Esprit au droit desir, 1352."* Sails decorated with the fleur-de-lis and the Cross of the Crusaders. Bow and stern of boat carry strongly fortified towers. First appearance of stern rudder in European seas.

9. English Three-Master "Great Harry." One thousand tons, 122 guns, built at Woolwich 1514, burned 1553,—after a painting in Windsor Castle.

10. Ship of the Spanish Armada. Sails decorated with all manner of emblems, Saints, and Coats of Arms. *Jähns "Handbuch der Geschichte des Kriegswesens."*

11. Battle of Trafalgar. Nelson's "Victory" forcing her way through the French Men-of-War.

12. Fight between the "Constitution" and the "Guerrière."

13. "Monitor" and "Merrimac" in Hampton Roads.

14. The U. S. Battleship "New Mexico."

15. The Spanish Protected Cruiser "Vizcaya."

16. U. S. Seagoing Monitor "Puritan."

17. The Spanish Torpedo Boat "Plutón."

1904. *Dec. 9.* Territory west of the upper Mekong and north of Cambodia is ceded to France.
1907. *March 23.* Territory north of Cambodia is ceded to France, some territory restored; exterritorial rights modified.
1909. *July 9.* **Anglo-Siamese treaty;** Siam cedes suzerain rights over the four **nonfederated Malay states;** Great Britain **renounces exterritoriality** and other restrictions.
1910. *Oct. 23.* Chulalongkorn dies; succeeded by his son **Maha Vajiravudh** (Rama VI), educated in England and widely traveled.
1912. *March 14.* Revolt against Rama's reforms is put down. Conscription for army and police is enforced.
1917. *July 22.* Siam declares **war on Germany** under pressure from France and Great Britain; German refugees checked and German shipping seized.
1919. *January–June.* Siam represented at the Peace Conference.

June 28. By **Treaty of Versailles** Germany recognizes that all her treaties and agreements with Siam, including exterritoriality are null from July 22, 1917, and waives claims for seized ships or other property.

SIBERIA.

See under RUSSIA, page 139.

SIERRA LEONE.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 67.

SLAVONIA.

See *Croatia and Slavonia*, under JUGO-SLAVIA, page 122.

SMYRNA.

See under GREECE, page 111.

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SOMALILAND.

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SPAIN.

Historical Outline.

THE history of Spain falls naturally into four periods. In the first, Spain was a frontier of Roman culture. In the second, Spain stood as the barrier which defended Christendom against the assaults of the Moors, who were the advance wave of the Moslem power. The Moors at one time succeeded in conquering the cities of Spain, but the native population never surrendered and ultimately drove the Moors from the peninsula. When Spain emerged from the conflict and became a united kingdom with the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile in 1479, the Spanish character reflected the military characteristics of the age-long struggle. In religion the conflict made Spain the most Catholic of all European nations.

The third period of Spanish history falls in the age of discovery and expansion. Here Spain, as a commercial and seafaring nation, played a leading part. She established the Spanish American Empire, which continued for over four hundred years. Like Rome, Spain impressed upon her conquests her culture, her language, her religion, and her political institutions and did more than any other European nation to Christianize and civilize the natives.

The wealth Spain derived from the gold and silver of the New World gave her the position for a time of the leading power in Europe. True to her tradition Spain remained passionately attached to the Catholic religion and Protestantism gained no foothold. On the contrary, Catholicism increased in fervor. The Inquisition had its stronghold there and such types as Loyola and Saint Theresa were there developed. At the battle of Lepanto (1571) the Spanish ships were the strength of the fleet which saved Europe from the Turks. But the same naval skill was in vain when she attempted to crush the heretics in the Netherlands and in England.

In 1516 Charles I. of Spain united in himself the Spanish kingdom, the archduchy of Austria, the duchy of Burgundy, and the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, and in 1519 he became Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire as Charles V. For nearly forty years he dominated the affairs of Europe and contended with his great rival, Francis I. of France. On his abdication in 1556 the imperial dignity went to the house of Hapsburg and the Spanish possessions were ruled by his son, Philip II. of Spain.

The fourth period of Spanish history begins with the unsuccessful wars with England at the end of the 16th century, and with the decline of sea power. In the three generations following Charles V., Spain steadily declined — partly from the stern exclusion of the skilled Jews and Moors, chiefly from the bad economic system which was due to the influx of the specie of the New World.

In 1700 Charles II. died and a long controversy arose over the succession. Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. of France, had married the elder sister of Charles II. of Spain, and was backed by France. Ferdinand, the grandson of Leopold I. the Emperor, had married a younger sister of Charles II., and was supported by Austria. More important, however, than the legal claims of the aspirants was the question of the balance of power in Europe. England and Holland, the leading naval powers, resolved that the strength of the Spanish monarchy should be united with neither the power of France nor the power of Austria. Notwithstanding the acts of disavowal made by Philip IV. and Charles II., by his will Charles left the crown of Spain to Philip of Anjou.

Louis XIV., electing to follow the will rather than to be bound by the treaty he had just signed, proclaimed his grandson, Duke of Anjou, as Philip V. of Spain and was resolved to seat him in a position which would have made Spain a dependency of France. This produced the Grand Alliance of England, the Netherlands, and the Emperor, and involved Europe in twelve years of war. From August, 1704, to September, 1709, the allies won the battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet.

In 1711, Archduke Charles became Emperor and thus ceased to urge his Spanish claims. Philip of Anjou was at last accepted as king of Spain in 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht; but his country was in no condition to give aid to France. The recognition of Philip V. was balanced by the Spanish loss of Naples, Sardinia, Parma, Milan, and the remainder of the Spanish Netherlands. Sicily received Savoy and England gained Minorca and the title to Gibraltar.

The reign of Philip V. was marked by a serious loss of the constitutional rights of the people in Spain What was left of the old liberty that Aragon, Valencia, and Catalonia formerly enjoyed was now ignored. Meanwhile the ambitious queen, Elizabeth Farnese, and her conspiring minister, Cardinal Alberoni, usurped the authority of the state. The political decay of Spain became apparent. After Philip's death in 1746 the crown passed to his son, Ferdinand VI., and then Charles III. held the throne. Naples was already in the power of Charles, who brought that dominion with him back to Spain.

In 1761 Charles III., acting for Spain, entered into the Family Compact made by the Bourbon princes of Europe. He thus involved Spain as an ally of France in the Seven Years' War, terminated by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. As a result of this conflict France was driven from Canada and ceded to Spain the vast region west of the Mississippi known as Louisiana, but Spain lost the Floridas. Charles III was supported by capable statesmen; commerce, agriculture, and the arts showed symptoms of revival, and there was a considerable increase in the population of the kingdom; yet there was little substantial and permanent gain One of the notable events of the reign was the expulsion of the Jesuits from the Spanish dominions, in 1767.

Charles IV. became king in 1788. He fell under the influence of his minister, Manuel de Godoy, duke of Alcudia, the astute "Prince of the Peace." At the outbreak of the French Revolution Godoy at first opposed the revolutionary government of France; but in 1796 he made a league and entered into the Treaty of San Ildefonso. Hence Spanish fleets joined the French against the English. The fortunes of Spain swayed back and forth as those of France rose or fell, until Spanish independence was for a time extinguished.

Napoleon formed an ambitions plan of restoring a colonial empire to France, and proceeded to conquer Spain, expecting thus to acquire Spanish America. Hence at a conference at Bayonne in 1808, the French emperor forced Ferdinand VII. and the infantes, Don Carlos and Don Antonio, to resign their claims to the Spanish throne. A junta of 150 subservient members offered the crown to Joseph Bonaparte, whom Napoleon entitled "King of Spain and India." The Spaniards as a nation never accepted this arrangement. An anti-French party appeared in the kingdom, and was supported by English forces under Moore and Wellington. England and her European allies henceforth strove to restore the Bourbon house, and early recognized the prince of Asturias as king (Ferdinand VII.). The Spanish colonies refused to accept French rule, and in 1803 Napoleon's cession of Louisiana showed that he had given up his American plans.

During this period the best patriotism of the people rallied around their native prince as representing, at least, their national rights as against the usurpation of France. The Spaniards gave more or less effective support to Wellington, in his long, and at last successful, struggle with Napoleon's marshals in the Peninsular campaign.

In 1814, when the French emperor was hard pressed, he agreed to recognize Ferdinand, on condition that he would take an oath to support the reformed constitution of 1812. This promise was not fulfilled and after Waterloo there was none to enforce it. Ferdinand was restored and became as arbitrary as he pleased. His reign, moreover, was marked by the revolt of the Spanish colonists in America and in 1821 the last Spanish colony on the mainland of America was lost. In 1819 Spain signed a treaty with the United States, by which the Floridas, temporarily recovered by Spain, were formally surrendered.

Ferdinand VII. died in 1833 and was succeeded by his daughter, Infanta Isabella, with the queen mother as regent. During the next seven years Spain was torn by revolts intended to place Don Carlos, the brother of Ferdinand VII., on the throne. In 1840, owing to a new revolution, Maria Christina, the queen mother, withdrew from Spain; General Espartero assumed control and in 1841 was appointed regent. Isabella II. was declared of age in 1843. During her reign even the court of Spain was shocked by the scandals of the queen's private life. Revolutions broke out and in 1868 Isabella fled from Spain; in 1870 she formally abdicated the throne in favor of her son, Alfonso. From the departure of Isabella until 1874 Spain was in a state of insurrection and also of civil war. The crown was offered to Amadeus, the son of Victor Emmanuel of Italy, and for three years he attempted to exercise some authority, but abdicated in 1872.

For two years Spain was a republic, and presidents followed each other in rapid succession. At length Isabella's son was proclaimed king under the title of Alfonso XII. and some sort of order was established. During this period the island of Cuba had been in revolt for ten years, but in 1878 Spanish authority was once more established and in 1880 a measure was passed abolishing slavery there.

Alfonso XII. died November 25, 1885, and his wife, Maria Christina, became the regent for their son, who was born May 17, 1886, and was given the title of Alfonso XIII. During the early years of his reign Spain lost the remains of her over-sea empire. In 1895 a revolution convulsed Cuba which the Spanish authorities found impossible to suppress, and in 1896 insurrections broke out in the Philippine Islands. In both Cuba and the Philippines the Spanish authorities showed great cruelty in dealing with the revolutionists and were not always careful to distinguish American citizens from natives.

The United States remonstrated with Spain and a party in the United States demanded the recognition of Cuban independence. In 1898, because of the failure of the Spanish administration in Cuba, the United States demanded the immediate withdrawal of Spain from the island. War was declared. American squadrons defeated one Spanish fleet in the Bay of Manila, the capital of the Philippine Islands, and another at Santiago, Cuba. On July 14, Santiago surrendered, and on August 12 the war was ended.

By the Treaty of Paris in the following December, Spain ceded Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam to the United States and withdrew her authority from Cuba. Cuba became nominally an independent republic, but actually a protectorate of the United States. In the following year, Spain sold to Germany the Caroline, Pelew, and Mariana or Ladrone Islands (excepting Guam) for $4,000,000, and thus, after an experience of four centuries ceased to possess American or Oriental colonies,

In 1902, Alfonso XIII. was enthroned and four years later married Princess Victoria of Battenberg, the granddaughter of Queen Victoria of England. Throughout his reign there have been frequent manifestations of anarchy and he has twice narrowly escaped assassination The industrial condition of Spain has not been good and frequent general strikes have led to the proclamation of martial law. Political history has been confused, ministry succeeding ministry with startling rapidity. Nevertheless the king has on the whole governed wisely and has shown that he has the interests of his people at heart. The agricultural and industrial development have been greatly encouraged in the kingdom.

During the World War, Spain maintained a position of neutrality. Accusations were made that improper pro-German influence was determining the policy of the country; but the great object of the government was to strengthen the internal condition of Spain and avoid at any cost being involved in the war. In this Spain was successful. As a neutral producing food and raw materials, Spain was enriched by the war.

Organization.

Government. Spain is a hereditary monarchy with a written constitution dating from 1876. The instrument defines the government as a constitu-

tional monarchy; the executive authority is vested in the king exclusively, and the legislative authority in the Cortes and the king.

The Cortes is a double body consisting of a Senate and Congress; the two houses are of equal authority. There are three classes of senators, the first two together not to exceed 180: senators by their own right; senators of life tenure (nominated by the crown); and 180 senators elected by corporations of the state.

The Congress or popular body is an elective assembly having one member apportioned to every fifty thousand of the inhabitants. The electors must be twenty-five years of age, having full civil rights and antecedent citizenship of some municipality for a period of two years. By the law of August 8, 1907, voting is compulsory for all males over the age of 25. Ten members of Congress may be chosen as representatives at large, provided each shall have received a cumulative vote of ten thousand. There are in all 417 deputies, of whom 98 may be chosen in 28 of the large districts on the principle of minority representation.

The executive includes under the monarch a council of nine ministers, as follows: President of the Council; Minister of Foreign Affairs; of Justice; Finance; Interior; War; Marine; Public Works; Public Instruction.

Industry and Labor. From the beginning of the 17th century until the end of the 19th century the industries as well as the political influence of Spain were declining. The centuries of warfare with the Moors and the opportunities for wealth in the Spanish colonial possessions brought about a distaste for labor among the upper classes. Though Spain is naturally one of the most fertile countries of Europe, nearly nine tenths of the land being productive, agriculture is carried on by unprogressive methods. Commercial and manufacturing interests also declined and Spain was less affected than almost any other country of Europe by the manufacturing and industrial changes of the 19th century.

One of the drawbacks to agricultural development has been the favor shown to the *mesta* or union of proprietors of the sheep ranches. Fine wool, being the leading product of Spain since the Middle Ages, attracted the patronage of the government to the discouragement of agriculture. The silk interest ranked next to that of wool. This industry has been greatly improved and the excellence of both fiber and fabric is recognized throughout the world. Spain has large manufactories of cotton goods, principally in Catalonia, where in 1910 there were 2,600,000 spindles. There are also large woolen manufactories with nearly 9,000 looms.

In recent years more attention has been paid to the development of the resources and industries of Spain. The production of wheat has, under the stimulus of the war, greatly increased. After wheat rank barley, corn, and rye. The vineyard industry is extremely important and produced more than 540,000,000 gallons of ordinary wines in 1919. More than 3,800,000 acres of land are devoted to the cultivation of olives which produce about 1,400,000 tons of olives and over 255,000 tons of oil. Spain is very rich in minerals and in 1918 the more important productions were iron, copper, coal, lead, lignite, and zinc.

Religion. The Roman Catholic Church is the national church of Spain and practically the entire population are Catholics, with the exception of about 30,000, including 7,000 Protestants and 4,000 Jews. The clergy and buildings are supported by the state and large sums are annually appropriated which the reformers are attempting to reduce. There are 3,800 religious houses in Spain and the total number of monks is over 9,000, while there are over 38,000 nuns. There are 66 Spanish cathedrals, more than 20,000 parish churches, and 35,000 priests.

Education. Spain at an early date was one of the foremost states in the matter of education. Her universities, in particular that of Salamanca, were famous. Under the Moors, Spain was the leading educational center of Europe. The spirit of Moorish art and learning was somewhat transfused into the Christian states. After the close of the Middle Ages, however, this educational preëminence was lost. Medieval methods were long continued in Spain until by the middle of the 19th century Spain ranked in illiteracy as one of the most backward states in Europe.

In 1857 an elaborate system of primary education was established. Education was made compulsory and a primary school was planned for every five hundred inhabitants, while instruction was to be on a rigidly uniform plan. This system, however, was not carefully enforced, although various improvements have been made. The country is divided into 11 educational districts with the universities as centers. Since 1902 public and primary schools have been supported by the government and most of the school children are educated without cost. There are 26,000 public schools and 5,000 private schools, with over 2,600,000 pupils. Secondary education is entrusted to "institutions," of which there must be at least one in every province. There are 11 universities attended by 23,586 students. The government also supports various special schools. Since 1902 the government has sent scholars, teachers, and professors to study in foreign countries. In 1910 there was established a Board of Scientific Research which oversees the work done abroad and the organization of new laboratories in Spain.

Defense. Military service in Spain is compulsory. The total length of service is 18 years, divided as follows: one year the recruits are kept at the military depot; three years in the active army (first standing); five years in the active army (second standing); six years in the reserve; three years in the territorial reserve. The peace establishment for 1920 was 216,000 men and the total strength of the field army would be about 300,000. The reserve troops amount to about 90,000 In addition the military police and constabulary amount to about 30,000 The Spanish navy consists of three dreadnoughts built between 1912 and 1914, one old predreadnought and seven cruisers, the most recent of which was built in 1916. In 1915 a new program for six years was adopted which provided for 4 cruisers, 6 destroyers, 28 submarines, and 3 gunboats.

Area and Population. The continental area of Spain is 190,050 square miles, but including the Balearic and Canary Islands and the Spanish possessions (Ceuta, Melilla, etc.) on the African coast opposite Gibraltar, the total area is 194,783 square miles. The population of Spain is increasing very slowly. The total in 1910 was 19,950,817; estimated in 1918 at 20,719,598.

SPANISH COLONIES.

Little remains to Spain of her former colonial empire except the Canary Islands and territory in Africa, which amount to about 128,000 square miles and have an estimated population of about 844,000.

CANARY ISLANDS.

The Canaries consist of seven larger and seven smaller islands. The principal are Teneriffe, Palma, Fuerteventura, and Ferro or Hierro. Their total area is about 2,800 square miles and it was estimated that in 1918 they supported 513,959 inhabitants. They are mountainous, of volcanic origin, and their coasts rocky and precipitous. They are supposed to be the *Fortunatae Insulae* of the Romans. Unvisited by Europeans until near the end of the Middle Ages, most of them were subdued by the Norman, Jean de Béthencourt, a navigator and adventurer, early in the fifteenth century. The kingdom of Castile acquired them from his successor. Many geographers formerly reckoned longitude from Ferro as from the original meridian, dividing east from west.

POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

Spanish Morocco comprises a zone in the north of Morocco extending for about 200 miles from the Algerian border to the Atlantic, with an average breadth of 60 miles. The rights of Spain to this region were acknowledged in the Franco-Spanish treaty of 1912. The zone is administered by a Spanish High Commissioner. Spanish Morocco includes the region known as Er Rif, but by the treaty of 1912 Tangier and surrounding territory of about 140 square miles was declared international The area of Spanish Morocco is about 7,700 square miles and the population is estimated at 600,000.

Ifni is a region of about 965 square miles and 20,000 population in the southwestern corner of Morocco on the Atlantic and was ceded to Spain in 1860.

Rio de Oro and Adrar is the name given to an area of more than 109,000 square miles at the western end of the Sahara on the Atlantic Ocean opposite the Canary Islands. The population is unknown but the region is thinly settled.

Spanish Guinea is a region of 9,470 square miles on the west Coast of Africa between Kamerun and French Congo. It includes also the island of **Fernando Po** in the Bight of Biafra, and several other smaller islands. Lying almost on the equator, the vegetation is luxuriant and there are vast forests; but the low, marshy coast and the entire lack of harbors have prevented the development of commerce. The population, including the islands, is about 224,000.

Chronology.

For earlier events, see Medieval Period, *Chronology*, and Early Modern Period, *Chronology*.

1648. **Peace of Westphalia** (Münster) ends Thirty Years' War. Spain recognizes independence of Holland.

1659. *Nov. 7.* **Treaty of the Pyrenees** between Spain and France; Spain yields territory — Artois, Roussillon, Cerdaña (Cerdagne), and the Spanish fortresses in the Netherlands. Pyrenees are fixed as the boundary between the two kingdoms.

1665. *Sept. 17.* Philip IV. dies; his son, **Charles II.**, succeeds.

1667. *May.* French invade Spanish Netherlands. **War of Revolution.**

1668. *May 2.* **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.**

1672. Spain joins Austria in a **coalition against France.**

1675. Charles II. assumes the government and takes as chief adviser his half brother, Don John.

1679. By the **Treaty of Nimwegen** (Nijmegen) Spain surrenders Franche-Comté and her fortresses in Flanders. Charles II. marries Maria Louisa, niece of Louis XIV. (See Early Modern Period.)

1698. *Oct. 11.* European powers make a **treaty of partition** concerning Spain, to take effect on the death of Charles II. With him the Spanish line of the Hapsburg family ends. Three claimants are in the field: (1) Louis XIV. of France, as son of the elder daughter of Philip IV., although the inheritance has been renounced. (2) Leopold I. of Austria, as son of the younger daughter of Philip III. and husband of the younger daughter of Philip IV. (3) Electoral prince of Bavaria, as great-grandson of Philip VI. and grandson of the younger sister of Charles II.

1699. Charles II. of Spain, not having been consulted in the treaty of partition made by the powers, makes the electoral prince of Bavaria his sole heir, but the prince dies, February 6.

1700. *March 13.* **Second treaty of partition** by the other powers. November 1, Charles II. dies, after making **Philip of Anjou**, the grandson of Louis of France, his heir; soon afterward Philip proclaimed as **Philip V.**

1701. *Sept. 7.* **Grand Alliance** formed by the naval powers and the Emperor in order to secure the Spanish Netherlands and the territories in Italy. France forms an alliance with the elector of Bavaria. Prussia supports the Emperor. Troops of the alliance are led by **Prince Eugene** of Savoy, chief of the imperial army, and by the English Duke of **Marlborough.** The war is fought almost entirely outside of Spain, — in Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands. In Spain, the Duke of Anjou is recognized as king. Prince Eugene invades Italy with an imperial force. Italian campaign indecisive. In the four years following the French have the advantage.

1703. Prince Eugene moves on Germany; **Marlborough invades the Spanish Netherlands.** The Archduke Charles of Austria enters Catalonia. Imperialists are routed by the French and Bavarians at Höchstädt, September 30.

1704. **English capture Gibraltar.** At **battle of Blenheim,** August 13, French and Bavarians are overwhelmed by Marlborough and Prince Eugene.

1706. *May 23.* Marlborough defeats the French at **Ramillies.** Prince Eugene with the Prussians routs the French at Turin, September 7. Lombardy submits and Charles is proclaimed king of Spain as Charles III., at Milan, and the French are expelled from Italy. (See France.)

1707. *April 25.* Battle of Almansa. Archduke Charles ("Charles III.") loses Spain.

1708. *July 11.* Allies again defeat the French at **Oudenarde.** [French at **Malplaquet.**]

1709. *Sept. 11.* Eugene and Marlborough] defeat [

1711. Emperor of Austria, Joseph I., dies, and the Archduke Charles succeeds him, whereupon the powers change their support from Charles to Philip of Anjou, the candidate of Louis XIV.

1713. *April 11.* **Peace of Utrecht;** Philip V., founder of the Spanish branch of the Bourbons, recognized as king of Spain.

1714. Spanish force with French allies captures Barcelona; the city loses its liberties. Philip V. espouses Elizabeth Farnese.

1717. **Alberoni,** minister of Philip V., causes invasion of Sardinia and (1718) of Sicily. As a result Great Britain, France, Austria, and Holland form a **quadruple alliance** against Spain.

1719. French army moves against Spain, and Philip dismisses Alberoni.

1724. Philip V. abdicates the throne of Spain in favor of his son Luis, but on the death of the latter he resumes the sovereignty.

1725. Spain enters into an **alliance with Austria,** and a **counter alliance** is formed by **France, Great Britain, Prussia,** and (1726) **Russia.**

1729. *Nov. 9.* Treaty of peace with France and Great Britain at Seville. **Gibraltar** ceded to Great Britain.

1731. Charles, son of Philip V. and Elizabeth Farnese, on the ending of the male line of the Farnese family, receives Parma and Piacenza.

1733. First Family Compact signed with France.

1734. Spanish seize Naples. [Sicilies.]

1735. *July.* Charles crowned king of the Two [

1738. *Nov. 18.* **Austria and France** form a definitive **treaty** at Vienna, and a year later Spain accedes to the conditions of this peace.

1739. **War** declared **by Great Britain;** Porto Bello (America) captured by Vernon.

1740. Spain claims a part of the territories of Austria on the death of Charles VI. and becomes involved in the **War of the Austrian Succession** (see Germany, Austria, and France).

1741. Spain joins France in support of the claims of the Elector Charles Albert and in May concludes an alliance at Nymphenburg.

1744. Spaniards with the French **defeat the Sardinians** near Cuneo (see France and Italy).

1746. *July 9.* Philip V. dies; succeeded by his son, **Ferdinand VI.**

1748. *Oct. 18.* By the **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle,** which ends the War of the Anstrian Succession, Austria cedes Parma and Piacenza (seized in 1746) to Philip, the brother of Ferdinand VI.

1759. Ferdinand VI. succeeded by his brother, **Charles III.,** as king of Spain, and Ferdinand IV., son of Charles, becomes king of the Two Sicilies.

1762. Spain becomes involved in the **Seven Years' War** (see GERMANY). Great Britain declares war against Spain, which attacks Portugal, the British ally. In August, the **British capture Havana.** October 5, Manila occupied by British and indemnity demanded.

1763. *Feb. 10.* **Peace of Paris** signed by Spain, France, Great Britain, and Portugal. Spain cedes Florida to Great Britain in exchange for Cuba, and receives (by previous treaty, November 3, 1762) western half of Louisiana from France; British evacuate Manila.

1767. Charles III., under guidance of premier Aranda, **banishes Jesuits.**

1775. Concessions made to Spanish American colonies in matter of trade. [alliance.]

1777. American minister vainly seeks Spanish

1779. *June 16.* While **Great Britain** is involved in war with her American colonies **Spain declares war** and unites with France in a siege of Gibraltar.

1781, 1782. Two attempts to storm Gibraltar fail.

1783. *Sept. 3.* **Treaty of Versailles.** Great Britain restores Florida and Minorca to Spain, the Spanish having taken possession of Florida in 1781.

1786. Controversy with United States over navigation of Mississippi River (see UNITED STATES).

1788. *Sept. 15.* Charles III. dies; succeeded by his son, **Charles IV.** [lution.]

1789. Spanish relations disturbed by French Revo-

1790. *Oct. 28.* Nootka Sound Convention with Great Britain for joint rights on Oregon coast.

1793. War with France.

1795. *July 22.* **Treaty of Basel.** French republic recognized. Santo Domingo ceded to France. Era of Godoy, "Prince of the Peace."

Oct. 27. First treaty with the United States: commerce, boundary of Florida, and navigation of the Mississippi.

1796. *August.* Spain and France make treaty of San Ildefonso; Spain becomes French ally.

October. Spain declares war on Great Britain.

1797. *Feb. 14.* English fleet under Jervis defeats Spanish off Cape St. Vincent.

1800. *Oct. 1.* Spain forced by Napoleon to cede **Louisiana** by second (secret) **Treaty of San Ildefonso.**

1802. *March 27.* Peace of Amiens between France and Great Britain, includes also Spain and the Batavian Republic, the allies of France.

1803. Spain drawn into war by Napoleon, who desires to use the Spanish fleet. [at **Trafalgar.**]

1805. *Oct. 21.* Spanish and French fleets defeated

1807. Napoleon resolves to conquer Spain.

1808. *March 17.* **Charles IV.** compelled, by rising among his subjects, to abdicate; his son, Ferdinand VII., becomes king. [army.]

March 23. Murat enters Madrid with a French

May 5. Conference at Bayonne. Charles and Ferdinand compelled by Napoleon to renounce the throne, and are made state prisoners.

June 6. **Joseph Bonaparte** declared **king of Spain.** The country rises and begins a guerrilla and regular warfare on the French. Napoleon presses the campaign in person. December, **Madrid capitulates** to his army.

1808–1821. For revolts and independence of American colonies, see South American states by name.

1808–1812. Peninsular campaign in Portugal and Spain. British army under Moore, and later Wellesley (Wellington), resists the French; aided by national Spanish government.

1812. *January.* **Wellington storms Ciudad-Rodrigo.** March, the Spanish Cortes promulgates a liberal constitution. In April, **Badajoz stormed** by Wellington. July 22, he defeats Marmont near **Salamanca;** in the following month the **British** army enters **Madrid.**

1813. *June 21.* Wellington defeats French at **Vitoria,** and drives them out of Spain.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1814. *May.* Ferdinand VII. annuls the constitution of the Cortes and enters Madrid.

1815. *June 9.* By the Congress of Vienna **Spain restored to the House of Bourbon.** Lucca bestowed on the Spanish infanta, Maria Louisa, and her son, Charles Louis, she being the heiress of the last duke of Parma.

1819. *Feb. 22.* Spain signs treaty with the **United States** for the **cession of** (West and East) **Florida.** Two years later the territory is formally surrendered.

1820. Insurrection led by Riego breaks out in Spain; King Ferdinand is obliged to restore the abrogated constitution.

1822. Liberal supporters of the **constitution** in Spain **victorious** over the Conservatives, and a congress of the powers convenes at Verona to take measnres for suppressing them.

1823. Under mandate of the powers, a French army marches into Spain to restore the authority of the king. Enters Madrid in May. Cortes withdraws to Cádiz, where an armed defense is made. In August, the French forces storm the Trocadero and soon succeed in **overthrowing** the power of the **Liberal party.**

1833. *Sept. 29.* **Ferdinand VII.** dies; his daughter succeeds to the throne as **Isabella II.,** with Maria Christina as regent. Insurrection breaks out under **Don Carlos,** the uncle of Isabella, who declares himself king of Spain.

1834. *April 22.* Great Britain, France, and Portugal unite in a treaty by which the claims of the Carlists are condemned.

1836. *August.* Radical insurrection against the queen regent, **Maria Christina;** she is forced to swear allegiance to the constitution of 1812. Army, with aid of British allies, defeats Carlists.

1839. *Aug. 31.* Espartero makes a convention with Maroto, leader of the Carlists, at Vergara. **Power of Don Carlos broken** and he flees to France, September 13

1840. Revolutionary spirit breaks out again, and Maria Christina withdraws from Spain. **Espartero** assuming control of the government as her administrator, in October.

1841. Espartero appointed **regent** by the Cortes.

1843. Narváez incites a rising by which Espartero is deposed from the regency; the young queen, **Isabella II.,** declared to be of age.

1846. Isabella II. marries **Francisco de Asis;** and her sister, Louisa, weds the Duke de Montpensier, Louis Philippe's youngest son.

1848–1858. Affairs in Cuba (see CUBA).

1854. *June.* New revolution. In July Espartero is restored to power.

1856. Espartero succeeded by O'Donnell, who is attacked by insurrectionists and quells the insurgents with severity. O'Donnell resigns and is succeeded by Narváez; country agitated with **outbreaks and insurrections.**

1859. War against Morocco declared by Spain, and in the following year Tetuán is compelled to capitulate, ending the war (see MOROCCO).

Carlists attempt a rising.

1861. Spain joins coercion of Mexico (see MEXICO). Santo Domingo, once a part of Spain, but now an independent republic, seized by Spain. Action considered unfriendly by United States. After four years of effort, Spain gives it up, May 5, 1865 (see SANTO DOMINGO).

1864–1865. Controversy and **war with Peru and Chile** (see PERU and CHILE).

1866. *Jan. 3.* Military insurrection in Aranjuez, under the leadership of **Prim.** Riots in Barcelona break out, January 9, and New Castile, Catalonia, and Aragon, are declared to be in a state of siege, January 6–12. January 20, Prim takes refuge in Portugal.

1868. *September.* Revolution breaks out again in Spain under the direction of Prim and Serrano. September 28, troops of the queen defeated at Alcolea. **Isabella II. leaves Spain,** and Serrano becomes president of a provisional government.

1868–1878. Insurrection in Cuba; complications with United States (see CUBA).

1869. *June.* Monarchy decreed by the Spanish Cortes and **Serrano** established as **regent.** Efforts of the radicals thwarted.

1870. *Nov. 16.* Prince **Amadeus,** Duke of Aosta and son of Victor Emmanuel, chosen **king** by the Cortes; accepts December 4.

Dec. 28. Prim attacked by an assassin; dies, December 30. [los as **Charles VII.**]

1872. Carlists rise in force and proclaim **Don Car-**

1873. *Feb. 11.* **Amadeus abdicates** the throne and a **republican form of government** instituted. Figueras becomes president of a ministry in which **Castelar** is minister of foreign affairs

June 8. Cortes proclaims **Spain a federal republic.** Francisco Pi y Margall president of the executive. **Revolutions** in Andalusia and Valencia and much bloodshed caused by the risings of the Internationals in Alcoy, July 10. July 19, Nicolás Salmerón made the premier with a new cabinet. September 7, **Castelar** president of the executive. Carlists continue their operations

1874. *Jan. 3.* Castelar resigns, and Pavia executes a *coup d'état.* January 4, **Serrano** again at head of government.

Dec. 29–30. Son of Isabella II. proclaimed king by the armies, as **Alfonso XII.;** a ministry for the regency is created, with Antonio Cánovas del Castillo at its head.

1875. *Jan 9.* King Alfonso reaches Spain.

1876. *Feb. 19.* Carlists defeated; Don Carlos flees to France.

1880. *January.* Cortes passes a measure for the **abolition of slavery in Cuba** within eight years.

1881. *February.* Cánovas del Castillo and his cabinet resign; Praxedes Mateo **Sagasta** becomes **premier.**

1883. *August.* Revolts of the military. Resignation of Sagasta, October; José de **Posada Herrera** becomes **premier.**

1884. *January.* **Cánovas del Castillo** supplants Posada Herrera.

1885. *Nov. 25.* **Alfonso XII.** dies, and his wife, **Christina,** becomes regent, with **Sagasta** as head of the administration.

1886. *May 17.* Christina bears a son, who, under the regency of his mother, becomes **Alfonso XIII.**

1887. *May.* Negotiations with Italy and Austria-Hungary for a Mediterranean agreement.

1890. Sagasta resigns and **Cánovas del Castillo** again becomes **premier.**

1891. Extension of the Mediterranean agreement with Italy and Austria-Hungary for a period of four years.

1893. *Nov. 3.* **Cuban rebellion begins** (see CUBA).

Nov. 22. One hundred **anarchists** arrested **in Barcelona.**

1895–1898. Complications with United States, due to sympathy with revolting Cubans (see CUBA and UNITED STATES).

1896. Insurrection in the **Philippine Islands.**

1898. War with United States over Cuba (see CUBA and UNITED STATES).

Dec. 10. **Treaty of peace** with United States. Cuba, Porto Rico, Philippines, and Guam lost (see UNITED STATES).

1902. *Feb. 26.* Great disturbances in Barcelona ended by troops.

May 17. **Alfonso XIII. enthroned.**

Nov. 14. Sagasta forms a new cabinet.

Nov. 17. Snpposed ashes of Christopher Columbus, taken from Havana in 1898, deposited in Seville cathedral.

1903. Controversy between Conservatives, who favor army and navy expenditures, and Liberals, who favor economic reform, causes numerous cabinet changes. June, **Villaverde,** a Liberal, becomes **premier;** in December another change.

1905. Year marked by numerous cabinet changes, the result of political unrest. Spain acts in accord with France on the Moroccan question (see MOROCCO and NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD). King Alfonso visits Paris in June; is received with great cordiality. President Loubet makes a return visit in October.

1906. *May 31.* **Alfonso XIII.** and **Princess Victoria of Battenberg,** niece of King Edward VII., **married** at Madrid. Anarchist throws a bomb at their carriage, killing more than 20 bystanders.

Nov. 28. Moret ministry resigns.

Dec. 4. New cabinet is formed with **Armijo de la Vega** premier.

1907. *Jan. 24.* Cabinet under Armijo de la Vega resigns; one under **Maura** succeeds.

May 10. Crown Prince Alfonso born.

1909. *July 22.* **Rioting in Madrid** over the sending of reënforcements to Morocco (see MOROCCO). July 26, fierce rioting at **Barcelona.** July 28, **martial law** proclaimed throughout Spain.

Oct. 13. Professor Francisco Ferrer executed at Barcelona, after trial under martial law, as an instigator of sedition. [Liberal ministry.]

Oct. 21. Ministry resigns and **Moret** forms a

1910. *Jan. 14.* Plot to overthrow ministry.

Feb. 9. Moret cabinet resigns and is succeeded by a Radical and Anticlerical cabinet with **José Canalejas** as premier; sustained in the elections.

July 29. Rupture between the Vatican and the government, caused by policy toward the Roman Catholic orders, leads to withdrawal of the Spanish ambassador to the Vatican.

1911. *April 2.* Resignation of Canalejas and cabinet follows a debate on the **Ferrer controversy;** later withdrawn.

Sept. 19. **Martial law declared** throughout the kingdom on account of revolutionary riots.

1912. *March 11.* Canalejas cabinet resigns; reconstructed, March 12.

Nov. 12. **Premier Canalejas assassinated** by an anarchist.

Nov. 14. Count Alvarado de **Romanones** appointed **premier.** Conservative opposition forces him to resign, December 31; but support of the king enables him to form a new ministry.

Nov. 27. **Franco-Spanish treaty** signed, settling the Moroccan question (see MOROCCO).

1913. *Jan. 8.* Premier Romanones announces the government's decision to resume formal relations with the Vatican, interrupted in 1910.

April 13. **King Alfonso** narrowly **escapes assassination** while riding through the streets of Madrid.

June 11. Romanones resigns a second time, because of disagreements among the Liberals. June 14, he forms a new Liberal cabinet.

Aug. 7. **General strike at Barcelona** throws 75,000 men out of work and closes 260 factories. August 22, strikers accept the government's terms and agree to return to work.

Oct. 25. Romanones and his cabinet resign on refusal of a vote of confidence. October 27, **E. Dato** forms a representative Conservative ministry.

1914. *Feb. 13.* Cortes dissolved. It has had the longest life of any parliament in 30 years. New Cortes opens in April.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914 (*cont.*). At outbreak of World War **Spain remains neutral,** though suspected of sympathy with Germany. Great demand for foodstuffs and minerals makes country prosperous throughout war.

1915. *June 4.* Loan of $150,000,000 authorized.

June 22. Cabinet resigns, failure of new loan being considered tantamount to a vote of lack of confidence, but resignation withdrawn.

Sept. 2. German government pays to Spain indemnity for the deaths of seven Spaniards at Liége in August.

Dec. 6. Cabinet resigns through a dispute on the priority of economic measures over military. December 9, **Romanones** forms new ministry.

1916. *July.* **Industrial crisis** caused by the proclamation of a general strike; martial law proclaimed throughout the country; strikers agree to refer their grievances to arbitration.

Sept. 26. Spain **protests** to Berlin against the torpedoing of Spanish steamers by **German submarines.** Further protest, December 29.

1917. *March 29.* **Martial law declared** because of labor disturbances and a secessionist movement in Barcelona.

April 19. Romanones resigns because of seditious propaganda in military circles and unrest among the workmen. Succeeded by Garcia **Prieto,** a moderate Liberal.

June 12. **Dato,** a liberal Conservative, succeeds Prieto as premier, his policy being strict neutrality in the war.

Aug. 14. **Rioting** and revolutionary movements occur in various cities during the course of a **general strike.**

Oct. 7. In view of the continued political disturbances, the Dato cabinet resigns.

Nov. 2. Coalition cabinet formed by **Prieto,** Marquis of Alhucemas.

1918. *Jan. 5.* Government discovers a new revolutionary movement inspired by army officers.

Feb. 7. Protests made to Germany because of the destruction of the coastwise steamer *Giralda.*

March 23. New cabinet formed by **Maura.**

Aug. 31. Government decides to seize an interned German vessel in retaliation for the sinking of a Spanish ship carrying coal from England.

Oct. 14. Government announces that **Germany has ceded seven merchant vessels** to replace Spanish ships sunk by submarines.

Nov. 17. **Alhucemas** forms a new ministry. December 5, **Romanones** becomes premier.

1919. *Jan. 17.* **Radical movements in Barcelona** lead to the suspension of constitutional guarantees in that city.

Feb. 28. **Martial law** in Madrid results from rioting against profiteers.

March 3. **Tunnel,** nearly 20 miles long, **under the Pyrenees** between Puigcerda, eastern Spain, and Ax (or Dax), France, completed.

April. **Maura** forms a coalition cabinet. Disorders in Barcelona have figured in resignation of Romanones. [majority.

June 1. General election gives Conservative

July. Maura cabinet resigns; **Sánchez** ministry succeeds.

Aug. 17. **Spain** joins the **League of Nations.**

Nov. 4. **Lockout** begins which **Congress of Spanish Employers** voted a month before. Affects over a million workers. Employers claim movement necessary to offset syndicalism of General Federation of Labor. Agitation continues through winter and spring, producing a condition bordering on anarchy in Barcelona.

Dec. 12. **Allende-Salazar** ministry succeeds that of Sánchez; eighth ministry in two years.

1920. *Jan. 20.* Government orders dissolution of General Federation of Labor and also termination of lockout; does not result in return to normal conditions.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

See under British Empire, page 65.

SUDAN, ANGLO-EGYPTIAN.

See under British Empire, page 68.

SWEDEN.

Historical Outline.

The authentic history of Sweden begins in the ninth century with the mission of Ansgar and the practical conversion of the people to Christianity. From the tenth century to the end of the fourteenth there were numerous civil wars, in which the free peasants practically disappeared. In 1388 the nobles deposed the king and offered the crown to Margaret of Norway and Denmark, and in 1397 Sweden joined Norway and Denmark in the Union of Kalmar.

The Golden Age of Sweden, however, was in the seventeenth century under Gustavus Adolphus. Sweden intervened in Germany in the Thirty Years' War and made herself the strongest power in the north, acquiring control over Pomerania, the island of Rügen, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden. During Gustavus Adolphus' campaigns, his great minister, Count Axel Oxenstiern, established a strong and successful government at home. Gustavus Adolphus was succeeded by his daughter Christina, under whom a colony was planted on the Delaware. She was forced to abdicate in 1654 and was succeeded by Charles X., who undertook a war with Poland which was at first successful, but later resulted in disaster. Charles also successfully crossed the frozen Belt and attacked Denmark and for a time controlled that country. He was succeeded by Charles XI. in 1660, who maintained peace for sixteen years. War broke out in 1675 between Sweden, in alliance with France, and Denmark, supported by the elector of Brandenburg. For a time Sweden was hard pressed, but by the Treaty of Fontainebleau (confirmed by the subsequent Treaty of Lund) recovered what it had lost to Denmark.

In 1697 the crown descended to Charles XII., one of the most remarkable characters in history. He plunged Sweden into a great northern war, in which he was successful against Russia, then turned back, defeating the Poles and Saxons and placing his candidate on the Polish throne. In a second invasion of Russia he was successful until his reënforcements were cut off and his army surrounded and destroyed. In 1714 he returned to Sweden and faced an alliance of the powers hostile to him. In 1718 he was killed on an expedition to Norway. By the Peace of Nystad (1721) the war was brought to an end. Sweden had to abandon all her conquests on the Continent, but western Finland was restored to her.

The next sovereign was his sister Ulrica Eleonora, who turned her sovereignty over to Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, under whom some of the territorial losses were recovered. The power of the crown declined, however, and civil war broke out between the two parties of the nobility, the "Hats" and "Caps." Under several weak kings the royal power continued to decline. During the French Revolution peace was made with Russia by the surrender of Finland, and Russia induced Sweden to make peace with France and join the Continental system. Charles XIII. adopted and appointed as heir to the crown the French marshal, Bernadotte; and at this time Norway was added to the Swedish domain (1814).

In the struggle against Napoleon Sweden furnished an army of 30,000 men. At the Congress of Vienna (1815) Sweden retained possession of Norway, and no objection was made to Bernadotte when, in 1818, he succeeded to the throne under the title of Charles XIV. He ruled until 1844 and under him prosperity began to revive.

Oscar I. (1844–1859) attempted parliamentary reform, but failed and was succeeded by his son Charles XV. under whom genuine parliamentary reform was established. In 1863 it was decreed that the Riksdag was to consist of two chambers; an upper house, being a sort of aristocratic senate; and the lower house to consist of representatives elected biennially by popular suffrage.

Oscar II., the brother of Oscar I., reigned from 1872 to 1907. During his reign a system of protective duties was established and caused dissatisfaction. From 1890 franchise reform was agitated and the final composition of the two chambers determined. Towards the end of Oscar's long reign came the separation of Norway and the establishment of that kingdom under a separate sovereign (see Norway). The franchise question was finally settled in 1907 by the establishment of proportional representation for both chambers, universal manhood suffrage for election to second chamber, and the reduction of the qualifications for the first chamber. In 1907 King Oscar died and was succeeded by his son Gustavus.

In 1909 the franchise was still further extended by granting the vote to all inhabitants over 24 years of age without distinction of sex. During this reign the general tendency has been towards a more democratic, if not radical, policy. Like the other Scandinavian countries Sweden remained neutral during the World War, and, although suffering from food shortage because of the embargo laid by the Allies, found a ready market for her surplus products in Germany.

Organization.

Government. Sweden is a constitutional monarchy; the king as executive exercises his powers in conjunction with a council of state, and has absolute veto upon legislation. The legislative power is in a Diet of two houses, both elected by the people. The first chamber consists of 150 members elected for six years by the provincial assemblies. They must satisfy a high property qualification. The second chamber is composed of 230 representatives, chosen for three years by universal suffrage, men and women alike. There is proportional representation for both chambers.

Industry and Labor. About half the population depend upon agriculture, the chief crops being roots (sugar beet and fodder roots), hay, potatoes, oats, and corn. Mining from time immemorial has been one of the leading industries of Sweden and the Swedish iron ore is abundant and of the best quality. Although hampered by the lack of coal, the introduction and use of electricity produced by water power has opened new possibilities. Woodworking is also an industry of great importance, the forests of Sweden covering more than half of the area and furnishing valuable timber.

Religion and Education. Lutheran Protestantism is recognized as the state religion. The king must be a member of this church. All other religions are tolerated.

Education is well advanced in Sweden. Elementary education is free and compulsory and in 1918 there were more than 16,000 elementary schools besides many secondary schools and special vocational schools. The two universities of Upsala and of Lund have more than 3,700 students enrolled.

Defense. There is universal service supplemented by voluntary enlistment. Military liability extends from the age of 20 to the end of the forty-second year. The peace establishment in 1920 comprised 86,000 men. The navy was originally intended entirely for coast defense. In recent years several cruisers of considerable speed and gun power have been added.

The **area** is 173,035 square miles and the estimated **population** in 1918 was 5,813,850.

Chronology.

For earlier events see Medieval Period and Early Modern Period, *Chronology.*

1648. *Oct. 24.* By the **Peace of Westphalia,** Pomerania, Rügen, Bremen, and Verden ceded to Sweden.

1654. *July 6.* Queen Christina abdicates; succeeded by her cousin, **Charles X.**

1655. Swedes overrun Poland.

1657. Sweden in **war with Denmark.**

1658. Brief peace at Roskilde. War renewed and Charles X. besieges Copenhagen. Swedish fleet overcome by the Danes with their Dutch allies.

1659. Charles routed by Frederick William of Brandenburg.

1660. *Feb. 13.* Charles X. dies; succeeded by his son, **Charles XI.,** a child five years old. Peace with Brandenburg, Germany, and Poland, by which **Livonia and Esthonia are ceded to Sweden.** Treaty with Denmark; Danish territories in Swedish Scandinavia acquired.

1669. Sweden joins England and Holland in an **alliance against the French.**

1672. Treaty of Stockholm signed with France.

1675. Swedes **invade Brandenburg;** overcome by **Frederick William, the Great Elector** of Brandenburg, at **Fehrbellin,** June 18. Foundation of later Prussia.

1679. Treaties with Brandenburg and Denmark; Louis XIV. forces the elector to yield conquests except East Friesland (see Early Modern Period).

1697. *April 5.* **Charles XII.** succeeds Charles XI.

1700. Denmark joined by Russia and Poland in war against Sweden, but compelled to make the Peace of Travendal. Swedish troops rout the Russian army of Peter the Great at **Narva,** November 30.

1701. Polish War. Charles defeats Poles and Saxon allies.

1702. Charles enters Warsaw and occupies Cracow.

1703. Charles routs Augustus at **Pultusk.**

1704. Charles deprives Augustus of the Polish crown and secures election of **Stanislas Leszczynski.**

1708. Charles XII. invades Russia.

1709. *July 8.* His army destroyed by Peter the Great at **Poltava.** Charles flees to Turkey, and the Danes invade Sweden.

1710. Swedes under Stenbock expel the Danes.

1713. Stenbock surrenders at Tönningen to allied Russians, Danes, and Saxons.

1714. Charles XII. returns to Sweden.

1715. War against Sweden by Frederick William I. of Prussia, who takes Stralsund, in December.

1716. Swedes invade Norway.

1718. Charles XII. again invades Norway; he **perishes** in the siege of Fredrikshald, December 11; his sister, **Ulrica Eleonora** succeeds.

1719. Ulrica inaugurates a liberal reign, but executes the prime minister, Görtz. Treaty with George I. of England (as Elector of Hanover) by which Sweden cedes Bremen and Verden.

1720. Treaty signed with Prussia at Stockholm by which most of Hither Pomerania is yielded.

Ulrica abdicates in favor of her consort, **Frederick of Hesse-Cassel.** New constitution strips the king of power, which falls into hands of the nobles. Two parties: "Caps," favoring policy of peace; "Hats," favoring alliance with France and hostility to Russia.

1721. *Aug. 30.* By **Treaty of Nystad** with Russia, Sweden loses Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, and Karelia. [later.

1741. War with Russia; peace at Åbo, two years

1751. *March.* **Adolphus Frederick,** of the House of Holstein-Gottorp, succeeds Frederick.

1756. **Sweden** takes part of Austria **in the Seven Years' War,** but in 1762 withdraws (see AUSTRIA).
1771. *Feb. 12.* Adolphus Frederick dies; succeeded by his son **Gustavus III.**
1772. By a *coup d'état,* Gustavus puts through a **new constitution** changing Sweden from an anarchical republic of nobles to a constitutional monarchy.
1772–1786. Period of **internal reform.**
1788. **War** declared **on Russia.**
1789. *Feb. 17.* King secures constitutional control of war, peace, and foreign affairs, becoming practically an absolute monarch.
1790. *July.* Gustavus wins success in the Gulf of Finland. August, treaty of peace.
1792. *March 29.* Gustavus III dies from wound by an assassin. His son, **Gustavus IV. (Adolphus)** succeeds.
1807. **Napoleon** subjugates the Swedish territories in Germany (see FRANCE).
1808. **Finland** conquered by Russia.
1809. *March 29.* Gustavus IV. compelled to abdicate; the son being passed over, he is succeeded by his uncle, **Charles XIII.**
June 9. Charles signs a **new constitution** making Sweden a limited monarchy.
Sept. 17. Treaty of Fredrikshamn; formal cession of Finland to Russia.
1810. *Jan. 6.* **Peace of Paris** with France. Sweden joins the Continental system and receives Swedish Pomerania **Bernadotte,** a general of Napoleon, chosen as crown prince of Sweden.
1813. Sweden joins in the alliance against Napoleon.
1814. *Jan. 14.* By the Treaty of Kiel with Great Britain and Denmark, **Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden,** receiving **Swedish Pomerania** in return.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. *June 9.* Possession of Norway is confirmed to Sweden by the Congress of Vienna (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD. For resulting personal union with Norway, see NORWAY).
1818. *Feb. 5.* Bernadotte succeeds to the throne of Sweden and Norway as **Charles XIV. John.**
1844. *March 8.* Charles XIV. John dies; succeeded by his son, **Oscar I.**
1855. *Nov. 21.* France and Great Britain sign a treaty guaranteeing Norway and Sweden against Russian aggression. Abrogated April 23, 1908.
1857. **Charles,** son of Oscar I., becomes regent for his father.
October. Decree of banishment against Catholics who have been converted from the Lutheran faith promulgated; but **religious toleration** in a modified form is allowed by the laws of 1860.
1859. *July 8.* Charles succeeds his father as **Charles XV.** [Charles XV.]
1872. *Sept. 18.* **Oscar II.** succeeds his brother.]
1905. Sweden acknowledges the **independence of Norway** (see NORWAY). [**Gustavus V.**]
1907. *Dec. 5.* Oscar II dies; succeeded by his son.]
1908. *April 23.* **Joint declaration** by Great Britain, Denmark, France, Germany, Netherlands, and Sweden to maintain the *status quo* in territories bordering on the North Sea. Also similar one for the Baltic Sea by Denmark, Germany, Russia, and Sweden.
Aug. 27. Congress of International Patent Union meets at Stockholm.
1909. *Feb. 13.* Bill passes both houses, permitting all males over 24 years of age to vote, with proportional representation in the Diet.
August–September. **Great strike** paralyzes industry and communication.
1910. *Aug. 1.* Eighteenth Universal Peace Congress opens at Stockholm. Five hundred are in attendance from twenty-two nations.
1911. *Sept. 30.* General election results in overthrow of the Lindman ministry, and establishment of **Liberal government** under Karl A. Staaff.
1912. *July 1.* Fifth revival of the **Olympian games** opens at Stockholm. At their conclusion, July 22, Sweden heads the lists with 133 points, United States is second with 129 points, Great Britain third with 76 points.
1913. *July 3.* Old age pensions law passed.
1914. *Feb. 6.* More than 30,000 peasants and landowners from all parts of Sweden parade before the king at Stockholm to demand an **increase of armaments.** Staaff cabinet regards as unconstitutional the king's free expression of political opinion on the armament question, and resigns February 10.
Feb. 16. **K. H. L. de Hammarskjöld** forms new cabinet, succeeding the one under Staaff.
March 3. Parliament dissolved owing to the armament controversy.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. At outbreak of **World War** Sweden remains neutral. Is throughout the war open to direct commerce with Germany, who obtains Swedish iron ore and other supplies.
Dec. 18. King Gustavus, with King Haakon of Norway and King Christian of Denmark, meet at Malmö in regard to the World War.
1915. *May 5.* Shipment of all kinds of war material across Swedish territory prohibited. June 3, raw cotton is added to the list subject to embargo.
June 30. British official commission arrives in Stockholm to devise measures to avoid the difficulties in regard to trade caused by British war regulations.
Sept. 10. Government **prohibits export of all meat,** canned goods, and live stock.
Sept. 20. Arrangement with Germany for small sale of goods in exchange for coal.
1916. *January.* English mail for Russia detained in retaliation for Great Britain's interference with Swedish mails and neutral commerce.
Jan. 1. **Tobacco becomes a state monopoly.**
Jan. 3. National Bank resumes payment of notes in gold, which has been suspended since August, 1914.
Feb. 23. Understanding with Great Britain reached on subject of imports; tension relieved.
1917. *March 5.* **Hammarskjöld** cabinet resigns when Parliament refuses to vote credits for the maintenance of neutrality.
Oct. 2. Swartz cabinet resigns after a protracted political crisis resulting principally from the revelation of diplomatic intrigues between Swedish and German agents in neutral countries.
Oct. 19. As a result of elections, showing radical tendencies, Nils Edén forms a cabinet with Hjalmar Branting, leader of the Social Democrats, as minister of finance. The cabinet includes six Liberals, four Socialists, and one Independent.
1918–1919. For Sweden and Finland, see FINLAND.
1919. *May 26.* Parliament grants **women** full national **suffrage.**
Sweden sends note to Peace Conference asking for a plebiscite in the Åland Islands, which are contested for between Finland and Sweden.
June 16. Swedish Congress of Independent Socialists at Stockholm votes to join the Third International of Moscow.
1920. *March 4.* Decision to join the **League of Nations.** [of Socialists, formed
March 6. Branting ministry, composed entirely

SWITZERLAND.

Historical Outline.

SWITZERLAND has neither geographical, ethnic, linguistic, nor religious unity; yet it is a very individual country with a positive nationality. Geographically, the country consists of the upper valleys of the Rhine, Rhone, and Danube, with some outlying areas; and the whole country is embedded in the great masses of the Alps. Ethnically the Swiss consist of French, German, Italian, and Romance-speaking people. The linguistic divisions are well marked and the constitution recognizes French, German, and Italian as the three national languages in which debates in the legislature may be carried on. In religion there is a sharp division between the Roman Catholics and the Protestants who are the more numerous.

Most of Switzerland was Romanized and traces of Roman civilization remain. Passing by the legendary history with the names of such heroes as William Tell, the actual modern history of Switzerland began in 1291. In that year a league was formed between the men of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden for defense and the maintenance of their privileges. At once the confederates engaged in a struggle for existence with the House of Hapsburg. In the famous battles of Sempach, Morgarten, and Näfels they won their independence. This struggle lasted until 1412.

During the 15th century the league expanded and, after a civil war about 1450, adopted a constitution for the enlarged confederation of the "Eight Old Places." In the latter years of the 15th century it successfully fought Charles the Bold, and added some French-speaking districts to the Confederation. In the 16th century Swiss infantry, then the best in the world, won glorious victories in the Italian wars, but were at last defeated at the battle of Marignano in 1515 and made a peace with France.

During the Reformation most of northern Switzerland was under the influence of Ulrich Zwingli, political and religious reformer, a rival and theologically an opponent of Martin Luther. He opposed the alliance with France and desired to secure for Zurich and Bern the chief power in the Confederation. The country suffered little from religious wars, but was split into two religious camps. By the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, the independence of Switzerland was formally acknowledged.

Throughout the 17th and 18th centuries the Confederation was practically a dependency of France. The aristocracy of the cities continued, particularly in Bern, Lucerne, Freiburg and Solothurn, where the voting power was vested in the hands of a small class, which refused to admit any new burgher; and within the small voting class a still smaller class monopolized most of the offices.

During the French Revolution the troops of the republic overthrew the aristocratic parties causing the fall of the Confederation; and the Directory established the Helvetic Republic which was highly centralized and ran counter to local independence in the Confederation. When the French troops were withdrawn, civil war broke out; and Bonaparte, by the Act of Mediation (1803), granted a constitution in which the federal system was partly reëstablished.

While the rest of Europe was in war and commotion, Switzerland enjoyed comparative peace, although party feeling ran high. The Congress of Vienna (1815) accepted a revised constitution, submitted by the Swiss Diet, by which the new cantons of Geneva, Valais, and Neuchâtel were added to the republic. Switzerland was also enlarged on the side of France. The new constitution set up a federal or central government, and a division of sovereign rights was made between the powers of local government retained by the cantons and the national powers.

The revolutionary movement which swept Europe in 1830 affected Switzerland slightly and the people in several cantons compelled the authorities to give them more liberty. Religious differences led to the War of the Sonderbund (1846), which brought about a new constitution in 1848; this lasted until 1874, when the present constitution was adopted.

Throughout her history, Switzerland has been the asylum of political refugees and at times the protection given them by the government has led to protests from other states. Particularly was this true in 1836 and in 1838 when Louis Napoleon sought protection. In 1844 and 1845, campaigns were conducted against the Jesuits, who were finally expelled. Ten years later war was threatened by the king of Prussia to regain Neuchâtel, but was settled by the intervention of England and France. In 1888 and 1889 the Socialists and Nihilists were prosecuted and the latter were expelled from the country.

In recent times the institutions of Switzerland, both the federal and cantonal systems have become more and more democratic. Through the use of the initiative and referendum the people obtained direct control, not merely over their legislation, but also over the constitution. Because of the protective policies of France and Germany, Switzerland has been obliged to adopt a high tariff which has brought in a large revenue. This has been spent in the purchase of the railways and the extension of government activities in commerce, as well as in the physical improvement of the cities through the erection of public buildings.

Until the outbreak of the World War, Switzerland was contented politically and prosperous economically. Although the federation was able to maintain its neutrality, the great interruption of external trade prevented the importation of the necessary foodstuffs and dried up the main source of federal revenue. To maintain its neutrality the government felt obliged to mobilize the Swiss militia at a cost of more than $36,000,000, which had to be met by loans.

Organization.

Government. Switzerland is a federal republic. It consists of 22 cantons, three of which are politically divided. These, like the states of the United States, possess sovereign powers in all fields which are not assigned to the federal government by the Constitution of 1874 or subsequent constitutional amendments. The government of the cantons varies both in structure and procedure; but each possesses its own legislature, executive, and judiciary. In four of the cantons, Uri, Unterwalden, Appenzell, and Glarus, the ancient democratic assemblies (*Landesgemeinden*) are preserved. These assemblies are held in the open air in April or May and attended by the voters in person. They elect a sort of standing committee, like the selectmen of the New England towns, a chief magistrate, and a judiciary. In the other cantons there are representative councils which exercise the legislative functions. All the cantons save Freiburg have the referendum and the initiative.

The federal government is vested in two houses: the National Council, numbering at present 189, composed of deputies chosen for three years by direct manhood suffrage in the proportion of one to every 20,000 or major fraction; and the second assembly, the Council of States, consisting of 44 members, two from each canton. Unlike the members of the Senate of the United States, the qualifications for the members of the Swiss Council of States, as well as the tenure of office, are not regulated by the constitution or by the federal authority, but are left entirely in the hands of the cantons. As a result the upper house lacks uniformity and morale and does not have the influence of the American Senate or of the Swiss National Council.

The executive power is vested in a Federal Council of seven members, who act as heads of the executive departments and who are chosen by the two bodies of the federal legislature sitting together; one of the seven, chosen as President of the Confederation, presides at its meetings, but has no independent executive powers. The Swiss executive does not hold itself politically responsible to the legislature, and hence does not resign when its plans are not adopted, but attempts to carry out the desires of the legislature.

The most interesting feature of the Swiss system is the control by the people of the affairs of the government through the initiative and referendum. On the demand of 30,000 citizens, or eight cantons, the Assembly is obliged to submit for popular approval any of its acts. An amendment to the constitution must also be submitted on the demand of 50,000 voters. In 1891 the Confederation also adopted the initiative which applies only to the constitution. By this 50,000 voters may propose an amendment, either in general terms to be drawn up by the Assembly, or in specific terms to be submitted to the people. The different cantons have adopted these institutions in different degrees. Zurich submits all the acts of the Council to the popular vote at semi-annual elections, and any citizen may propose a law to the Council; if one third of that body votes favorably, it must be submitted to the people.

Industry and Labor. The climate of Switzerland favors a variety of products. Ticino enjoys the general conditions of north Italy. From this region the ascent to the Alps and to the more northern cantons brings increasing cold until the range of snow and arctic climate is reached.

The natural wealth of Switzerland lies singularly enough in its snows, which make superb pasturage in the summer and also attract the tourist. The agricultural products are those common to central Europe, but in no part of Switzerland is there opportunity for wide or extensive cultivation. Everything is local and incidental. About two thirds of the productive soil is devoted to agriculture or grazing; the breeds of cattle, horses, sheep, and swine are of the best, and the animals and dairy products are famous throughout Europe. Valuable standard products are cheese, condensed milk, and chocolates.

The chief agricultural products are rye, oats, and potatoes, but the supply of these and of other grains is insufficient, and Switzerland is partially dependent for its food upon imports. The cultivation of sugar beets has recently been attempted. The forests of Switzerland cover nearly a fifth of the territory and produce quantities of excellent timber. Of the mineral products the most important is asphalt. The saline deposits along the Rhine are also of importance. Metals exist in Switzerland, but are hardly worked at all. True coal is entirely absent. Recently the government has set out to make the waterfalls available, so as to furnish power and cut down the coal bills.

In spite of the lack of coal, manufacturing has prospered, and there are nearly 9,000 factories, the more important being engaged in the manufacture of machinery, silk, cotton, and watches, for which Switzerland is famous. One of the industries of Switzerland is the entertainment of foreign visitors, which produces larger gross receipts (in 1905 over $33,000,000) than any other.

Education. There is no central educational administration in Switzerland. By the constitution of 1874 education was made obligatory and placed under the civil authority of the cantons. Primary instruction is free. In 1916 there were 4,578 primary schools, with over 500,000 pupils, 548 secondary schools, with 50,000 pupils, and 126 middle schools, with 36,000 pupils. There are also commercial and technical schools and special vocational schools. Seven universities exist in Switzerland: Zurich, Geneva, Neuchâtel, Bern, Lausanne, Freiburg, and Basel.

Religion. Religious freedom and perfect liberty of conscience and creed are guaranteed by the constitution. There is no established church. Since 1874 legislation has been directed against the Catholics, and in 1848 the Jesuits were expelled and prohibited from exercising their functions. More than half of the Swiss people are Protestants.

Defense. Old-fashioned fortifications exist on the southern border and protect the St. Gothard tunnel. There is no standing army, but a national militia in which the service is compulsory and universal, extending from the twentieth to the forty-eighth year. The training is carried on in the recruits' schools for 65 days for the infantry, 75 days for the artillery, and 90 days for the cavalry. The subsequent trainings occupy 11 days annually up to a total of about six months. Twelve years are spent in the first line, eight in the first reserve, and eight in the second reserve. Altogether, Switzerland can mobilize nearly 200,000 men, not including the second reserve, which amounts to about 60,000.

The **area** is 15,976 square miles and the **population** in 1916 was 3,937,000.

Chronology.

For earlier events, see MEDIEVAL PERIOD, *Chronology*, and EARLY MODERN PERIOD, *Chronology*.

1648. **Separation** of Switzerland from the German Empire **formally recognized.**

Switzerland devastated by a **civil war,** in which the oligarchical party is successful against the democracy. During the remainder of the century the cantons retain their federative form of government, but are practically recruiting grounds and dependencies of France.

1786. **First ascent of Mont Blanc** by Balmat and Paccard. [to the death.]

1792. *Aug. 10.* Swiss Guard defends Louis XVI.

1798. Switzerland overrun by French troops. Ancient Confederacy dissolved. April, France establishes the **Helvetic Republic.** Geneva (not part of Switzerland) annexed to France.

1799–1802. Switzerland a **battleground** for Austrian, French, and Russian armies (see FRANCE).

1800–1807. Napoleon constructs strategic roads across the Alps to link up Italy.

1803. *Feb. 19.* New Swiss federal constitution drawn up in Paris under Napoleon's direction. Number of cantons increased to 19.

1811. Switzerland sends a force to the aid of the French, and the allies against France enter Switzerland in 1814.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. By the **Congress of Vienna** the independence of the country is secured and the number of cantons increased to 22. New areas annexed.

Aug. 7. **New federal constitution,** without right of interference by outside powers. [powers.]

Nov. 20. **Neutrality guaranteed** by the

1830. More liberal constitutions in several cantons.

1839. A law to make education independent of the clergy passed and a series of civil strifes over religious matters ensues.

1843. *Sept. 13.* **Seven Catholic cantons** form separate **league,** the *Sonderbund* [literally, "Separate League"].

1844. *February.* The *Sonderbund* demands restoration of all monasteries.

1845. *December.* The *Sonderbund* arms and prepares for war.

1846. Effort is made by the Catholic cantons to secure education by the Jesuits, but this is resisted by the Protestants. October 7, an insurrection in Geneva, and a provisional government established by the Protestants.

1847. *July 20.* Diet pronounces the *Sonderbund* illegal, and dissolves it. In September, an order is issued for the expulsion of the Jesuits. *Sonderbund* makes an appeal to arms, October 21. In the **civil war** that follows, the forces of the Diet under Dufour are victorious near Lucerne, November 23. November 29, the *Sonderbund* submits and consents to expulsion of the Jesuits and the secularization of the property of the monasteries.

1848. *Sept. 12.* **New constitution** adopted, strongly influenced by the example of the United States.

1850–1900. Switzerland becomes the vacation ground of Europe. System of scenic mountain roads, hotels, and mountain climbing developed, which becomes a permanent source of revenue.

1857. **Neuchâtel controversy.** The canton has long owed feudal allegiance to the king of Prussia, but disclaimed it in 1848. War threatened. Under mediation of Great Britain and France, the king renounces his claim.

1860. Switzerland protests against annexation of Savoy to France; small force attempts to enter Savoy.

1861. French troops occupy Vallée des Dappes, whereupon the Swiss declare their territorial rights violated.

1862. *Dec. 8.* **Treaty with France;** mutual cessions and no military works in the ceded territory.

1864. *Aug. 22.* Geneva (**Red Cross**) **Convention** for care of sick and wounded in war. [Bern.]

1865. International **Social Science Congress** at

1872. Geneva arbitration of the Alabama claims between the United States and Great Britain. (See ALABAMA CLAIMS, in the *Dictionary.*)

1874. Boundary dispute with Italy settled in favor of Italy, by award of American minister at Rome.

May 29. New federal constitution caused by conflicts over personal status of the inhabitants and external commerce. Federal government much strengthened. Introduction of "Swiss system" of universal military service. Extension of system of referendum, long practiced in some cantons, to federal government. Initiative does not become a federal institution until 1891.

1877. Law regulating the **hours of labor** for women and children confirmed by popular vote.

1878. National elections for members of the Council result in the triumph of the Liberal party.

1879. Act adopted by the Council restoring, at the option of the several cantons, **death penalty** as a punishment for crime.

1880. *August.* Conference of the International Association for reform and codification of international law held at Bern.

1882. Opening of **St. Gothard tunnel** and railway, connecting Italy with Germany.

Question of public instruction finally settled by the passage of a **compulsory-education law,** which is ratified by the people.

1883. Pope renews his efforts to reverse the anti-Catholic legislation of previous years.

1884. Elections result in a reaction in favor of the Conservative and Ultramontane party.

International Peace and Arbitration Association meets in Bern.

1885. *Sept. 7.* International conference at Bern to promote a **universal copyright** among nations. Spread of anarchistic socialistic opinions noted with alarm.

1887. Movement for an international copyright law results in the preparation of a *projet;* signed by representatives of Germany, Great Britain, Belgium, Spain, France, Haiti, Italy, Liberia, Switzerland, and Tunis.

1888. Proceedings begun against the Socialists.

Institute of international law is held at Lausanne.

1889. A company of Nihilists residing near Zurich expelled from country by the Federal Council.

1890. Switzerland becomes the seat of administration of international trade-marks, posts, telegraphs, etc., under general agreements of nations.

Religious agitations lead to riots in Ticino. Insurrection restrains the aggressive policy of the Clerical party, September, and order restored by federal troops.

1892. *August.* Session of the **International Peace Congress** held at Bern; a resolution passed for the creation of a confederation of the European states in the interest of universal peace.

1893. Severe law for the suppression of **anarchistic outrages** passed.

1896. *May–October.* National exhibition illustrating the various branches of Swiss trade and industry held at Geneva.

1898. **Federal government** takes over most of the important **railroads.** [ing people.]

1899. Law for **compulsory insurance** for work-

1906. *Jan. 25.* First train passes through the **Simplon tunnel.**

1908. *June 29.* Alps are crossed by the balloon *Cognac,* owned by the Swiss Aëro Club.

1912. *Feb. 4.* Referendum is held on **sickness and accident insurance bill;** measure adopted.

1913. *April 4.* Federal Council ratifies St. Gothard Railway Convention; also ratified by Germany and Italy.

June 23. **Lötschberg tunnel** formally opened.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *August.* At outbreak of **World War** Switzerland places her army on German frontier; her **neutrality** is respected. War almost destroys profitable tourist business, and interferes with food supplies and exports.

1915. *Sept. 21.* Expenses for mobilization to September 1 amount to $28,000,000.

1917. *June 19.* Hoffmann, a member of the Federal Council, resigns when his activities in promoting a separate peace between Germany and Russia are exposed.

1918. *Feb. 2.* **Socialists** demand immediate demobilization of the army.

1919. *Feb. 4.* Federal Council rejects overwhelmingly motion to reduce military budget for year.

May 11. Vorarlberg province (Austrian) votes to join Switzerland. Not received. Supreme Council at Paris vetoes all secessions from diminished Austria.

June 28. Guarantee of Swiss **neutrality** continued by Treaty of Versailles. [plurality.]

Oct. 26. Elections give Radical Democrats a

1920. *May 16.* Plebiscite favors joining the **League of Nations.**

SYRIA.

SYRIA is the strip of territory extending from the frontiers of Egypt northward to the middle valley of the Euphrates, along the Mediterranean Sea, geographically including Palestine, though the two lands are now to be separated. As the natural highway between Asia and Africa it has been many times swept over by conquering armies from the Egyptians, Assyrians, and Persians to the Saracens and Turks; and has been part of the Mesopotamian, Greek, and Roman empires. It has likewise been for long periods independent.

Syria has been for ages the point of contact between Eastern and Western commerce through its famous ancient ports at Tyre and Sidon; and their proximity to Antioch and Damascus. It was also a meeting point for the civilizations of Africa and Central Asia. For ages it was traveled by visitors to the "holy places" of the Christian faith; and the crusades involved the conquest of Syria. Syria passed into the hands of the Turks and in 1914 was still organized into vilayets of the Moslem Empire.

For more than a century France has shown a strong desire to acquire Syria. In the World War Syria, because of its nearness to the Suez Canal, became a battlefield between Turkish and British troops, who drew into alliance neighboring Arab tribesmen. The new king of Hejaz has claimed Syria as a part of his country; but in 1920 France received from the Allies a "mandate" for Syria and her armies were seeking to pacify the land. The boundaries of the new state have yet to be determined, but if it extends to what, under Turkish rule, was the northern part of Syria, including the vilayets of Aleppo, Zor, Syria, and Beirut, the estimated area will be about 106,740 square miles and the population about 3,000,000. Among many race elements the people of Lebanon are a Christian community, which since 1864 has had a claim to protection from France.

Chronology.

634. Syria wrested from the Byzantine Empire by the Saracens.
1070. Syria incorporated in the Seljuk Turkish Empire.
1260. Tatar invasion.
1291. Fall of Acre marks end of Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem (see PALESTINE). [pire.
1516. Syria incorporated in Ottoman Turkish Em-
1740. *May 28.* Capitulations with Louis XV.; Christians in Turkey (especially at "holy places") to be **under protection of French** flag.
1774. *July 21.* By Treaty of Küchük Kainarja **Russia** given indefinite rights to protect Orthodox Christians in Turkish Empire.
1798–1799. Napoleon's army in Syria (see *Egypt*, under BRITISH EMPIRE).
1821. Beginning of **Protestant missions.**
1831–1840. Mehemet Ali in Syria (see *Egypt*, under BRITISH EMPIRE); intervention of the powers.
1860. Threatened intervention by France, due to **massacre of** Christian **Maronites** of Mt. Lebanon by Mohammedan Druses.
1861. *Sept. 6.* Autonomy granted to Lebanon under a Christian governor.
1901. Porte recognizes French protection of Catholics in the East.
1915. Syria base of Turkish attack on Suez Canal (see *Egypt*, under BRITISH EMPIRE).
Oct. 24. British promise to recognize Arabian independence from Aleppo southward except Bagdad and Busrah, for aid against Turkey (see HEJAZ, Chronology of Arabia.)
1916. *May 9–16.* Secret **agreements** between **France and Great Britain;** Syrian coast north of Palestine assigned to France, with an Arabian state over the rest of the region, and to be divided into French and British spheres.
1917. *Oct. 31.* Opening of British Syrian campaign from Egypt.
Dec. 9. **Allenby occupies Jerusalem;** his advance assisted by Arabians.
1918. *Oct. 1.* Damascus captured by Allenby and Arabian Prince Feisal. [cut.
Oct. 25. Aleppo captured and Bagdad railway
1919. *Sept. 16.* Announcement of **agreement between Great Britain and France;** France as special protector of Syrian Christians to place French troops for British in occupation. Exchange completed in November.
1920. *January–February.* Turks massacre Armenians at Marash; part of opposition to French occupation. French troops compelled to retire. Arabs farther south revolt.
March 8. **Pan-Syrian Congress** declares **Syria an independent** (Arab) **state,** including Palestine and northern Mesopotamia. Later in March, however, **Feisal, presumptive king,** reported to have renounced his prerogative, as well as the independence of Syria.
April 25. Supreme Council at meeting at San Remo makes France mandatary for Syria.
May 11. Peace treaty handed Turkey provides for **independence of Syria,** with France as mandatary; also for the independence of the Hejaz.

TASMANIA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 75.

TRANSVAAL.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 66.

TRINIDAD.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.

TRIPOLI.

See under ITALY, page 115.

TUNIS.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

TURKEY.

Historical Outline.

THE Ottoman Turkish Empire had its origin in the migration of a Turkoman band in the 13th century, from their home in central Asia. They founded a settlement at Erzerum, near the Black Sea. Their first leader was Osman I. (1288–1326). During the 14th century they spread through Asia Minor, as the Seljuk Turks had spread before them, and attacked the Eastern Empire. This bulwark of Christendom and civilization was threatened when, in the 14th century, the Turks crossed the Bosporus into Europe and began the conquest of Thrace and Macedonia. Little by little they reduced the Empire to a small territory around Constantinople. They were a hardy race of peasants, well-adapted to military discipline and capable of great endurance.

At first they had no standing army, but in 1330 the Janizaries were founded. This troop at first consisted of Christian children who had been captured and brought up in the Mohammedan faith, but was recruited later from various sources. As the Janizaries received no pay during peace, they were always ready and eager for war, and furnished a nucleus for the military power of the sultan.

In 1453 Constantinople, to the shame and woe of Christendom, was captured, and the Turks soon reached the Danube. The golden age of the Turkish Empire was during the reign of Solyman II. (1520–1566). At this time the Turkish Empire extended from the frontiers of Germany to Persia, and the Black Sea was a Turkish lake. The whole of the Euphrates valley and Bagdad was conquered, the Venetians were driven from Greece, and the whole Balkan Peninsula, with the exception of the little state of Montenegro and a little strip of the Dalmatian coast, was in the hands of the Turks. In the Mediterranean, Crete and Malta were still held by the Christians; but the northern coasts of Africa from Egypt to Morocco were under the supremacy of the sultan, whose sea power was a factor to be reckoned with. Occupying this position Turkey became an influence in European politics and intervened not simply in eastern Europe, in the Balkans, and in Hungary, but at one time was allied with France against the emperor Charles V.

The subsequent history of Turkey is that of gradual decline broken only by momentary attempts at reform and military successes. Her position has been maintained and her empire prolonged by the jealousies of European states which feared that in the disintegration of Turkey a general war might ensue which would alter the balance of power in Europe.

In the 16th century, Turkey suffered her first great defeat at the battle of Lepanto (1571). Turkey took advantage of the wars of the Reformation to push northward till Wallachia, Hungary, and Croatia were occupied. Austrians, Russians, and Poles still stood against them. They failed before Vienna in 1682 and at the Peace of Karlowitz (1699) were compelled to admit their losses. The Hungarian provinces were restored; Azov went to Russia, Podolia and the Ukraine to Poland, and Morea (the Peloponnesus) and Dalmatia to Venice.

During the first part of the 18th century, Ahmed III. attempted with considerable success to regain some of the lost territory. He succeeded in wresting the Greek peninsula from the Venetians, but failed disastrously in his war with Austria and was obliged to cede Belgrade, Wallachia, and Temesvár. In 1730 Mahmud I. came to the throne and captured Belgrade. In 1768 Turkey declared war upon Russia, but was defeated and by the treaty of Küchük Kainarja was obliged to surrender the Crimea.

In 1789 Selim III. made heroic efforts to recover what his predecessors had lost. He instituted many internal reforms. He was successful in dealing with Russia and secured the Dniester as the frontier; but his pashas began to revolt, and the conquest of Egypt by Napoleon precipitated a war with France. In 1807 the Janizaries dethroned Selim and after an interim of a year placed Mahmud II on the throne. In 1812 peace was made with Russia by the Treaty of Bucharest, and the Pruth was established as the boundary line. The acquisitions of Russia at the expense of Turkey aroused the jealousy of the other European powers, and from this date Turkey became the protégé of the western powers and their pawn to check the advance of Russia.

The disintegration of the Turkish Empire continued rapidly during the 19th century. In 1821 the Greek revolt began. Contrary to their policy of suppressing revolutions, European powers intervened, and the Turkish fleet was defeated at Navarino by a joint Western fleet in 1827. Russia took this opportunity to declare war and in 1829 wrested some additional territory from the empire, while in 1830 the independence of the Greeks was acknowledged. In 1832 Egypt revolted and in 1841 became autonomous under Mehemet Ali as hereditary tributary prince.

Since 1829 the Turkish question has centered around the attempt of Russia to reach the Mediterranean and the efforts of the European powers to prevent Russia from disturbing the balance of power in the East. The first evidence of this policy and counter policy was the Crimean War (1854–1856) which involved not only Russia and Turkey, but also France, England, and Sardinia as allies of Turkey. As a result of the Treaty of Paris (March 30, 1856), Russia was forced to abandon her pretensions to exercise a protectorate over the Christians in Turkey, and to the exclusive right of interference in the Danubian provinces. The navigation of the Danube was made free; the Black Sea was closed to warships; and Turkey was admitted to the concert of Europe. All the contracting powers pledged themselves to respect her independence and the integrity of her territory. On her part Turkey made promises of a large measure of autonomy for the Christian communities, none of which were kept, and submitted to certain reforms in her internal administration intended to safeguard the holders of her bonds.

In 1876 Abdul-Hamid came to the throne and proclaimed a liberal constitution, not simply for the European provinces but for the whole Turkish Empire. In 1878, however, he suspended the constitution, which was never in operation, and established a despotism more efficient and oppressive than that of his predecessors.

Russia took the occasion, along with Roumania, to declare war in 1877; and after suffering some repulses she overwhelmingly defeated the Turks and concluded the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) within sight of the minarets of Constantinople. Bulgaria was declared an autonomous tributary principality extending from the Black Sea to the Ægean; and Turkey was forced to recognize the independence of Roumania, Serbia, and Montenegro, and to introduce reforms in Bosnia and Herzegovina. To Russia Turkey ceded Bessarabia and the Dobruja. This treaty aroused the jealousy of the European powers and a congress was called at Berlin in 1878, as a result of which the Treaty of Berlin was signed. By this agreement the territory assigned to Bulgaria was greatly reduced; Montenegro, Serbia, and Roumania were declared independent; the Asiatic frontier of Russia was adjusted; and Great Britain received the control of Cyprus as a reward for standing by the Turk.

On the restoration of peace, some attempt was made by the European powers to compel Turkey to fulfill her promises. Financial advisers were sent from Germany, English officers were engaged to reform the police, and some attempt was made to reestablish order in Turkish finances. In 1881 the great powers compelled the sultan to consent to the establishment of a public debt commission, to which was given the collection of certain taxes and the administration of certain portions of the finances. A large part of the Turkish debt was repudiated, and the remainder secured by revenues administered by the commission. Almost the only advance in agriculture or industry which has taken place in Turkey during the 19th century has been due to the activities of this commission.

The failure of the settlement of Turkish affairs by the Congress of Berlin was seen in the revolt of Crete in 1890 and the unsuccessful war of Greece against Turkey in 1897. Moreover, the condition of Macedonia was intolerable. Here were found representatives of all the Balkan nationalities and representatives of all religious sects, Christian and Mohammedan. The Turkish authorities could neither guarantee order nor control their officers, and Macedonia was the scene of massacres and atrocities.

The sultan, Abdul-Hamid, was a despot of Oriental type, cunning, cruel, and suspicious. He was an adept at balancing European nations against each other. He massacred Armenian subjects, tyrannized over the Turks; yet was flattered and favored by European diplomats. Among the objects of his favor were the Albanians, nominally subjects, really independent. Abdul-Hamid alienated them and in 1908 Albanians supported a successful revolution organized by the Young Turks, a group holding principles of constitutional government and animated by ideas of Western culture. They demanded that the constitution of 1876 be restored, including the promised elective parliament with a responsible ministry, which could put an end to the despotic rule of the sultan.

The sultan, overborne by force, granted their demands, and on December 17 a Turkish parliament was opened. It was felt that this revolution would modernize and liberalize Turkey and that perhaps the old racial and religious feuds would disappear; but the Young Turks were not able to carry out their policies.

The revolution, however, disturbed the delicate balance in the Balkans. Bosnia and Herzegovina, since 1878 under Austrian control, were now definitely incorporated into the Austro-Hungarian Empire, inasmuch as the Turkish suzerainty had ceased in the revolution. Bulgaria proclaimed her independence from the nominal Turkish suzerainty and Prince Ferdinand, the German sovereign of the state, assumed the title of Czar. Later, the Greek population of Crete declared for a union with Greece. These territorial changes constituted a breach of the Treaty of Berlin and strengthened Austria at the expense of the Slavic Balkan states, thereby weakening Russia's influence.

The new Turkish parliament met in December, 1908, and refused to support the ministries appointed by the sultan. Meanwhile, Abdul-Hamid plotted a counter-revolution, was thereupon deposed, and his brother placed on the throne with the title of Mohammed V. The Young Turks were in complete control but failed to take advantage of their opportunity. Although they might be liberal in theory, in practice they oppressed the subject races as the old régime had done. Their policy was "Turkey for the Turks," and they tried to suppress the liberties which had been granted to the Orthodox Greek Church and to reënforce the Moslem element. In so doing they alienated not only the Armenians, but also the other large Christian elements — the Greeks, Bulgarians, and Serbians.

Italy chose this moment of uneasiness and disruption to send her warships to Tripoli, which for years she had desired as a possession on the northern coast of Africa to balance England's hold on Egypt and France's on Tunis and Algeria. Although Italy had no difficulty in obtaining the coast cities, she was unable to make progress in the interior. To bring Turkey to terms, she seized the island of Rhodes and the eleven other Turkish islands which with it constitute the Dodecanese. Turkey yielded, and on October 15, 1912, a treaty was signed by which Turkey surrendered Tripoli, and Italy agreed to withdraw her troops from the Dodecanese, which, however, as late as 1920 had not been done. The significance of this war lies in the fact that the dismemberment of Asiatic Turkey had begun and that Turkey was unable to protect its integrity.

The Balkan War may be considered as the direct consequence of the failure of the Young Turks. An alliance of Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece was formed in spite of racial and religious differences and territorial jealousies. Premier Venizelos, a man of Cretan birth who had been instrumental in rescuing Crete from Turkish control and joining it with Greece, was the soul of this combination. In October, Montenegro, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece declared war on Turkey, demanding autonomy for Macedonia, Christian governors for the provinces, and the withdrawal of the Turks. The war was brief and resulted in an overwhelming triumph for the allies; Turkey made a peace (May 30, 1913) by which she lost practically all her European possessions save Constantinople and the territory in its immediate vicinity. The Balkan allies had gained their aims, but Macedonia was still an object of controversy, while Austrian influence caused Albania to be declared an independent state, shutting off Serbia from any Adriatic port. Bulgaria opposed the demands of Serbia in Macedonia and the second Balkan War broke out (July, 1913). During this war Turkey was allowed by Bulgaria to reoccupy Adrianople, and Roumania attacked Bulgaria in the rear, forcing a peace by which Turkey received back some of the territory gained by Bulgaria in the first Balkan War.

Long before the two Balkan wars, Germany and Austria-Hungary were extending their influence in the Turkish Empire at the expense of Russia and England and were checking the growth of strong Slavic states in the Balkans. German capital, under favorable concessions, was poured into Turkey. The German embassy was all but the seat of Turkish government. On the outbreak of the World War, Germany counted upon the benevolent neutrality if not on the aid of Turkey. The German cruisers *Goeben* and *Breslau* were received in Turkish waters, and on October 30, 1914, attacked Russian merchantmen in the Black Sea and then bombarded Odessa. Therefore (November 5) England, France, and Russia declared war upon Turkey.

In February and March, 1915, a British-French fleet tried to force the Dardanelles, but was repulsed. In April a landing was made on the Gallipoli peninsula and a foothold was maintained until the end of the year. Then the Allies finally abandoned the attempt at a direct capture of Constantinople. Farther east a composite British and Indian force invaded Mesopotamia and after a disastrous surrender at Kut-el-Amara finally captured Bagdad, March 11, 1917. Another force under General Allenby advanced through Palestine and captured Jerusalem (December, 1917), Damascus (October 1, 1918), and Aleppo (October 25, 1918), thus shattering the Turkish Empire in Syria. Arabia had long before revolted and founded the kingdom of the Hejaz.

October 31, Turkey withdrew from the war and announced her acceptance of any conditions the Allies might propose. Warships appeared in the Bosporus, and Allied troops landed in Asia Minor. For a year and a half irregular hostilities went on; Italy, Greece, and France seized Turkish territory. The Turks revived the massacres of Armenians, and in March, 1920, Allied troops occupied Constantinople.

Organization.

Government. Until the constitution of 1876, Turkey was an absolute despotism. The rule of the sultan, however, was tempered by tradition. In practice he appointed ministers who exercised the executive power in divan, but he could disavow them, remove them, or execute them. The great doctors of the Moslem law might exercise some restraint, but there was no legislature or attempt to consult the will of the subjects. The constitution of 1876 would have provided for a Chamber of Deputies, one for every 6,000 electors, and a Senate of members appointed by the sultan; instead, Abdul-Hamid established an autocracy even more complete than that of his predecessors.

From remote ages the Western merchants doing business in Turkey were entitled to privileges of exterritoriality under so-called "Capitulation," which relieved them from the jurisdiction of Turkish courts. These privileges, on which the citizens of the United States stand, were declared by the Turkish government to be nullified in 1915.

In 1908 an imperial decree restored the old constitution of 1876 with certain modifications, and from that date parliamentary government was theoretically established. Practically, however, a self-designated group of the Young Turks, of whom the infamous Enver Pasha was the chief, were the real rulers of Turkey.

Industry and Labor. The land laws of Turkey are such that the greater part of the agricultural land is held by the crown, another part by religious orders, while freehold property is found chiefly in the towns and neighboring villages. The agricultural methods are primitive and the natural fertility of the soil is not utilized by the tenant farmers. Moreover, the principal source of state revenue is tithes on agricultural produce. These are levied by contractors who bid for the privilege of collecting revenues from certain localities. The principal products are tobacco, which is everywhere found, cereals, cotton, figs, fruits, nuts, and coffee.

Religion. Mohammedanism is the established religion of the state, and the sultan as caliph is the supreme head; but other religions are tolerated. The Mohammedans — Turks, Kurds, and other races — are a majority of the population in Asiatic Turkey, but the Turks themselves have always been a decided minority of the population. The Christian populations include Roman Catholics, Orthodox Greek Catholics, Armenians, Armenian Catholics, Nestorians, Bulgarian Catholics, Jews, and Protestant converts.

Education. Education is nominally compulsory for all children of both sexes between the ages of 7 and 16; practically they are confined to the mosque schools. A large number of madrasahs or theological seminaries exist.

Defense. The most important fortress in European Turkey is Adrianople, while Constantinople is defended by the lines of Chatalja, and the Bosporus and Dardanelles are strongly fortified. By the law of February, 1917, universal military service was established between the ages of 20 and 45, with two years of active service in the line and the remainder up to the age of 40 in the reserve. Those between 40 and 45 were enrolled in the territorial army. The peace strength of the Turkish army should have been about 210,000 men and mobilization should have produced 750,000. Under the terms of the armistice, October 30, 1918, all Turkish ships and vessels of war were surrendered to the Allies.

It is estimated that the total area of Turkish dominions before the World War was 613,724 square miles and the **population** about 20,973,900. By the treaty of peace between the Allies and Turkey (May 11, 1920), the empire is greatly reduced even from this lessened area which remained to it after the first Balkan War in 1913. By this treaty Turkey will be deprived of an estimated area of 438,750 square miles and a population of 12,000,000, and will have remaining an area of only about 175,000 square miles and a population of about 8,000,000.

FORMER TURKISH POSSESSIONS.

The empire of Turkey was once a vast area including the eastern part of Austria-Hungary, large areas of Russia and all the Balkans, Egypt and the four other North African states, Crete, and Cyprus. Most of these territories were lost before 1914. Tripoli was ceded to Italy, Greece occupied Crete and Samos and demanded the Dodecanese, which Italy continued to occupy. The Turkish rule in Arabia was disrupted by the rise of the independent kingdom of Hejaz and shadowy rights over the interior of Arabia alone remain to her. Turkish control over Syria, Palestine, Cilicia, the Aidin region (Smyrna), and Armenia was threatened if not already lost.

In the World War, Turkey took the losing side, and the empire has been disrupted. The following territories have been transferred to other countries: Thrace to Greece; Aidin to Greece; Mesopotamia to Great Britain; Egypt (under nominal suzerainty) to Great Britain.

In addition, the following areas have been created to establish themselves as independent units (which see): Armenia (originally intended for American mandate, which was declined by the United States Senate); Hejaz — formerly the Turkish province (vilayet) of Arabia; Palestine (British mandate); Syria (French mandate).

Chronology.

1663. Kuprili leads the Turkish forces in an **invasion of Hungary** (see Austria). In the following year they are defeated at St. Gothard, August 1, by Montecuccoli.
1669. **Candia** is wrested from Venice by the Turks.
1673. Turkish invaders are repulsed at Khotin by **John Sobieski**, afterward king of Poland.
1682. Turks become allies of Hungary in the revolt against Austria (see Austria). In July of the following year the Turks under Kara Mustafa **besiege Vienna**, which is defended by Stahremberg, but they are routed by the armies of Sobieski, Charles, duke of Lorraine, and the electors of Bavaria and Saxony, September 12. Farthest extent of Turkish power.
1684. **Venice** joins the allies against the Turks.
1686. Turks are driven from Buda and defeated in the Morea.
1687. Turks are routed at **Mohács** by Charles of Lorraine; Venetians capture Athens. [Baden.]
1691. Turks are defeated at Slankamen by Louis of
1696. Russians take Azov (see Russia), and in the following year, Sept. 11, Prince Eugene of Savoy crushes the Turkish army in the battle of **Zenta.**
1699. **Peace of Karlowitz** with Austria, Poland, and Venice. Turks relinquish Hungary, between the Danube and the Tisza, and Leopold I. receives Transylvania; Poland recovers a large portion of the Ukraine, and Venice receives the Morea. Turkey, once the terror of Austria, now gives ground.
1711. Turks espouse the cause of **Charles XII.** of Sweden against Russia and recover Azov from Peter the Great by Treaty of the Pruth (see Russia).
1715. Turks capture the Morea from Venice.
Native rulers of Roumania are supplanted by Turkish governors.
1716. **War with Austria** breaks out, and the Turks are beaten at Peterwardein, August 5, by the forces of Prince Eugene. He overcomes the Turks at Belgrade, August 16, and enters the city two days later.
1718. The **Treaty of Passarowitz** (Požarevac) with Austria and Venice, July 21. Turkey retains the Morea, but loses to Charles VI. the Bánát, parts of Serbia and Bosnia, Belgrade and Wallachia. Dalmatia ceded to Venice in return for the Morea.
1737. Austria renews the war against Turkey, but two years later agrees to Treaty of Belgrade, by which the Turks regain Belgrade and territory in Serbia. Azov granted to Russia on condition that Russians make no use of the Black Sea.
1768. Turkey declares war against Russia at the time of a Polish insurrection (see Russia).
1774. The Russians besiege Shumla, and a peace is made at **Küchük Kainarja,** by which Turkey gives up her suzerainty over the Crimea and other Tatar territories. By famous Article VII. **Russia** is allowed an embassy church in Constantinople and becomes **Protector of the Orthodox Christians in the Ottoman Empire.**
1787. Turkey renews the war against Russia; Austrian force moves against Belgrade.
1789. Turks are defeated by the Austrians and Russians at Focsani, and Belgrade is captured.
1791. *August.* Peace with Austria is concluded at Sistova, and in January, 1792, with Russia at Jassy (see Russia).
1798. Bonaparte in Egypt (see *Egypt*, under British Empire). [France).
1802. *June.* Treaty signed with France (see
1804. Czerny Djordje leads the **Serbians** in a **revolt** against Turkey. Two years later Russia declares war (see Russia).
1807. Serbian rebels succeed in overcoming the Turkish authority.
1808. Mahmud II. ascends the throne of Turkey.
1812. A peace with Russia is signed at Bucharest, May 28, by which the **Pruth** is made the **boundary line** between the two countries. Thus, Russia gains Bessarabia.
1813. Turks succeed in reëstablishing their rule over Serbia, but a second insurrection occurs two years later under the leadership of Miloš Obrenović.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1817. Miloš Obrenović is elected Prince of Serbia (see *Serbia*, under Jugo-Slavia). [Greece).
1821–1830. Greek war for independence (see
1826. Mahmud II. causes a **massacre of the Janizaries,** who have made themselves kingmakers, and that body is abolished.
A treaty with Russia is signed at Akerman, by which the Black Sea is made free to all navigation.
1828. *April.* Reforms are promised in the Roumanian provinces.
1829. *Sept. 14.* A peace favorable to Russia is signed at Adrianople, by which Russia promises to provide the sultan with troops in case of need, while Turkey agrees to close the Straits "if the need be Russia's."
1830. **Independence of Greece** declared by the powers (see Greece) and is recognized by Turkey.
Algiers conquered by France.
1832. Turks are routed by **Ibrahim Pasha** (see *Egypt*, under British Empire).
Commercial treaty between Turkey and the United States.
1833. The Russians come to the aid of Turkey against Egypt, but peace is established with the viceroy, the sultan ceding Syria and other regions. A treaty is concluded with Russia at Unkiar Skelessi.
Sept. 18. Convention of Münchengrätz (see Nineteenth-Century Period).
1839. Turkey renews war on Egypt. **Ibrahim,** son of Mehemet Ali, defeats the Turks and makes such heavy demands on the Porte that the powers interfere and force Ibrahim to relinquish Crete and Syria (see *Egypt*, under British Empire and

1839 (*continued*).
NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD). War concluded in 1841.

July 1. Mahmud II. dies and is succeeded by **Abdul-Mejid.**

Nov. 3. By the advice of Reshid Pasha, the sultan promulgates a *hatti-sherif*, proposing constitutional reforms within the empire.

1841. Peace is made with Egypt and **Mehemet Ali** recognized as a **hereditary tributary prince** (see EGYPT). A treaty with the powers is also concluded by which the **Dardanelles** are **closed** to foreign warships when the Porte is at peace. Druses murder Maronites in Lebanon.

1850. An insurrection breaks out in Bosnia, but it is quelled in the following year by Omar Pasha.

1852. **Montenegrins** begin a **war** against Turks.

1853. **Omar Pasha** conducts a campaign against the Montenegrins; interrupted by imminence of the Crimean War. Hostilities break out with Russia, Turkey having the support of Great Britain and France (see these countries.)

1854. England and France send armies and navies to the Black Sea, and the **Crimea** becomes the principal seat of a war lasting for three years.

1856. *Feb. 18.* Abdul-Mejid proclaims a *hatti-humayun*, a statute promising administrative reforms and equal rights to all nationalities and religions.

March 30. Treaty of Paris terminates the Crimean War (see RUSSIA).

1860. **Druses** again **massacre the Maronites** in Lebanon; many Christians at Damascus are slain. The powers hereupon interfere and French troops are stationed in Syria.

1861. Insurrection breaks out in **Herzegovina,** aided by the Montenegrins. In June, Abdul-Mejid is succeeded by **Abdul-Aziz.** At the demand of the powers a Christian is appointed to serve as governor of Lebanon. Montenegrins are defeated by Omar Pasha.

1862. Turks and Serbians in Belgrade wage a bloody war.

1866. **Insurrection** breaks out in **Crete,** but the Turks in the two years following vanquish rebels.

1867. Turkish troops are withdrawn from Serbia after 500 years.
An " Organic Statute " of government is granted but is too elaborate to work well.

1871. *May.* Abrogation of certain clauses of the Treaty of Paris by which Russia had been refused the right to have vessels or fortifications on the Black Sea (see NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD).

1875. *July.* Insurrection in Herzegovina; and (August) in Bosnia.

1876. *Jan. 31.* Powers send a note to the Porte demanding reforms. Insurrection continues.

May 6. Consuls of France and Germany are murdered at Saloniki, and in the same month **massacres** occur in **Bulgaria** by bashi-bazouks. English people aroused (see BULGARIA).

May 12. A revolution occurs in Constantinople, whereupon the **Berlin Memorandum** is drawn up (May 14) by Gorchakov, Bismarck, and Andrássy, proposing a mixed commission to investigate grievances and propose reforms. Fails through the refusal of Disraeli to participate on behalf of England.

May 29. The sultan Abdul-Aziz is deposed (later assassinated) and **Murad V.** is placed on the Turkish throne. July 2, war is declared by Montenegro and Serbia.

Aug. 31. Murad V. is deposed, and is succeeded by **Abdul-Hamid II.**

October. The Serbians are conquered but are saved from utter ruin by Russia.

Oct. 30. **Russia** issues an **ultimatum** to Turkey, and on the following day a general armistice is signed. December 19, Midhat Pasha is created grand vizier.

Dec. 23. Constitution for the Turkish Empire promulgated. On the same day a conference of the great powers begins at Constantinople.

1877. *Jan. 18.* The propositions of the conference as to reforms in Turkey are rejected. Two days later the conference ends. February 5, Midhat Pasha is dismissed from office. March 1, a peace with Serbia follows. The powers make a protocol at London, March 31, but the Porte rejects it, April 9.

April 16. Russia and Roumania conclude a convention. April 24, **Russia** makes a declaration of **war against Turkey.** Russian troops invade Roumania and Armenia.

May. Roumania becomes engaged in the war against the Porte, and on May 21 proclaims her independence.

June 27. The Russians cross the Danube at Zimnicea (Simnitza). July 9, Mukhtar Pasha compels the Russians to give up their **siege of Kars.** July 13 and 14, Gurko passes the Balkans, and on July 16, Nicopolis falls.
Osman Pasha is victorious at Plevna, July 20, and on July 30 a part of the Grand Duke Nicholas's army is overcome before that city. August 21, Solyman attacks the Russians in the Shipka Pass. September 8, Nikšic yields to the Montenegrins. October 15, Mukhtar Pasha, routed in the battle of Alaja Dagh, retreats. November 18, Kars is stormed. December 10, Osman Pasha, evacuating Plevna and making for Sofia, is attacked and surrenders. December 14, Serbia declares war against Turkey.

1878. *Jan. 9.* Turkish troops in **Shipka Pass** captured.

Jan. 17. Army of Solyman is utterly routed near **Philippopolis.**

Jan. 20. **Adrianople is occupied** by the Russians. The victors move toward Constantinople and an armistice is made, January 31. The British fleet enters the Sea of Marmora, February 13.

March 3. **Treaty of San Stefano** forced on Turkey. Montenegro is trebled in size, Serbia enlarged and granted an outlet to the sea, and the large new state of **Bulgaria created.**

April. Great Britain enlists a division of sepoys at Bombay to serve as troops against the Russians. June 4, **England** concludes a secret agreement with Turkey, by which she promises to maintain **integrity of the Turkish Empire** in Asia, while the Porte permits occupation of Cyprus by British soldiers; results in annexation, 1914.

July 13. **Treaty of Berlin** by a congress of powers. Roumania, Serbia, and Montenegro are declared to be independent principalities, while the larger part of Turkish Armenia, with Kars and Ardahan, Batum, and a portion of Bessarabia, go to Russia; Turks promise reforms in Asia Minor; not carried out.
The Pact of Halepa makes another unsuccessful attempt to settle Cretan discontent

1880. *June.* Another conference of the powers is held in Berlin, and in September a naval demonstration is made off the Albanian coast to enforce the decree of the Congress of Berlin.

1881. *May 12.* French treaty with Tunis; France to conduct foreign affairs. A virtual protectorate against which Turkey protests.

1882. Policy of Abdul-Hamid, reorganization of his empire on Islamitic principles, ends in failure.

1883. **Troubles in Armenia** become acute. The promise of the Porte to reform the abuses is not fulfilled. The oppressed Armenians, relying upon the active sympathies of Russia and England, begin agitation which breaks into an actual insurrection. The Ottoman government destroys the insurgents.
A resolution is passed by the Cretan assembly declaring that the land taxes known as the *vacouf* (*wakf*) shall no longer be paid to the Turkish government.
Von der Goltz allowed by Germany to go into Turkey as an adviser, chiefly military; the beginning of the growth of **German ascendancy** in the Ottoman Empire.

1884. The efforts of Abdul-Hamid to nationalize his administration bring him into fresh difficulties with his Christian subjects. Outrages are committed by Mussulman fanatics in Macedonia. A rebellion occurs in Yemen. Difficulty arises on the frontier of Montenegro.

1885. **Insurrections** in different parts of the empire, and foreign complications, especially the difficulty with Bulgaria, lead to the mobilization of the Turkish army and to the assembling of the representatives of the great powers in a conference at Constantinople. In this conference, Great Britain and Russia are brought into sharp controversy. An agreement is reached with England for the management of **Egyptian affairs** by two commissioners appointed one by the Porte and the other by the British government.

1886. An extradition and naturalization treaty with the United States.

1888. The Christian party in Armenia agitates the question of nationality, involving the reëstablishment of the ancient kingdom of **Armenia.** Turkish administration answers with **repressive measures and cruelties.** An appeal of the Armenians to Great Britain for protection is refused on the ground that interference is forbidden by the Treaty of Berlin.

Oct. 29. Suez Canal Convention (see EGYPT).

1889. Turkish outrages in Armenia shock the nations. The Porte attempts to justify by necessity of suppressing insurrection.

1890. **Outrages in Armenia continue;** the question becomes international. A campaign begins for the subjugation of the Druses of Hauran.

1891. Insurrection among the Asirs of Yemen; Turkey is influenced thereby to friendly relations with Russia and France as against Great Britain.

1893. The Armenian Nationalists establish committees in the various capitals of Europe for the purpose of rousing public opinion. Political trials of the Armenians are prosecuted, and a measure of justice is secured under the criticism of Europe.

1895. **Reign of terror in Armenia** breaks out with greater violence. The half-savage Kurds of the vilayets attack the Armenian towns. April 23, a commission is appointed by the sultan (who is protected by the Treaty of Berlin) which, driven by the civilized opinion of the world, begins its sittings in Constantinople to devise a scheme of administrative reform.

1896. A rebellion headed by native revolutionists and other filibusters breaks out in Crete. Effort is made by the National party to transfer Crete to Greece. The Porte promises reforms, and the consuls at Kanea are appointed a commission to carry them into execution.

1897. **Greece declares war on Turkey,** on behalf of the Cretans, but is defeated.

1898. William II. of Germany makes a second official visit to the sultan. From this time on, German officers and commercial agents reorganize Turkish military and commercial life.

1901. Owing to long-continued delays in the settlement of French claims, **France withdraws her ambassador** from Constantinople, August 27, and late in October sends a fleet to enforce her claims. **It seizes Mytilene,** November 5, and takes possession of the customs. Turkey then yields to all the French demands.

Sept. 3. Miss **Ellen M. Stone,** an American missionary, with Mrs. Tsilka, assistant, is **captured** by brigands, in the mountains between Bulgaria and Turkey.

1902. *Feb. 23.* Miss Stone and Mrs. Tsilka released after the payment of ransom of nearly $75,000.

1903. Serious outbreaks in Macedonia, said to be fomented by the Macedonian committee in Bulgaria. In February, Austria and Russia demand reforms in the administration of Macedonia, which the sultan promises to grant. April 30, the Ottoman bank at Saloniki is blown up and **martial law declared.** Powers, notably Russia and Austria, remonstrate both at Sofia and Constantinople and insist on reform measures.

March 5. An agreement is made with Germany allowing the latter to build the Bagdad railway.

1904. *Jan. 6.* Bulgaria complains that the promised reforms in Macedonia are not being carried out. January 13, the **Porte accepts Macedonian reform scheme** of Austria and Russia (Mürzsteg Program). April 8, the Turko-Bulgarian convention pledges Turkey to try the reform plans and Bulgaria to check revolutionary movements in Macedonia.

August. American schools are granted the same rights as other schools, thus settling a long dispute. In bringing this about an American squadron is ordered to Smyrna.

1905. *May 8.* **Powers** demand international control of the finances of Macedonia. November 15, they **present an ultimatum** to the Porte demanding financial reforms, with notice that refusal will be followed by naval demonstration. November 21, an international fleet is ordered to Piræus. November 25, Mytilene is seized; the Porte formally yields, and, December 15, the fleet withdraws.

1908. The **Young Turks,** a party headed by men educated in Western Europe, who believe that Turkey can develop a strong national government on a more or less popular basis, secure the support of troops.

July 24. **Revolution in Constantinople.** The sultan yields in a panic and proclaims the revival of the Constitution of 1876.

July 27. Sultan publicly takes oath of allegiance to the constitution and orders the election of a parliament. In the election the subject Christian races have little opportunity.

Aug. 20. Turkey and Persia settle the boundary dispute. All Austrian officers in the Turkish service are ordered home.

Aug. 21. Government appoints a British adviser for the naval department and a French adviser for the finances.

Aug. 22. Turkish representatives are recalled from Belgrade, Berlin, and Vienna.

Sept. 25. Turkey appeals to the powers against the occupation of the Oriental railway by Bulgarian troops.

Oct 10. **Boycott** is begun at Constantinople **against German and Austrian goods.**

Dec 17. **Sultan opens the Turkish Parliament** amid general rejoicing.

1909. *Jan 12.* Turkey accepts the offer of Austria-Hungary to pay $10,500,000 and grant certain concessions as indemnity for the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. A protocol is signed on February 26.

Feb. 13. Parliament votes no confidence in Kiamil Pasha, grand vizier, who at once resigns. February 14, the sultan instructs Hilmi Pasha to form a cabinet.

April 13. Garrison in Constantinople mutinies, forcing the resignation of the grand vizier, the minister of war, and the president of the Chamber. On the whole, the mutiny is accompanied by little bloodshed. It is suppressed, April 24.

April 14. Tewfik Pasha as grand vizier forms a new cabinet. April 17, the " Committee of Union and Progress " influences the Third Army Corps to march on Constantinople from Saloniki.

April 19. **Turko-Bulgarian agreement** is

1909 (*continued*).
signed at Constantinople, Bulgaria agreeing to pay $16,400,000 for her independence.

April 24. Constantinople garrison surrenders to the troops from Saloniki.

April 27. **Abdul-Hamid II. is deposed,** his brother, Mohammed Reshad, being proclaimed sultan as **Mohammed V.** The next day the deposed Sultan is removed with a portion of his harem to Saloniki, where he is kept a prisoner.

April 29. After summary court-martial, 250 persons are executed at Constantinople. During next few days many other executions take place.

May 5. **Hilmi Pasha becomes grand vizier** and Mollah Sahib, sheik ul Islam. Meanwhile there are riots and atrocities in Asiatic Turkey, especially at Adana.

June 10. Turkey asks the powers to reconsider their decision to evacuate Crete at the end of July, which request is granted on June 15, but on July 13 the four protecting powers notify the Turkish government that on July 26 they will withdraw their garrisons from Crete and station four warships in Cretan waters to maintain the *status quo.*

1910. *Jan. 6.* The Porte sends a note to the powers remonstrating against Cretan officials swearing allegiance to the king of Greece.

Feb. 12. Cretan government is cautioned by the powers; followed by an ultimatum on July 3.

Oct. 8. Over 800 Druses killed by Turkish forces sent into northwestern Syria to collect arms.

Nov. 9. Contracts for a loan of $22,000,000 made with an Austro-Hungarian syndicate.

1911. *April 20.* **Rebellion** against Turkish rule **in Albania.** The insurgents severely dealt with. To conciliate foreign opinion, the Turkish government in August concedes nearly all the demands of the rebels, and grants a general amnesty.

September. War with Italy (see ITALY). Tripoli and Dodecanese conquered by Italy.

Oct. 4. New cabinet is formed by Said Pasha, who resigns December 30.

1912. For the war with Italy, see ITALY.

Jan. 3. Cabinet is reconstructed by Said Pasha.

Jan. 18. Chamber of Deputies is dissolved by imperial decree.

Feb. 28. Great Britain, France, and Russia decide to send warships to Crete; reported attacks on the Mohammedans by Christians.

March. Cretan Assembly elects delegates to the Greek Assembly. Foreign warships prevent the delegates from reaching Athens.

July. **Albanians revolt;** Albanian commission is appointed and extensive reforms promised.

July 17. Said Pasha's cabinet resigns. Mukhtar Pasha is made grand vizier, July 21. Army officers demand dissolution of deputies, July 25. Parliament is dissolved, August 5.

Aug. 5. Martial law is proclaimed in Constantinople.

Aug. 10. **Great earthquake.** Gallipoli practically laid to the ground, and many villages on the shores of the Sea of Marmora seriously damaged.

Sept. 30. Critical situation in the Balkans culminates in the **confederation** of Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece (**Balkan allies**) against Turkey, and in the mobilization of the allied armies.

October. **Balkan War** breaks out. **Montenegrins** formally **declare war** October 8, advancing on Scutari, the capital of Albania. An identic note is presented to the Porte by Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece, demanding autonomy for Macedonia and withdrawal of Turkish troops. October 17, Turkey declares war upon Bulgaria and Serbia October 18, Greece also declares war on Turkey. Fighting now becomes general, the allies penetrating the Ottoman territory and sweeping the Turks before them. October 25, **the Bulgarians** capture Kirk Kilise. October 31, Turkish army is routed in the great battle of **Lüle-Burgas.** Greeks invade Macedonia.

Oct. 15. Treaty of Lausanne with Italy (see ITALY).

Oct. 26. In the northwest the **Serbians** take Üsküp, the former capital of old Serbia.

Oct. 29. Mukhtar Pasha resigns and is succeeded the next day by Kiamil Pasha, who for the fifth time forms a cabinet.

Nov. 3. Porte asks the powers to mediate. Turks prepare to make their last stand at the **Chatalja lines,** which guard the approaches to the capital. Cholera breaks out in the ranks of the opposing armies.
Macedonia is overrun by the allies. November 8, **Greeks occupy Saloniki,** and, November 10, the Serbian and Bulgarian forces also enter. King George of Greece enters amid great enthusiasm, November 12.

Nov. 14. **Armistice** is signed by **Turkey and Bulgaria.**

Nov. 18. **Monastir,** the remaining Turkish stronghold in Macedonia, surrenders to the Serbians. [cess.]
Bulgarians attack the Chatalja lines without suc-

Nov. 28. Serbia occupies the Adriatic port of Durazzo, in defiance of Austria and ignoring the Albanian declaration of independence.

Dec. 3. **Armistice is concluded** between Turkey and Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro.

Dec. 16. **Peace conference opens in London** attended by plenipotentiaries of Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, Greece, and Turkey.

1913. *Jan. 6.* The peace conference in London breaks up, having reached a deadlock over the cession of Adrianople and the Ægean islands.

Jan. 17. Collective note of European powers is presented to Turkish government, advising acceptance of terms of the allies.

Jan. 23. **Young Turks seize reins of power.** Led by Enver Bey they force Kiamil Pasha and his cabinet to resign, and Mahmud Shevket is appointed grand vizier. The populace declares for war rather than give up Adrianople. Nazim Pasha, minister of war and commander in chief, is shot dead during the demonstrations.

Jan. 29. Peace negotiations are finally broken off by the plenipotentiaries of the allied Balkan states, and next day the **armistice is denounced.**

Feb. 3. The **Balkan War is resumed.** Adrianople again bombarded. Severe fighting on the Gallipoli peninsula, the allies trying to open the Dardanelles for the Greek fleet.

March 6. The Turkish fortress of **Janina** near the Greek border capitulates to the Greeks.

March 15. Balkan allies offer to accept mediation by the powers upon condition that the Ægean islands and all the European territory except the Gallipoli peninsula are ceded by Turkey.

March 25. The powers deliver ultimatum that war must cease.

March 26. **Adrianople is taken** by Bulgarians and Serbians after a five months' siege.

March 29. Bulgarian forces press the attack on the Chatalja lines. In **Albania** the Montenegrins carry on the siege of Scutari, taking the outlying fortress of Tarabosh on April 1. The powers, in deference to Austria-Hungary, agree to incorporate Scutari in an autonomous Albanian state and to grant Serbia commercial access to the Adriatic over a neutral railway. The northern and eastern boundaries of the new Albania are agreed upon March 26, thus relaxing the Austro-Russian tension. (See *Montenegro,* under JUGO-SLAVIA.)

April 1. Turkey accepts the terms of peace proposed by the powers, the European boundary being fixed in a line from Enos to Midia.

April 19. **Armistice** is signed by all the belligerents except Montenegro.

April 23. **Scutari surrenders** to Montenegrins after a six months' siege with aid from Serbia.

April 27. Essad Pasha, Turkish defender of Scutari, proclaims himself King of Albania, but he is ignored.

May 14. Scutari is unwillingly evacuated by Montenegrins, and occupied by an international force from the blockading fleet.

May 30. **Treaty of peace** is signed in London by representatives of Turkey, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece, ceding to the allies all territory west of the Enos-Midia line, as well as Crete; the future of Albania and the Ægean islands left to the adjudication of the powers, and financial questions to the decision of an International Commission at Paris This treaty is short-lived.

June 11. Mahmud Shevket Pasha, grand vizier, is assassinated at Constantinople. He is succeeded by Prince Said Halim.

July 20–22. Taking advantage of the war of Bulgaria against Serbia, Greece, and Roumania, **Turkish forces reoccupy Adrianople.**

Sept. 29. **Treaty of Constantinople** is signed, settling the Turko-Bulgarian boundary question, Turkey regaining Adrianople and surrounding territory.
Following the conclusion of the Balkan War, elaborate plans are perfected for the construction of a **new Turkish navy.**

Dec. 13. Euphrates barrage from Hindieh north to Bagdad is opened. It is the first completed part of the irrigation scheme designed for the Ottoman government by Sir William Willcocks.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. **At outbreak of the World War** Turkey is under German influence, against which the Allied Powers struggle in vain.

Sept. 10. The sultan announces his intention to abrogate the conventions known as the **Capitulations,** under which foreigners have been exempt from local jurisdiction and have enjoyed other special privileges.

Oct. 30. Turkish warships, led by the *Goeben* and *Breslau* under German officers, intercept Russian merchantmen in Black Sea and bombard Odessa.

Nov. 5. **War is declared against Turkey by England, France, and Russia.** (See WORLD WAR.)

Dec. 24. German General von der Goltz becomes adviser general to the Turkish army.

1915. *Feb. 27.* At a cabinet council in Constantinople it is decided to transfer the seat of government to Brusa in Asia Minor when necessity arises.

March. Appalling conditions in Armenia (see ARMENIA).

April 27. Appeal for relief of Armenian Christians is made by United States.

May 23. A joint official statement issued by Great Britain, France, and Russia, states that Kurds and Turks are **massacring Armenians** with the connivance and help of the Ottoman authorities; Allied governments announce that they will hold all members of the government, as well as such of their agents as are implicated, personally responsible for such massacres.

Oct. 3. Committee of distinguished Americans makes public a report of its investigations into charges of **Turkish atrocities in Armenia;** more than 800,000 Armenians have been done to death by the Turks and Kurds since May, 1915.

Oct. 4. Messages from United States secretary of state urging that steps be taken by the Turkish government for the protection and humane treatment of Armenians.

1916. *February.* Chamber of Deputies votes to adopt the Gregorian calendar. (See CALENDAR, in the *Dictionary.*)

May 9, 16. Secret Anglo-French agreement on the partition of Turkey (see SYRIA).

June. Arab revolt (see HEJAZ).

June–July. Wholesale executions of Syrians at Damascus and Beirut.

Dec. 26. For reply to President Wilson's "peace note," see WORLD WAR.

1917. *Jan. 1.* Ottoman government **repudiates** the **treaties** of **Paris** (1856) and **Berlin** (1878); insists on all the rights and prerogatives of an entirely independent government.

Feb. 10. Cabinet crisis results in the ministry of Talaat Bey. Enver remains minister of war.

Aug. 18. Secret Anglo-Franco-Italian agreement, by which Italy is to participate in the partition of Turkey (see *Smyrna,* under GREECE).

1918. *July 3.* Mohammed V. dies; succeeded by his brother as **Mohammed VI.** on July 6.

Oct. 8. Talaat ministry retires; Tewfik Pasha heads a new one.

Oct. 14. Turkey informs Austria that she will be forced to conclude a separate peace with the enemy. Turkish Imperial government requests President Wilson to take immediate steps for cessation of hostilities. Turkey accepts as a basis for negotiations the program laid down by the President in his message to Congress of January 8, 1918, and in his subsequent declarations (see UNITED STATES).

Oct. 30. **Armistice signed;** Turkey agrees to open the Straits to the Allies, demobilize army, surrender all warships, surrender Asia Minor garrisons, and permit Allied occupation of strategic points.

1919. Great meetings in Constantinople protesting against the expulsion of the Turks from Europe.

March 7. New cabinet is organized, headed by Damad Ferid Pasha, and composed of men not connected with earlier politics. Some 500 officials of the old *régime* are removed and Constantinople ordered cleared of seditious persons.

July 11. Court-martial sentences to death Enver, Talaat, and Djemal, pro-German Young Turks. All were supposed to be in Germany at the time.

October. Damad Ferid ministry succeeded by one under Mustafa Reshid Pasha, maintaining the territorial integrity of the empire in Europe and Asia. **Mustafa Kemal** with a large and growing force sets up a Nationalist government at Konia, and dominates much of Asia Minor. He is especially inimical to the British.

1920. *Jan. 21.* **Massacre** of Armenians at **Marash** (see SYRIA).

Feb. 15. Council of premiers decides to **leave the Turks in Constantinople,** while putting the Straits under international control. Attitude of Moslems in British and French possessions largely instrumental in the decision.

March 16. Because of the intrigues in favor of Kemal and other dangers to the existing government, the **Allies occupy Constantinople,** forcing the resignation of the just-formed Salih ministry, which is pro-Kemal.

May 11. **Treaty of peace** is handed to the Turkish delegates. Constantinople remains the seat of the Turkish government and the caliphate, but with an international force there as well as in control of the Straits. Thrace and rest of Turkey in Europe, except region in immediate vicinity of the capital, is given to Greece, as also the control of Smyrna. Various Ægean islands go to Greece and the Dodecanese to Italy. Turkey recognizes the independence of the Hejaz, and of Syria, Mesopotamia, and Palestine under mandates. All claim to Egypt is renounced, and French protectorate over Morocco and Tunis is recognized. **Independent Armenia** is to have such boundaries as President Wilson assigns to it. (See ARMENIA, HEJAZ, etc.)

May 20. Treaty signed. (See ITALY.)

UGANDA.

See under British Empire, page 65.

UKRAINE (UKRAINIA).

See under Russia, page 139.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

See under British Empire, page 66.

URUGUAY.

Historical Outline.

Uruguay was originally settled by a Spanish colony from Buenos Aires. Portugal claimed the territory, to which it abandoned pretensions only after being defeated in war by Spain. After the overthrow of Spanish authority in South America, Brazil, as heir of Portugal, by force asserted rights to the country. The war lasted two years. Great Britain intervened and peace was secured by the cession to Brazil of the territory called the "Seven Missions." Then came a bitter war with Buenos Aires. This time both Great Britain and France interfered and a treaty of peace was made. At last, in 1859, both Brazil and the Argentine Confederation recognized the independence of Uruguay. The state was dragged into war with the dictator López, but otherwise in the last fifty years there has been little in its history that is important to the rest of the world.

Organization.

Government. The constitution (last amended in 1918) establishes universal male suffrage at the age of 18, with proportional representation. The legislative power is vested in a Parliament consisting of a Senate of 19, one senator for each department chosen for six years by an electoral college, one third retiring every two years; and a Chamber of Representatives chosen for three years in the ratio of one to every 12,000 male adults who can read and write. The present number is 90. The executive power is divided between the president and a national administrative council. The president is elected for four years by direct vote. The National Council consists of nine members chosen by direct popular vote, six from the majority party and three from the largest minority party; three retiring every two years.

Religion and Education. State and church are separate, and there is complete religious liberty. The majority of the people are Roman Catholics. There is a university at Montevideo; and there are preparatory and secondary schools, and more than a thousand primary schools, at which attendance is compulsory. There are also many religious seminaries throughout the republic, and a university for women.

Industry. The chief occupations are agriculture and cattle raising. The main crops are wheat, barley, oats, and flaxseed. Wine is produced; also, tobacco and olives.

Several gold mines are worked, and silver, copper, lead, magnesium, and coal (lignite) are all found to some extent.

Defense. The standing army has a peace strength of 10,000 and a nominal war strength of 50,000. The National Guard is a militia, service in which is compulsory, and numbers 15,000 to 20,000 men.

The navy consists of three vessels.

The **area** is 72,153 square miles and the estimated **population** (1918) 1,429,585.

Chronology.

1516. Solís discovers Rio de la Plata for Spain.
1624. **First permanent Spanish** settlement, on Rio Negro. Portuguese enter region from Brazil and claim it.
1723. Portuguese fortify **Montevideo.** Spanish capture it. Contest continues intermittently during the century.
1810. Uruguay revolts with Buenos Aires, but founds a **separate state** under **Artigas.**
1817. Brazil captures Montevideo and reclaims the region (Cisplatine, Banda Oriental).
1826–1828. Struggle for **Independence from Brazil.** In 1827 Argentina assists Uruguay. Brazil, 1828, recognizes independence of Uruguay.
1830. **República Oriental del Urugnay** organized; Rivera first president.
1835–1851. **Civil war** between Rivera and Oribe factions, aided by Argentina and Brazil. Rivera party finally triumphs.
1854. **Flores** elected president.
1855. Renewal of domestic strife between **Colorado** and **Blanco parties.** Continues with frequent armed outbreaks for more than 50 years, Colorados usually in power.
1864. Brazil intervenes; establishes order and restores Flores.
1865–1870. War with Paraguay (see Paraguay).
1868. *Feb. 9.* Revolt against **Flores.** He is **assassinated,** February 19, but revolt crushed. Lorenzo **Batlle** becomes president, March 1.
1872. *March 1.* **Gomensoro** inaugurated president.
1873. *March 1.* **Ellauri** becomes president.
1875. *March 1.* **Varela** becomes president, following a conspiracy of Latorre against Ellauri.
1876. *March 10.* **Latorre** retires Varela and proclaims himself dictator. Later he is formally elected president.
1880. *March.* Latorre resigns. **Vidal** succeeds, March 15, as Santos's figurehead.
1882. *March 1.* **Santos** elected president.
1883. *April 20.* Treaty with Paraguay (see Paraguay).
1886. *Nov. 18.* Santos's arbitrary and plundering rule finally turns his own party, the Colorados, against him. He resigns, and is exiled later. **Tajes** succeeds.
1889. *Oct. 2.* First Pan-American Congress meets at Washington (see United States).
1890. *March 1.* **Herrera y Obes** becomes president, continuing Colorado control.
1894. *March 1.* **Borda** inaugurated president.
1896. Blancos rise under Saraiva against Borda.
1897. *Aug. 25.* Borda assassinated. **Cuestas,** president of the Senate, succeeds and a political truce is effected, with promises of reform; but unrest continues.
1903. *Feb. 28.* On election of José **Batlle y Ordóñez** as president, Blancos start another civil war; but it is finally suppressed.
1907. *March 1.* **Williman** becomes president. Social and economic **reforms** inaugurated.
1911. *March 1.* **Batlle y Ordóñez** begins a second term as president. **Economic progress.**
1915. *March 3.* **Viera** inaugurated president.
1916. *March 17.* **Eight-hour-day law** goes into effect.
1917. *October.* **Diplomatic intercourse with Germany severed** on general principles.
1918. *Jan. 3.* **Constitution** of the republic amended, to go into effect in March, 1919.
1919. *Jan. 18.* Uruguay has a delegate at the Peace Conference at Paris.
March 1. **Brum** is seated as president.
Radical constitutional change goes into operation; dual executive, president and commission, both popularly elected, and with division of powers; permanent committee of Congress represents it during recesses; Congress may interpret and expand constitution.
May 15. Old-age-pension law goes into effect.
Oct. 15. House of Representatives ratifies the Treaty of Versailles.

VENEZUELA.

Historical Outline.

Venezuela was the first part of the mainland of the New World sighted by Columbus on his third voyage, 1498. In the following year Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci traced the coast line and finding houses built on piles called it Venezuela ("Little Venice"). Las Casas, the missionary to the Indians, founded a little colony at Cumaná, which was destroyed by the natives in 1522. Caracas was founded in 1567 and became the seat of the captaincy general. The province itself was attached to the viceroyalty, New Granada, and this relation was maintained during the Spanish American rule.

In 1810 Venezuela revolted, and a democratic government was about to be established under the leadership of Miranda, when a great earthquake (March 26, 1812) destroyed Caracas. The people believed that the earthquake was a divine judgment on account of their rebellion and for a time the patriotic movement subsided. The patriots rallied, however, obtained control of the state, and made it a part of the Colombian union. Simon Bolivar, himself a Venezuelan, was elected president; but the Spanish authorities did not yield until Bolivar won the battle of Carabobo (June 24, 1821). Venezuela seceded from the confederation (December 8, 1829) and during the next fifteen years, although there were attempts at revolution, Venezuela was less disturbed than Colombia because of the control of General Páez, who exercised practically dictatorial power.

From 1849 to 1870 there were frequent revolutions till the supreme power came into the hands of Guzmán Blanco, who for the next twenty years was "elected" president at every alternate election, while nominating and electing an adherent of his own for the intervening term. In 1889 a revolt occurred which resulted (1892) in the triumph of General Joaquín Crespo, who became president in 1894 and for four years dominated the state.

The boundary dispute with Great Britain is the most significant recent event in the history of Venezuela. Definite boundaries had never been drawn between it and British Guiana and in 1835 the Royal Geographical Society authorized Robert H. Schomburgk to draw a map of the British possessions, based on his explorations. He made the river Amacuro the northern boundary and the Cotinga the divisional line from Brazil. This map Great Britain subsequently claimed as correct and authoritative. Venezuela, alarmed at the British claim, presented the counterclaim of the republic (1841). In 1882 Venezuela, hoping to end the long dispute, proposed arbitration and asked the good offices of the United States, but Great Britain refused to arbitrate. The government of British Guiana laid formal claim to the disputed territory and Venezuela seemed unable to defend her rights. In 1895 President Cleveland of the United States interfered and in a message to Congress, in which he invoked the Monroe Doctrine, practically stated that any attempt on the part of the British government to enforce its claims on Venezuela without resort to arbitration would be considered as a *casus belli*.

The United States appointed a commission to determine what were the true boundaries of Venezuela; but before it reported Great Britain agreed that the matter should be decided by a court of arbitration. In 1899 an award was made which practically confirmed the British claims as embraced in the Schomburgk line.

In 1899 General Cipriano Castro, as the result of a successful revolution, became president and was the dominating figure in Venezuela until 1909. His administration was challenged by domestic rebellions and threatened by the condition of foreign affairs.

In 1902 Germany, Great Britain, and Italy united in demanding an early settlement of the claims for indemnity to their nationals who had suffered at the time of the revolution. President Roosevelt forbade the Germans to occupy territory; some ports were blockaded, but the claims were submitted to an arbitral commission which made its award in November, 1903. There were also disputes with the United States because of failure to satisfy American claims, and for a time diplomatic relations were broken off. In 1908, while President Castro was in Germany, a revolution put an end to his rule, and although he attempted to return and start a counter-revolution in 1913 his party was defeated.

Venezuela did not take any part in the World War, even to the extent of severing diplomatic relations with Germany, but in 1920 joined the League of Nations.

Organization.

Government. The constitution (1914) vests the legislative authority in a Congress, consisting of a Senate of 40 members elected for three years, two for each Venezuelan state, and a Chamber of Deputies elected for three years, consisting of one deputy for every 35,000 inhabitants in each state and one more for an excess of 15,000. The executive power is in the hands of a president, elected by Congress for seven years, who acts through his cabinet ministers practically as a military despot.

Production and Industry. There are three distinct zones in Venezuela: the agricultural, in which coffee, cocoa, sugar cane, corn, and cotton are produced; the pastoral, which affords fine grazing grounds for large herds of cattle; and the forest zone, in which caoutchouc, balata (a gum resembling rubber), tonka beans, and vanilla growing wild are worked by the inhabitants. Venezuela is rich in minerals, chief among which is gold, although copper, coal, salt, and asphalt are also produced. The asphalt is exported to the United States, the output for 1918 being 46,453 tons. The principal exports in 1917–18 were coffee, cocoa, hides, gold, cattle, and balata and rubber, named in order of value.

Education and Religion. Roman Catholicism is the state religion, but all faiths are tolerated. The educational system was reorganized in 1915, so that free and compulsory education from the age of seven to the completion of the primary grade was established, and a uniform course of study for all grades in the schools and state examinations provided. The central university is at Caracas and the university of Los Andes is at Mérida.

Defense. The active army consists of 9,600 and the naval force of an armored cruiser and several small vessels.

Area and Population. Venezuela has an area of 398,594 square miles and an estimated population (1917) of 2,844,618. This official estimate, however, has been much questioned and probably 2,250,000 is more nearly correct.

Chronology.

1498. Columbus **discovers** South American mainland at the delta of the Orinoco.
1499. Coast of **Venezuela** ("Little Venice") developed and probably named by Ojeda and Vespucci. Settlements along the coast follow.
1523. Second settlement at Cumaná (first destroyed in 1522), under the name of Nueva Toledo, by Diego Castellón. The oldest existing European settlement on the South American continent.
1528–1555. Exploration of the region by the Welser family, German bankers, who have a grant from Charles V.
1567. City of Caracas founded.
1718. Venezuela a province of viceroyalty of New Granada (Santa Fé).
1731. Captaincy general of Caracas erected.

1806. **Miranda's** unsuccessful filibustering expedition from United States.
1810. *April 19.* **Rising** at Caracas against Franco-Spanish rule. Junta controls. Commissions sent to United States and Great Britain.
1811. *July 5.* **Independence** of United Provinces of Venezuela **declared.** **Miranda** and **Bolivar** leaders; Miranda dictator.
1812. *March 26.* Great earthquake destroys Caracas.
July 25. Capture of Miranda by Royalists. Bolivar continues the struggle.
1819. Venezuela unites with New Granada and Ecuador (Quito) to form **Republic of Colombia.**
1821. *June 24.* Independence won at battle of Carabobo.
1830. *Jan. 13.* Union dissolved. Venezuela **independent** state; **Páez** first president and practically dictator until 1846.
1847. **Monagas** becomes president; he asserts his independence of Páez. Civil war results.
1849. *Aug. 18.* Páez imprisoned; later he leaves the country. Monagas rules arbitrarily, but civil war continues between the **Unionists** and **Federalists.**
1851. **Slavery abolished.**
1858. Monagas forced to abdicate.
1859. *May 5.* Boundary treaty with Brazil. Delimitation not started until 1880.
1863. Falcóu becomes head of the government.
1864. New constitution is triumph for Federalists.
1868. *August.* Monagas drives Falcón from power, but dies on November 18. **Civil war continues.**
1870. *December* **Federalists** finally secure complete **control** of territory. **Guzmán Blanco,** president during alternate terms, but the real ruler at all times, continues in power for almost 20 years.
1881. *Sept. 14.* Treaty with Colombia for arbitration of boundary by king of Spain.
1889. *Oct. 2.* First Pan-American Congress convenes at Washington (see UNITED STATES).
1890. *Feb. 20.* Following a revolt against President Rojas Paúl, Guzmán Blanco's deputy, **Palacio** is elected **president.**
1891. *March 16.* Colombian boundary award by queen regent of Spain. Not accepted.
1892. **Crespo** drives Palacio into exile.
1894. *March 5.* Crespo becomes constitutional president.
1895. *April.* Crisis in the long-standing **boundary dispute with British Guiana,** which Great Britain has refused to arbitrate. United States intervenes.
Dec. 17. **Message of** President **Cleveland** of United States on Venezuelan-Guiana boundary (see UNITED STATES).
1897. *Feb. 2.* Boundary arbitration treaty with Great Britain.
1898. *March 4.* **Andrade** succeeds as president.
1899. *Oct. 3.* Guiana boundary award; most of disputed territory given to Guiana.
Oct. 21. **Castro** becomes provisional president, having driven Andrade from power. He assumes a dictatorship.
1901. Strife with Colombia.
1902. Civil war, in which the insurrectionists are headed by Matos, continues during most of the year, but is suppressed. [claims.
April. Agreement for arbitration of French
Dec. 7. **Coercion of Venezuela** by **Germany** and **Great Britain,** who issue an ultimatum on private claims of their subjects. **United States** declines to protect Venezuela against just claims but refuses to permit occupation of territory, so that the coercion is limited to a naval demonstration. Venezuelan vessels seized, some sunk. " Peaceful " blockade instituted, December 10, in which **Italy** joins. Puerto Cabello bombarded, December 13. Customhouses seized.
1903. *Feb. 13.* Through good offices of United States protocols signed with coercing powers. Provision for immediate payments and later installments, for which customs receipts are pledged Hague Tribunal to decide whether claims of coercing powers shall have preference over other foreign claims. Blockade raised, February 15.
1904. *Feb. 22.* Hague Tribunal decides that claims of coercing powers have preference.
April 27. New constitution adopted.
1905–1908. **Castro** continues to irritate various foreign nations, including United States, by action toward foreign concessions.
1907. *Oct. 18.* Convention of Second Hague Conference limits use of armed force to recover contract debts, an outgrowth of the coercion of Venezuela.
1908. *June 23.* Diplomatic relations with United States severed.
November. Castro leaves for Europe for medical treatment.
December. **Breach with Netherlands** over commercial restrictions, during which (July) Dutch minister is expelled, culminates in a Dutch naval demonstration on the Venezuelan coast, which United States permits, and seizure of vessels.
Dec. 21. Following popular manifestations against Castro, Vice President Gómez dismisses Castro's cabinet. Better foreign relations are now sought.
1909. *Feb. 13.* Claims protocol with United States.
March 23. **Castro** suspended from presidency and threatened with arrest if he returns. Neighboring countries refuse to receive him and he returns to Europe. July 12, he **renounces claim to presidency; Gómez** succeeds.
June 2. Bases signed with Colombia for boundary agreement. Never made final.
1913. *July.* Castro attempts an insurrection; speedily put down.
1914. *April 9.* **Bustillos** elected provisional president, Gómez having become commander of the army. New revolt breaks out.
1915. *May 3.* **Gómez** elected president. He does not take the oath, but remains in command of the army. Bustillos continues to act as president. Revolt is suppressed.
1920. *March 13.* Venezuela joins the **League of Nations.**

VICTORIA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 75.

WALES.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 50.

WEIHAIWEI.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 65.

WEST AFRICA, BRITISH.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 67.

WEST AFRICA, FRENCH.

See under FRANCE, page 96.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 75.

WEST INDIES, BRITISH.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74.

WINDWARD ISLANDS.

See under BRITISH EMPIRE, page 74

YAP.

See under GERMANY, page 105.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Historical Outline.

Discovery of America. The first record of the discovery of the Western Continent is found in the Icelandic Sagas, handed down for centuries by oral tradition. In 874 a Norse colony was established in Iceland and in 985 Eric the Red discovered and then settled a barren land which he called Greenland, hoping that a pleasant name would attract settlers. The Sagas tell of a voyage made by **Leif Ericson** in the year 1000 beyond Greenland, where he discovered an unknown land on which grew "grapes" and "self-sown wheat," whence he called it **Vinland** and where he established a little trading post. No authentic remains of these explorations and occupations have been found, but there is no reason to doubt that **Norsemen landed on the Atlantic Coast of North America,** south of Labrador. Enthusiastic archæologists think they have identified Vinland with the Massachusetts Bay region. There is also a tradition that two Venetian brothers, Zeno by name, made two voyages from the Orkneys just previous to 1400 and found new land in the West.

The actual practical discovery of America was due, however, not so much to chance voyages as to the economic, intellectual, and political condition of Europe at the end of the fifteenth century. The outlook of Europe was toward the East, toward India and far Asia, from which came products, such as spices, silks, and precious stones, greatly desired by Europe since ancient times, and since the Crusades in popular demand. A small supply of these products trickled into Europe through the overland caravan trade for ages, but by the fifteenth century Turkish conquest had all but closed this trade. Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks in 1453; and trade with the East was much impeded in that city and the other termini of trade routes in Asia Minor, in which European traders were established. **To find a new route for this commerce** was a compelling motive which brought about the **age of discovery.**

Another reason for penetrating the Western seas was **the revival of learning** in Europe, which stimulated men's thoughts and imagination. Keen minds roused by the Renaissance did not hesitate to question the mysteries of unknown seas, while the use of the compass and the invention of rude nautical instruments made voyages possible far off the coast.

A third influence was the improved condition of western Europe, which had emerged from the disorders of the Middle Ages and was organizing into strong national units. Conscious of themselves, these seafaring people were ready to seek new outlets and acquire new resources.

Portugal first initiated the search for a **sea route to India.** The sailors dispatched by Prince Henry the Navigator and his successors began a systematic exploration of the west coast of Africa, which resulted in the passing of the Cape of Good Hope in 1487 by Bartholomeu **Dias** and prepared the way for the first sea voyage from Europe to India by Vasco **da Gama** in 1497.

The **actual historic discovery of America** was made by **Christopher Columbus,** in 1492. Columbus, son of a Genoese wool carder, was born in 1446 or 1447 and after some slight education went to sea. As a result of his voyages, his reading, his study, and the tales of sailors, he became convinced that the world was round, and that the eastern coast of Asia was not far from the western coast of Europe. He was strengthened in his theory by the writings of the ancients and the teachings of the geographers of his time, but he alone of the sailors of his time was ready to put his theory to a test. He vainly sought support for his idea and backing for his voyage in Italy, in Portugal, and in England. Finally he persuaded **Ferdinand and Isabella,** the sovereigns of the recently united kingdoms of Castile and Aragon, to become his patrons.

He sailed from Palos, Spain, August 3, 1492, with a little fleet of three vessels, the largest of not more than 100 tons burden. In spite of the discontent of his crew, almost resulting in mutiny, he pushed on, and on October 12, 1492, landed on a small island which in pious gratitude he named **San Salvador.** He continued his voyage to the coasts of Cuba and Haiti, and on his return it was declared that he had found a **short route to the Indies.** Although he made three other voyages, reached the north coast of South America, and touched the borders of Nicaragua and Honduras, he died with no conception that he had opened up two unknown continents, but convinced that he had reached land and islands off the coast of Asia.

In 1497 **John Cabot,** a Venetian sailing under the authorization of Henry VII of England, reached the northern coast of North America, perhaps at Newfoundland. In 1498, with his son **Sebastian Cabot,** he made another voyage which may have traced the coast as far south as Carolina.

The name America was suggested by an Alsatian geographer, Hylacomylus, from **Amerigo Vespucci,** who claimed in 1497 to have discovered a large section of the western coast of South America and probably the coast of Central and North America. He described this and later voyages in lively style in accounts printed before the narrative of Columbus's later voyages. The name was gradually extended to all South America and thence by popular usage to the northern continent.

The coast of North America was slowly determined. In 1506 **Jean Denys,** of Honfleur, explored the **Gulf of St. Lawrence;** in 1512 **Ponce de León** discovered **Florida.** In 1513 **Balboa** crossed the **Isthmus of Darien** and discovered the **Pacific Ocean,** and in 1519, the fleet of **Magellan** started on a three years' voyage to South America, sailed through the Strait of Magellan, and across the Pacific Ocean. One of the vessels rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and thus proved by experience that the earth is round, and that a vast ocean separated the newly discovered continents from Asia.

In 1524 **Verrazano** explored for France long stretches of the coast of what is now the United States. In 1535 **Jacques Cartier** sailed up the **St. Lawrence.** By this time it was established that the land was continuous from the Strait of Magellan to Labrador.

Now began an era of interior explorations. In 1540 **De Soto,** on an overland expedition, passed from Florida through the region now occupied by the Southern States, **crossed the Mississippi,** and penetrated as far north and west as Arkansas. In 1540 **Coronado,** setting out from Mexico, explored what is now New Mexico, went as far north as Oklahoma, and sent on an advance party which reached the center of Kansas. In 1579 **Sir Francis Drake,** the English sea dog, coasted South America, and bore up northward as far as **California.** From 1603 to 1608 the French under the leadership of the indefatigable **Champlain** explored the **St. Lawrence,** founded **Quebec,** and determined the coast line of New England. In 1609 **Henry Hudson** made his way up the river which has since borne his name. Thus, the coast line of the Americas was determined as far as 45° north latitude.

The First Colonies. The first settlements made by Europeans in North America were made **by the Spaniards,** and the oldest town within the limits of the United States which has had a continuous existence is **Saint Augustine,** Florida, founded in 1565. The Spaniards were attracted by the richer regions of Central and South America, in which they established a great colonial empire that enriched the home country with its precious metals. Another current of civilization was the **French in Canada. Champlain** and his successors established posts at **Quebec** and **Montreal,** on the St. Lawrence, and in **Acadia** at Port Royal. Venturesome explorers, priests, and traders reached the **Great Lakes,** pushed across the watershed, explored the **Mississippi** in 1682, and founded **Louisiana** in 1699, thus giving France good title not merely to the St. Lawrence region, but to the Great Lakes and the whole central plain between the Appalachians and the Rocky Mountains.

English Colonization. What proved to be the most significant colonizing movement came from England. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth there sprang up a national jealousy of Spain and a contest against the Spanish claim to exclusive rights in the New World. The Elizabethan seamen, chief of whom were **Hawkins, Drake,** and **Raleigh,** harried Spanish commerce in illegal and in open wars and roused the interest and enthusiasm of the English. In 1584 Raleigh sent out an expedition which explored a stretch of the Atlantic coast now called **Virginia** for the "Virgin Queen." In 1585 a settlement was maintained at Raleigh's cost on Roanoke Island for a year, and in 1587 a second Raleigh colony was founded, all trace of which was lost.

The defeat of Spain's Invincible Armada in 1588 opened the way for the permanent settlement of Virginia. This was carried out not by gentlemen adventurers of the Elizabethan Age, but by a group of capitalists, headed by Sir Thomas Smythe. From the Queen they received a charter for the **Virginia Company,** which in 1607 planted the first permanent English settlement at **Jamestown.** The early life of the colony was beset with difficulties and dangers and death. The colony was almost starved out, but a profitable crop for export was discovered in **tobacco,** and slowly the little colony became self-sustaining, though never profitable to the founders.

In 1620 a little band of religious exiles, **the "Pilgrims,"** who had fled from England to Holland to escape persecution, planted a second English colonial nucleus at **Plymouth,** the first settlement in New England. Because of the endurance and persevering nature of these settlers, and the abundant natural resources of timber and fish, they were able firmly to establish an important colony.

English emigration to America on a large scale began in 1630, when a powerful company sent the **"Great Emigration"** to Massachusetts. These were **Puritans,** men of wealth and substance, who settled first on the coast around Boston under a royal charter giving them practical self-government. **Other Puritan settlements** were made **in New England,** both from England directly and from colonies already established in Massachusetts, and these resulted in the colonies of Maine, Connecticut, New Haven, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire.

The southern colonies were increased by **Maryland** (1632) and later by the **Carolinas** (1663) with similar conditions, except that the Carolinas furnished "naval stores," rice, and indigo. **Slavery** flourished in them all, fed by a slave trade from the West Indies.

Between the northern and the southern group of colonies a middle group was slowly developed, after the Dutch were dispossessed (1664): **New York** on the basis of the former New Netherland; then East and West **New Jersey** (1665), afterward united; then in 1682 the magnificent colony of **Pennsylvania,** founded by William Penn, which soon became the most prosperous and richest of the colonies, with a population drawn from the Welsh, Scotch-Irish, and Germans, as well as from the English.

Colonial Growth. In the main the economic foundation of all the colonies was agriculture. In the **South** tobacco, rice, and indigo could be raised on large plantations worked by Negro slaves. In the middle colonies, where the winters were more severe, slavery took root in a milder form. The rich soil of **Pennsylvania** and the sober, hardy, and industrious character of the settlers soon made that State the largest grain-producing colony. In **New England,** where the soil was less fertile, the fisheries provided food and an export of dried fish which developed a trade with the neighboring continental colonies, the West Indies, and even with Africa. An important trade was built up with the Indians, from whom were obtained furs and skins, especially beaver skins.

Although all the colonies on the Atlantic seaboard were either founded or conquered by the **English,** there was always a **non-English element** in the population. Huguenots and, later, Acadian French were found in New England, South Carolina, and elsewhere. In New York the **Dutch** were long the dominating element, and in Pennsylvania there were Swedes, Scotch-Irish, French, and a large German element, which also settled along the Mohawk Valley in New York. In all the colonies there was some Negro population, which was largest in the South, and in South Carolina was more numerous than the white population. Although representing different races, nearly all the colonists were Protestants and held similar ideas concerning personal liberty and self-government. English political institutions and the English common law, with all its safeguards, were easily transferred to this western England.

Government of the Colonies. The colonies were classified according to their form of government into three groups. The **royal colonies** or provinces had no charter and took the government framed for them by the English authorities. The **proprietary colonies** were held by a charter granted to an individual or group and inherited by their families. The proprietor arranged the colonial government. The **charter colonies** had a documentary grant to a stock company which, in the case of the New England colonies, was made up of the colonists themselves.

Notwithstanding these variations, all the colonies developed similar political institutions. In each there was a governor, appointed by the king in the royal colonies, by the proprietor in the proprietary colonies, and elected by the company in the chartered colonies. In each there was a legislature, consisting of a Council appointed in the royal and proprietary colonies and elected in the chartered colonies; and a lower house elected in all colonies by the freeholders. **Suffrage was nowhere universal;** property and tax qualifications and religious tests much limited the voters.

These colonial legislatures claimed for themselves much the same powers in colonial affairs that Parliament exercised in the English system. This gave the colonists invaluable training in self-government, and they did not hesitate to brave their governors and

even disputed with the English authorities. They stood by the English principle of the control of the legislatures over local taxes and appropriations; this power of the purse to a large extent made them makers of the policy of their government.

In local affairs there were three systems of government. In the South the **county system**, with a board of justices appointed by the governor. In New England the **township**, with the meeting of freemen in a primary assembly, known as the "**town meeting.**" In a few of the places in the middle colonies was a **borough or city government.** In all cases the control of the local government was never far from the people governed.

English Control. To the English government the colonists were Englishmen across the sea who had no representation in Parliament. England exercised her control over these scattered subjects, first by the right to grant ownership and control of lands; then through the appointment of governors for the royal provinces and pressure upon the proprietors of the proprietary provinces; then by instructions to the governors. At the time of the Revolution only Connecticut and Rhode Island were full chartered colonies outside the sphere of royally appointed officials.

Besides the governor England appointed officials, inspectors of customs, collectors of revenue, and the like, to enforce or to inspect the enforcement of the laws. Appeals could be, and sometimes were, taken from colonial courts to the Privy Council in England. As for legislation, the charters were generally held to be beyond the authority of Parliament; and Parliament passed no local laws for individual colonies, but in matters of trade and the foreign policy of the mother country an act of Parliament was binding on all the colonies.

Indian and Colonial Wars. The three principal nations, the Spanish, the French, and the English, who settled in America, had each its own **methods with the Indians.** The Spaniards practically enslaved and baptized the Indians; the French baptized the Indians, traded and intermarried with them; the English crowded them out of their hunting grounds and avoided them, and only now and then a man, like John Eliot, attempted to Christianize them. The French soon gained an ascendancy over the Indians, who proved invaluable allies in the stern conflict with the English.

In almost every English colony the **relations with the Indians** were the same. At first the natives looked on the settlers with tolerant curiosity. Later, when it was found that the English took rather than shared the hunting grounds, war broke out. In these wars, whether the **Pequot War** of 1637 or the terrible fights of 1622 in Virginia, the colonists were everywhere successful, except against the **Five Nations** of the Iroquois, who held their own till the Revolution of 1775.

The second stage came in each colony twenty to fifty years later and was far more serious. In Virginia in 1644 Opechancanough led a successful raid, while New England was scourged by **King Philip's War** in 1675. In Virginia in 1676, under the leadership of Nathaniel Bacon, the Indians were finally defeated. Of a similar sort were the **Tuscarora War** in North Carolina and the **Yamassee struggle** in South Carolina.

Intercolonial Wars. In the series of European wars from 1689 to 1763, the English colonies were always drawn in against the French on the north and the Spaniards on the south. During **King William's War** Port Royal, Acadia, was captured, but returned to the French by the treaty of 1697. In 1701 began the War of the Spanish Succession, called in America **Queen Anne's War**, which included Indian raids upon the New England settlements, the second capture of Port Royal and, by the Peace of Utrecht (1713), the transfer of all Acadia, thereafter known as Nova Scotia. The Austrian Succession in Europe led to **King George's War** in America (1744), in which the French fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island was taken (1745).

In 1754 the outbreak of the **French and Indian War** was the first gun in the European Seven Years' War. One of the episodes was the expedition against Fort Duquesne (modern Pittsburgh) and the **defeat of General Braddock** (1755). Fort Duquesne was later captured, and also Quebec (1759) and Montreal (1760). By the Treaty of Paris (1763) France surrendered to Great Britain all claims to territory east of the Mississippi, while to compensate her ally, Spain, for sharing the war and losing the Floridas, France transferred to her western Louisiana, including the city of New Orleans. Thus, by the middle of the eighteenth century the English had eliminated all foreign claimants to the region east of the Mississippi and from Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico.

Movements toward Union. The **English colonies** in America were **individualistic.** Many of them were founded by small religious sects, others by mercantile companies, but all had a keen sense of their own interests and significance; nevertheless, the idea of colonial union was in the minds of the colonists as early as 1643, when a union was formed between Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. This **New England Confederation,** as it was called, aided the colonists in their struggles with the Indians and controversies with the Dutch, but was looked upon with disfavor by the English government and came to an end in 1684. The difficulties of colonial intercourse tended to put each colony back upon itself for its own protection and defense. The home government forced the New England colonies to consolidate under the tyranny of Andros, and in 1686 New York was joined to this government. But at the "**Glorious Revolution**" of 1688–89 this temporary union fell apart.

During the struggles with the French and Indians from 1689 to 1763 the British government attempted to bring about coöperation in military affairs; but the colonists were jealous of their own prerogatives and were slow to come to one another's aid. In 1754, at a Congress of Commissioners called at Albany, Benjamin Franklin presented a scheme for colonial union called the **Albany Plan.** This was objected to by the colonists because it gave the king too great power and by the English authorities because it was felt to be too democratic. Not until the Revolutionary era did the colonists succeed in sinking their internal differences and forming an **effective union.**

The Revolutionary Era. The causes for the American Revolution begin to appear distinctly soon after the accession of George III, in 1760. The **English government** had always **claimed legal supremacy.** An act of Parliament was superior to all colonial statutes in general matters, especially in trade. The so-called **Acts of Trade** were meant to restrict the commerce and manufactures of the colonies. In local matters the danger from the French in Canada made the home government cautious until England was better able to enforce her ideas upon the colonies. Both home British and colonial British looked upon England as the center and head of a great colonial empire. The only central authorities were a hereditary king and a Parliament in which the colonists could have no representation.

By the colonial system embodied in the Acts of Trade Great Britain had long sought to secure for home merchants the profits of the colonial empire and at the same time to grant protection to all of its members. This policy was first put into the form of law by the **Ordinance of 1651** and the subsequent navigation acts down to the **Molasses Act** of 1733 and the **Sugar Act** of 1764. By this policy the colonies were protected against competition in the British markets in certain products; but were compelled to make their direct purchases only from the home or colonial members of the empire. Thus, Virginia was given the tobacco monopoly as against tobacco farms in England, but had to buy hardware and cloth from England. Thus, New England had a profitable share in the carrying trade of the British Empire, but was compelled to buy its molasses only from English colonies. With certain exceptions **all commerce** with foreign nations must go **through Great Britain,** and was there subject to taxation. The execution of this policy was lax, and smuggling and other forms of illegal trade were habitual in the colonies. In 1763 Great Britain felt the enormous cost of the war with France and thought it reasonable to divide the cost of the military protection of the colonies.

The policy as adopted included **taxation** to be laid on the colonists by act of Parliament — the proceeds to be used **for colonial defense.** Opposition at once arose in the colonies. For years they had enjoyed forbidden trade with the French West Indies, the Spanish possessions, and with the Dutch. Under the protective Sugar Act the English West Indies were able to raise the price of sugar and molasses, upon which there were taxes, while European goods coming through England both cost more and were also taxed. The colonists felt that since they maintained at their own expense their colonial governments and had burdened themselves with debt in the wars with the Indians and French, which were for the defense of the British Empire as well as their own protection, they had contributed their share to the imperial expenses.

A second ground of colonial opposition lay in the fact that the British government was proposing, not simply to enforce this commercial policy, but to use the proceeds of the taxes for the payment of British officials in the colonies. As has been shown, the colonists, through their control of local taxation and appropriations, directed the action of their governments and of the officials. If the officials were paid from taxes levied by Parliament they would be subject to English rather than colonial control.

The issue was brought to a head by the passage of the **Stamp Act** (1765), which laid stamp duties on deeds, notes, bills, and other documents. Local opposition appeared in every colony, and 28 delegates, representing nine colonies, assembled in New York at the **Stamp-Act Congress.** There a **Declaration of Rights** was adopted, which claimed for the colonists freedom from all internal taxes not laid by their representatives. Intense opposition to the **Stamp Act** caused its repeal, but the repeal act reasserted a right of taxation. It was then determined in the **Townshend Acts** (1767) to raise revenue by duties on colonial imports, thus avoiding the issue of internal taxation without representation. The answer of the colonies was unmistakable. Massachusetts sent a circular letter to the other colonies which, while disavowing any desire for independence, suggested concerted action. The Virginia Assembly passed resolutions asserting that the Virginia Assembly had the sole right to lay taxes upon the people. These theoretical statements received practical force by the establishment of **Non-Importation Agreements,** by which the colonists agreed not to use the taxed goods. Thus the Townshend Acts were defeated.

Committees of Correspondence (first organized by New York in 1764) were appointed by Massachusetts and Virginia in 1772 and 1773 respectively. Through the means of these committees the different colonies were informed of public opinion in the other colonies, and a solidarity of interest was created.

Although the Townshend Acts were partially repealed, a light duty was maintained on tea, which was sold cheaper than in England. The colonists refused to purchase the taxed tea because it would then become an admission of the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. The tea in Boston was destroyed in a riotous gathering known as the **Boston Tea Party** (1773). The English answer to this defiance was aimed directly at the people of Massachusetts. The port of Boston was closed by statute, the charter of Massachusetts was suspended, trials outside the colony were provided for, and the quartering of British troops sanctioned within the province.

The colonial reply was the **First Continental Congress,** summoned at Philadelphia, September 5, 1774. This assembly, representative of twelve colonies, formulated in the name of all the colonies a **Declaration of Rights.** It accepted and drew up the Association, which was in effect a boycott of British goods and slaves, including an article against taxation without representation.

Great statesmen in England, including Lord Chatham, worked for conciliation. The king and his subservient ministers stood for repressive measures and the majority in Parliament supported them. Collisions occurred between the British troops and the citizens of Boston. Military stores were collected by the leaders of the people at Concord and elsewhere.

The Revolution. The **first armed clash** of the Revolution took place at **Lexington and Concord,** April 19, 1775. At Lexington the minutemen stood firmly until fired upon by the British, when they retired; at Concord, a few hours later, they rallied and their force, now augmented, drove back the British to Boston. On June 17, 1775, the colonists, attempting to fortify **Bunker Hill,** were finally driven from the field. It was a dear victory, for it cost 1,000 British troops and proved that militia could hold regulars.

The Second Continental Congress assembled May 10, 1775, at Philadelphia, and at once placed itself at the head of military and naval affairs. **George Washington** was chosen Commander in Chief of the American army and took command at Cambridge. On March 17, 1776, he forced the evacuation of Boston by the British. On July 4, 1776, Congress adopted the **Declaration of Independence,** in which it declared the colonies independent of Great Britain and stated their case to the European nations.

The Revolutionary War lasted for seven years, during which time Great Britain employed not only English troops, but also hired Hessians from Germany. During the first period of the war the conflict centered between the Hudson and the Delaware. New York was captured in 1776 and Washington was obliged to retreat across New Jersey. Philadelphia was captured by the British in 1777.

In 1777 the British under Burgoyne marched south from Canada, but were defeated, and surrendered at **Saratoga.** As a result the French government, in 1778, recognized the **independence of the United States** and made a treaty of alliance by which supplies, troops, and above all, the French fleet, were sent to aid the colonists.

The last period of the conflict was in the South. Here the British were at first successful, but by a series of masterly engagements **General Nathanael Greene** cleared the territory. Cornwallis returned to Yorktown; and while a French fleet held up the British relief expedition, a consolidated American and French army besieged him and captured his whole army. By the Treaty of Paris (1783) Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States and agreed to formulate boundaries; on the north, substantially as at present; on the west, the Mississippi; on the south, the Floridas, which the Spanish had regained during the war.

The Critical Period. Although the colonies had achieved independence, they had not secured stability. They were burdened with debt, their trade disorganized, their currency literally "not worth a 'Continental,'" as the bills of credit issued by Congress were called. During the war the Second Continental Congress framed **Articles of Confederation** (1777), which provided for a league between the colonies and which made a division between the powers to be exercised by Congress, representing the central government on the one hand, and the States, representing the local governments, on the other.

Several faults revealed themselves in this plan: It operated not upon citizens, but upon States; it gave Congress no power to tax individuals, but only to make requisitions upon the States; it did not authorize a general regulation of foreign or interstate commerce; it could not be amended without the unanimous consent of all the States, nor could Congress pass important legislation without the assent of three fourths of the States. Weak as this instrument was, several States delayed to adopt it in definite form until 1781; nor could they be persuaded to amend it by giving Congress more power in the years which followed.

The Constitutional Convention of 1787 was summoned ostensibly to propose amendments to the Articles of Confederation. Actually, after four months' debate it produced **a new constitution,** by which the confederation or league was transformed into a federal state.

The question of federal power was adjusted on a new basis. Neither Congress nor the States were recognized as sovereign, but the great doctrine of the **sovereignty of the people** of the United States was assured by the first words of the preamble, "We the people of the United States . . . ordain and establish this Constitution." No longer could States enact laws in conflict with the Constitution or acts of Congress, for, by Article VI., "This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties . . . shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding."

In the specific division of powers between the federation and States, Congress was given the power to levy taxes, to control commerce, to raise an army and a navy, and to declare war, — in fact all powers necessary for the regulation of foreign affairs and most concerns which affected the nation as a whole. The States were forbidden by explicit prohibitions to interfere in some of these spheres.

Congress was to consist of a House of Representatives and a Senate. In the **Senate** each State has equal representation — two senators — and no State may be deprived of this equality of representation in the Senate without its consent. Thus State pride is satisfied, and the fear that the small States may be oppressed is removed. In the **House of Representatives** the people are represented in proportion to the population in each State, as shown by the decennial censuses.

The head of the executive branch of the government is the president, who has great power, since he possesses a suspensory veto over legislation; may appoint the principal officers with the consent of the Senate; directs the foreign relations; instructs diplomatic representatives; controls the negotiation of all treaties; commands the army and navy; and above all, enforces the laws of the United States.

At the summit of the judicial department is a **Supreme Court** and below it inferior courts, all of which uphold the laws of Congress and the Constitution of the United States against all infringements, even those by the States themselves.

By **amendments** (I.–X.), which were quickly added **to the Constitution,** the great Anglo-Saxon rights of personal liberty — such as freedom of speech, press, religion, and the right of jury trial — are guaranteed against usurpation by Congress; and the States are forbidden to deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. The Supreme Court of the United States therefore acts as a reviewing authority upon State legislation. Two other amendments (XI.–XII.) were added to the Constitution in 1798 and 1804, respectively, but after these no other amendments were adopted up to the time of the Civil War.

The Convention at Philadelphia transmitted this Constitution to Congress with the recommendation that it be submitted to conventions called within the various States and be declared in force when ratified by nine States. The campaign for ratification was bitter and during it many political pamphlets were written: the most famous, appearing serially in a New York journal and later published as *The Federalist*, were composed by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay, and are still the most authoritative interpretation of the document. On June 21, 1788, New Hampshire, the ninth State, ratified the Constitution. Virginia and New York followed soon, but North Carolina delayed until 1789, and Rhode Island until 1790.

Organization of the Government. During the campaign for the ratification of the Constitution those groups which were in favor of the Constitution and the extension of the powers of a central government were known as **Federalists.** Those who believed in maintaining the States as the chief agencies of government and who were thus opposed to a federal state were called **Antifederalists.** In these differences is found the germ of the first two great political parties.

The country was unanimous in choosing **George Washington** as first president, and John Adams received 34 of the 69 electoral votes for vice president. During Washington's first administration he attempted to sink party differences and called to his cabinet men of such diverse opinions as Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton. In spite of the attempt to ignore parties, both domestic and foreign questions revealed a genuine difference of political opinion and strengthened the party spirit. Thus the question of the assumption of the debts of Congress and of the States was favored by Hamilton and his group, who also favored the establishment of a national bank and a mildly protective tariff. These measures, however, were opposed by Jefferson and the Antifederalists. Little by little Washington was forced to become a party president and his second administration was frankly Federalist.

Foreign affairs disturbed the country and drew party lines tighter. The outbreak of the French Revolution (1789) and the later war of France with Great Britain forced a decision as to whether the United States should aid her former ally, France, and thus subject her commerce to British reprisals, or attempt to stand neutral. Washington, Hamilton, and the Federalists, while favoring England, believed that the best interests of the United States required absolute neutrality. Thus this position, never before so clearly stated, set forth the true principles and established the proper rules of neutrality which later have become a part of international law. In order to settle the controversies between the United States and England, Washington authorized a treaty with England known as the **Jay Treaty,** which after a bitter struggle was ratified in 1795. In strong and powerful language Washington in the **Farewell Address** (1796) put before his countrymen the desirability of **keeping out of European complications.**

During the administration of John Adams (1797–1801) the parties were still more thoroughly divided; and the impossibility of avoiding a share in the troubles of Europe was shown by a brief naval **war with France** (1799). Thomas Jefferson was chosen president in 1800, after a contest over a tie with Burr. The Jeffersonian party, the old Antifederalists, now called the Democratic Republicans, were in control of the government, but attempted no serious changes. They took over the national government as they found it organized, and applied their own policy to it, rather than to attempt to alter the established system. The army and navy were reduced and the money saved was expended for the payment of the debt. On the other hand, Jefferson, in 1803, boldly purchased the **Louisiana Territory** from Napoleon, thus extending the power of the president and enlarging the territory of the United States beyond all expectation of the framers of the Constitution.

The renewal of war between England and France in 1803 again showed that the United States could not live for itself alone, for its commerce suffered from both belligerents. The paper blockades declared by the Emperor Napoleon upon the English ports, the French decrees for seizing neutral ships, and the equally illegal orders in council issued by the British, caused the capture of 1500 American vessels. In addition, Great Britain insisted upon her **right of search and impressment,** which greatly irritated the United States. Moreover, her cruisers, reaching the coast of the United States, attempted to enforce her pretensions in American waters. The United States attempted to meet these aggressions by a boycott policy which should avoid war; it was expressed by the **embargo** (1807) and the **Nonintercourse Act** (1809). Both were failures.

In Madison's administrations (1809–1817) the United States tried to balance one aggression against the other, only to be tricked by Napoleon and ignored by Spain. For several years the United States seemed on the brink of war with Great Britain. As no redress was obtained for the British captures till the last moment, and thousands of American citizens were held by British action, the United States declared war on England, June 18, 1812.

The War of 1812. On land the United States set out to capture Canada, but was unsuccessful. On the other hand, Maine was invaded and Castine occupied by the British. The capital, **Washington,** was **burned** by a small British force in 1814, and the distant settlement of Astoria was occupied.

On the sea the United States was more successful and the victories of the *Constitution* over the *Guerrière*, the *Wasp* over the *Frolic*, the *United States* over the *Macedonian*, the *Constitution* over the *Java*, and the *Hornet* over the *Peacock* in naval duels did much to raise the prestige of the United States. American privateers harried British commerce and captured 1,344 prizes.

The final battle of the war was at **New Orleans,** January 8, 1815, after the treaty of peace had been signed. In this, General Andrew Jackson was overwhelmingly successful. In the meantime negotiations for peace were in progress at **Ghent;** a treaty was signed which, although omitting mention of impressments, restored the American territory occupied by British troops and provided for the appointment of commissions to settle disputed points (1814). Although the United States was not successful in winning her contentions, the end of the European wars put an end to the issues of neutral trade and impressments; and she had shown herself ready to fight for her rights and had won the respect of England and the European nations.

From the close of the War of 1812 until the election of Andrew Jackson, in 1828, parties were disorganized. The live domestic questions were the **protective tariff** and internal improvements, while the most pressing foreign question was over the recognition of the recently revolted South American republics. In dealing with this question Monroe, on the advice of John Quincy Adams, his secretary of state, enunciated the **Monroe Doctrine** in 1823. In this he declared that the American continents are not open to further colonization or to the extension to this hemisphere of the European system of government. By implication, the United States reserved the Western Hemisphere as her field of influence and renounced interference in European affairs. This doctrine has become the corner stone of American foreign policy; for although the United States has not been able to avoid intervention in European affairs, it has stood by its original position that in both Americas it was to be the determining influence.

In 1820 the **slavery question** for the first time became an issue in national politics. The question arose over the admission of Maine and Missouri as States. If Missouri, which was in the same geographical belt as the three western free States, were made free, the slavery power would begin to decline. If Missouri became a slave State the two sections — free and slave — would be perpetuated in the West. After an acrimonious debate the question was settled by compromise (**"Missouri Compromise"**): Maine was admitted as a free State, Missouri as a slave State; but otherwise the territory in the Louisiana Purchase, north of 36° 30′ (the southern boundary of Missouri) was "forever" to be free.

Social and Economic Development of the Country. Between 1783 and 1830 the rising United States was transformed from a narrow strip of territory between the Allegheny Mountains and the Atlantic Ocean to a country stretching as far west as the Rocky Mountains; and from a small nation of 3,500,000 to one of over 12,000,000. The most remarkable and significant feature of this growth was the **development of the West.**

In 1790 a civilized population of 109,000 lived west of the Alleghenies. In 1815 there were ten times that number of inhabitants and from 1815 to 1830 the Western population increased to 2,300,000. Cheap public lands and the opportunities to develop homes on the fertile soil attracted immigrants from all the Eastern States. Thus there developed a democratic society different from that of the Eastern communities. The frontiersmen were substantially equal in wealth, and to all equal opportunity was open. Land was inexpensive, easy to obtain, and quickly brought under cultivation. Thus even the poorest immigrant, who had the necessary energy, within a short time could become the equal of his neighbors in possessions and importance.

This social and economic equality produced political ideas of absolute democracy, which were fundamentally different from those of Eastern industrial organization. The economic conceptions of this frontier society were crude: land and food were plenty, but there was no transport obtainable for long distances; surplus products were hard to dispose of, and money was scarce. Like all pioneer communities the Westerners demanded **cheap and abundant money,** and resented the payments they were forced to make to Eastern capitalists. They were intensely patriotic, sure of themselves, and of the future of the country. Thus, with Henry Clay as their spokesman, they were impatient at the timidity of Madison's government and enthusiastically supported the War of 1812. As the population increased through this region, they became a force to be reckoned with in national politics. They nearly turned the scale in 1824, and in 1828 triumphed in the election of their candidate, Andrew Jackson.

Industrial Development. While these changes were going on in the West a new society was developing in the East. In the South the best land, including much that was not suitable for the cultivation of rice or tobacco, was turned to cotton. This crop, at first of small importance, became through the in-

vention of the **cotton gin** by Eli Whitney in 1793 the leading export of the United States. The new type of cultivation transformed Southern society. Slavery in many parts of the South was still patriarchal and unprofitable. The slave system on the rich cotton lands tended to become capitalistic. Many great plantations in the Southwest were cultivated by gangs of slaves under hired overseers, and the demand for more land suitable for the cultivation of cotton and the extension of the slavery system became intense. The Southern planter, moreover, was dependent on imports which came either from the industrial North or from Europe. He desired cheap imports and resented the **protective tariff** which increased the cost of his goods; and he frequently found himself politically allied with the Democratic frontiersmen of the West.

The Industrial East. During the early years of struggle between England and France, American **shipping was highly profitable,** notwithstanding the losses by captures. Under the restrictive acts after 1807 it somewhat declined, but it recovered after peace in 1814. Another significant development was in manufacturing. In England, beginning with the invention of Hargreaves' spinning jenny in 1767, which was followed by the power loom and other similar developments, the textile industry was transferred from cottages to factories. The same thing happened in other industries; and by 1800 the modern factory system was well established in England.

In America the development was slower. In 1793 **Samuel Slater** and **Moses Brown** set up in Pawtucket the **first successful cotton factory.** Beginning in 1807 the nonimportation acts, and later the war with England, gave American manufacturers temporary monopoly of the home market. The effect was startling. In 1807 there were 8,000 spindles in the cotton industry, in 1809, 80,000, and similar progress was made in other lines. At the close of the war these Eastern manufacturers demanded a continuance of the protection that their industries had received; and thus found themselves in sharp opposition to the planters of the South and the frontiersmen of the West.

This industrial growth transformed society. The factory system produced a class of workmen, constantly recruited by immigration from Europe, very different from the old colonial type. The city population increased. Between 1800 and 1820 the population of Boston almost doubled, and that of New York more than doubled. This working class was at first debarred from political life by property qualifications. When at last they received the vote they naturally aligned themselves with the more democratic element in the community and opposed the Federalists and then their successors, the Whigs.

Political Issues and Parties. From 1816 to 1824 was an era of personal politics. By 1824 the democratic movement of the West, South, and East became powerful and by 1830 was almost everywhere successful. Andrew Jackson was its spokesman. Coming from the West, where substantial equality prevailed, he held the theory that no man had a vested right to office. Therefore he made wholesale removals of the federal officers and fastened the **spoils system** upon American political life. As a spokesman of the Western democracy he distrusted the second **United States Bank,** which was used to strengthen the financial system of the United States, but had not always kept clear of politics. He directed the **removal** of the **deposits** which the government had made in the bank, and successfully exerted his influence to prevent a new charter.

An era of **wildcat banking** had already set in, during which many State banks issued currency which proved worthless. A **financial panic** occurred in 1837, due to loose banking based on speculation in land.

Protective tariffs were adopted in 1816 and again in 1824. In 1828 came the so-called **tariff of abominations,** with still higher duties, some of which were modified by the Tariff of 1832, which, however, retained the protective system. In the South and especially in South Carolina this policy was resented. The leaders of that State, headed by John C. Calhoun, therefore expounded the theory of **nullification,** — that is, that a State without withdrawing from the Union might by a solemn act "nullify" an act of Congress beyond the powers granted by the Constitution. A State convention which was supposed to represent the sovereignty of the State declared the tariff acts null and void, and prohibited the payment of the duties levied under them.

Jackson met the issue squarely. In his nullification proclamation of 1832 he declared "The laws of the United States must be executed," and appealed to Congress to enlarge his powers so that he might enforce the law. The South Carolinians, realizing that he was in earnest, held an informal meeting to suspend the operation of the nullification ordinance. Meanwhile, Clay and Calhoun effected a compromise tariff which was adopted by Congress, providing for the gradual reduction of duties to a nonprotective basis. Jackson was successful in maintaining the authority of the union; and the nullifiers succeeded in upsetting protection. In a slightly different form the nullification idea was the basis of the later secession movement.

A party was already rising made up of "Anti-Jackson men," which grew in both the South and North and slowly coalesced. The mainstay was the manufacturers and the capitalists of the East, who desired a national bank as against the wildcat banks and high protective duties and far-reaching internal improvements. Webster and Clay were the greatest leaders of this group. In 1832 these men united as National Republicans to support Clay, who was defeated by Jackson. In 1835 they formally adopted the name of **Whigs.** From its very nature and its geographical support the Whig party was a party of compromise on the question of slavery. It elected two presidents by nominating military heroes, William Henry Harrison in 1840 and Zachary Taylor in 1848; then it declined and, in 1856, disappeared.

Territorial Expansion. The territorial expansion of the United States began with the treaty of 1783, by which the western boundaries of the possessions which Great Britain had fixed in 1763 at the Appalachian Mountains were extended to the Mississippi. In 1803 Jefferson added the vast Louisiana Territory acquired from France. In 1812–1814 West Florida was annexed by conquest, and in 1819 East Florida was acquired from Spain, while the southern and western boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase were determined. In 1836 Texas became independent of Mexico and existed as the **Lone-Star State** until 1845, when it was annexed to the United States.

War with Mexico began in 1846 because Polk desired California and was glad to make use of the Texan claim to all the territory as far south and west as the Rio Grande. In this war the United States was successful; not only was the disputed territory annexed, but also **California** and **New Mexico,** being all the region south of the 42d parallel and west of the Louisiana Purchase, were conquered. This territory was rounded out by the **Gadsden Purchase** in 1853.

In Oregon joint occupation with Great Britain was renewed in 1827, but terminated in 1846. By a boundary treaty the disputed region was divided, and the part south of 49° was confirmed to the United States. In 1842 the dispute over the Maine boundary was settled by the **Webster-Ashburton Treaty.** Thus, in the seventy years following the Revolution, the territory was quadrupled, and the United States obtained fronts on the Atlantic, Gulf, Pacific, and Great Lakes.

Problem of Slavery. Back of the various political problems and policies of expansion was the question of slavery. Before the Revolution, slavery existed in every colony North and South. At the time of the adoption of the Constitution all of the New England States and Pennsylvania were on the high road toward universal freedom.

The Constitution of 1787 had to recognize an institution which then existed in eight of the States; two of the great compromises of the Constitution and several other provisions dealt with slavery. In the apportionment of taxes and of representation, slaves were to be counted as three fifths of their total number. Congress was forbidden to prohibit the foreign slave trade until 1808. But Congress had power to regulate slavery in the territories, and even in the District of Columbia, and dealt with the question of fugitive slaves. The word "slave" was avoided, for many Northerners and some Southern leaders looked to the final extinction of slavery.

The causes for the decline of slavery in the North were partly moral, partly political, and partly economic. Its sudden and unexpected growth in the South was due to cotton. In the North neither the soil nor the climate favored the increase of slavery and manufactures gave employment to a class of laborers more intelligent than the slaves. In the South the invention of the cotton gin greatly stimulated the growth of cotton, for it was a staple which could be easily cultivated by ignorant and unskilled slave labor employed most of the year. Statistics show that in New England the slaves decreased from 3,763 in 1790 to about 200 in 1820. In the Middle States from 45,000 in 1790 to 18,000 in 1816. In the South, on the other hand, there was an increase from 648,651 in 1790 to 3,953,000 in 1860. Of the Southern States, Maryland showed a decrease of 16% between 1830 and 1860, Virginia an increase of only 4%, North Carolina an increase of 35%, but in Georgia and the Gulf States during the same period the increase was 276%. This decline of the border States as farming communities and the increase of work and prosperity in the South, led to a rift of interests and feeling within the South.

Federal Legislation concerning Slavery. Congress acted upon the implied permission in the Constitution and as early as possible passed laws first restricting and then forbidding the foreign slave trade. Even before the adoption of the Constitution, the old Continental Congress had by the **Ordinance of 1787** forbidden slavery in the Northwest Territory. Again, in 1820 the **Missouri Compromise** excluded slavery from other territories north of 36° 30′. But Congress made provision for the capture of fugitive slaves and left slavery in the District of Columbia. With this compromise the South was for a time content. The great unsettled areas, especially in the Southwest, apparently afforded ample room for expansion and the establishment of their "peculiar system."

The Abolition Movement. The Abolition movement began in the colonies as early as 1700 and never ceased until its purpose was accomplished. From 1775 to 1830 it was strong in the northern tier of slave States. In 1831 **William Lloyd Garrison** founded a paper called *The Liberator,* devoted to the abolition of negro slavery and established active antislavery societies. In the same year a **slave insurrection,** headed by Nat Turner, broke out in Virginia. Although there was no connection between the antislavery movement and this insurrection, still the Southerners became apprehensive and the Southern abolition movement vanished. The Southern resentment at the discussion of slavery by the North was such that the legislature of Georgia offered a reward for Garrison's arrest and conviction. Because of fear of insurrections, the system of restrictions on the Negroes commonly called the **Black Code** was now revised and made more drastic.

From 1816 to 1848 States were admitted to the Union in pairs, one Southern, one Northern. Thus when Texas was admitted to the Union as a slave State in 1845 it was soon counterbalanced by Iowa (1846). By the war with Mexico the United States gained the immense areas of New Mexico and California. The South confidently expected the new territory to be divided by the 36° 30′ line. Hence, when, in 1846, the measure known as the **Wilmot Proviso** passed the House stipulating that in the new territory to be acquired from Mexico "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory, except for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted — " there was an uproar.

The question was solved by the accidental **discovery of gold in California** in 1848. Within two years more than 80,000 emigrants entered the country. Most of these **"Forty-Niners"** were Northern or Southern men who with their own hands labored for gold and had no intention of competing with slaves. In November, 1849, a convention was held under the advice of President Taylor which drew up a State constitution prohibiting slavery and applied for admission to the Union as a free State. No force in Congress could resist this action of the Californians.

For a time the opposition to slavery conducted by the Abolitionists was mainly outside the political parties. In the election of 1840 the growing sentiment of the North began to take the form of votes. The agitation over the Wilmot Proviso led to the formation of the **Liberty party** (1840). Its successor, the **Free-soil party,** in 1848 nominated Van Buren for president and cast nearly 300,000 votes, out of about 3,000,000.

The successful candidate in 1848 was General Zachary Taylor, a Whig from Louisiana, owner of slaves and father-in-law of Jefferson Davis. Taylor became convinced that the aggression was from the South. He planned to hasten the admission of California and New Mexico as either free or slave States as the people of each territory might determine.

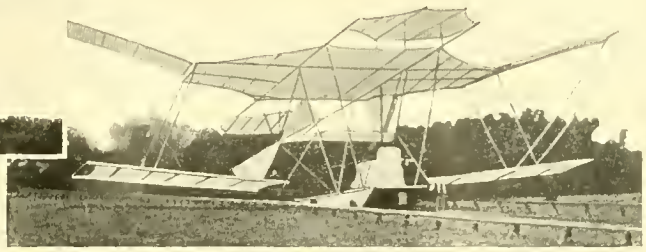
In the meantime Henry Clay was called from his retirement to attempt, as he had done in 1820, to settle the matter by compromise. Taylor died in July, 1850, and the scheme put forward by Clay and supported by Webster was adopted. By this **Compromise of 1850** California was admitted as a free State extending from Mexico to Oregon; New Mexico and Utah were organized as territories without the Wilmot Proviso, but with a dubious promise that the "rights of property" were to be decided by the Supreme Court. Utah was plainly destined to become a free State, but it was hoped that slaves could be introduced into New Mexico. The South also gained a new fugitive slave law, which was to be enforced by Federal commissioners.

This compromise was a makeshift. It could not control the sentiments of the people, and the attempt to enforce the law in Boston caused indignation and disorder. Popular feeling was still more aroused by the publication of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* by Harriet Beecher Stowe in 1852. Although its picture of slavery was not the average, its description of known and probable horrors gave it unprecedented success, more than 300,000 copies being sold in a single year. It exercised an influence in politics beyond that of any other book ever written in America.

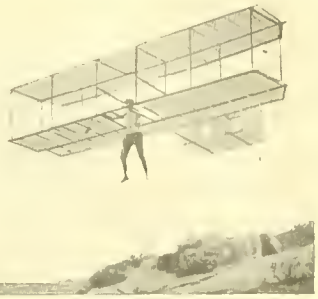
In 1854 Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois introduced into the Senate the **Kansas-Nebraska Bill,** which provided for the organization of the Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 30′ and west of Missouri and Iowa into the two territories of Kansas and Nebraska. Provision was made that the States formed

EARLY TYPES OF AIRCRAFT

OTTO LILIENTHAL'S
GLIDING MACHINE



SIR HIRAM MAXIM'S
STEAM FLYING MACHINE



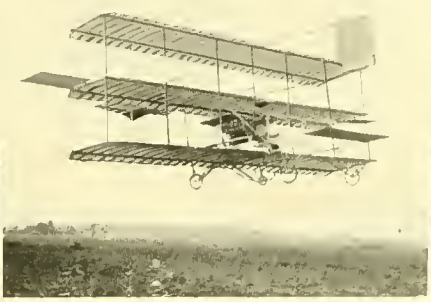
OCTAVE CHANUTE'S
GLIDING MACHINE

WRIGHT BROTHERS' AEROPLANE
MET REQUIREMENTS U S A SIGNAL CORPS
JULY 27, 1909

LOUIS BLERIOT'S MONOPLANE
FIRST AEROPLANE TO CROSS ENGLISH CHANNEL

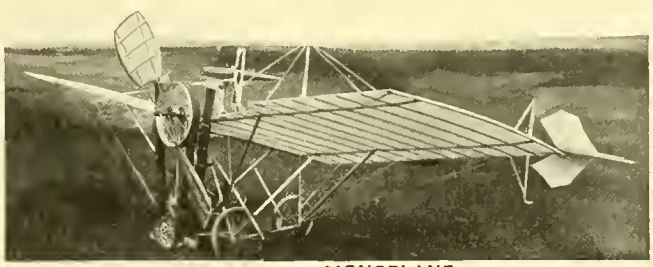
HENRY FARMAN'S AEROPLANE
WON ARCHOEACON PRIZE BY SAILING A
KILOMETER IN A CIRCLE

GLENN H. CURTISS'S AEROPLANE "JUNE BUG"
WON SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN TROPHY OF $2,500, JULY 4, 1908
DISTANCE, OVER A MILE IN A STRAIGHT LINE



MELVIN VANIMAN'S TRIPLANE

ANTOINETTE
TYPE OF MONOPLANE



ALBERTO SANTOS-DUMONT'S MONOPLANE "DEMOISELLE"
REMARKABLE FOR ITS SMALL SIZE

ALBERTO SANTOS-DUMONT'S DIRIGIBLE AIRSHIP
FIRST GAS BAG TO SUPPORT A MOTOR

DIRIGIBLE AIRSHIP
"SIGNAL CORPS DIRIGIBLE No. 1"
BUILT BY CAPT. THOMAS L. BALDWIN

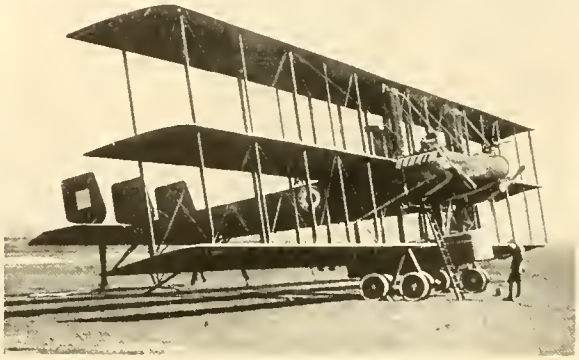
RIGID AIRSHIP "ZEPPELIN II"
BUILT BY COUNT FERDINAND VON ZEPPELIN. ON MAY 29-31, 1909,
IT TRAVELED 850 MILES IN 36 HOURS

Photos by Edwin Levick-New York-

LATER T
AIRC

SPAD (FRENCH) SINGLE-SEATER COMBAT BIPLANE 300 H P HISPANO-SUIZA MOTOR

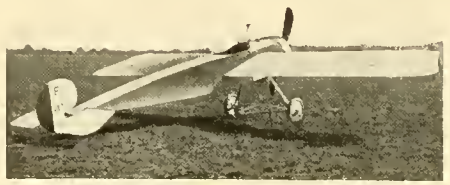
MODEL K CURTISS AMERICAN TRIPLANE
HAS MADE A SPEED OF OVER 160 MILES AN HOUR



CAPRONI (ITALIAN) TRIPLANE
MADE NONSTOP FLIGHT OF 1000 MILES

UNITED STATES NAVY GOODYEAR NON-RIGID DIRIGIBLE

SALMSON (FRENCH) TWO-SEATER BIPLANE



FOKKER (GERMAN) MONOPLANE

S. I. A. (ITALIAN) TWO-SEATER BIPLANE
EQUIPPED WITH A 700 H. P. FIAT MOTOR

RUMPLER (GERMAN) BIPLANE

STANDARD BIPLANE WITH 150 H. P. HISPANO-SUIZA MOTOR USED TO CARRY MAIL

"FRIEDRICHSHAFEN" (GERMAN) TWIN-MOTORED BIPLANE

OBSERVATION BALLOON
USED BY ARMIES TO DIRECT ARTILLERY FIRE AND BY NAVIES TO SPOT U-BOATS

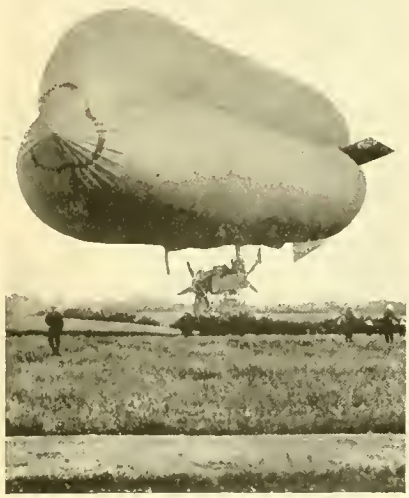
U. S. NAVY F 5 L CURTISS SEAPLANE

CURTISS "N.C.1." UNITED STATES NAVY AIR CRUISER
FIRST AMERICAN TRIMOTORED SEAPLANE. CARRIED 50 PASSENGERS FOR A FLIGHT NOV. 27, 1918

TYPES OF AIRCRAFT

"BLUE BIRD" (AMERICAN) BIPLANE BUILT BY CAPT. JAMES V. MARTIN. WING SPAN ONLY 18 FT., WT. 350 LBS.

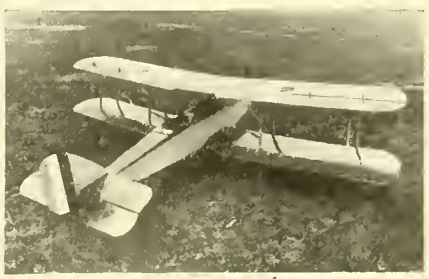
BREGUET (FRENCH) TWO-SEATER BIPLANE
EQUIPPED WITH RENAULT MOTOR



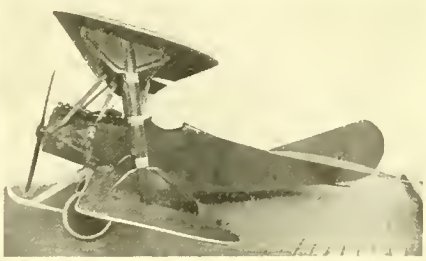
ASTRA-TORRES SEMI-RIGID DIRIGIBLE
USED BY BRITISH AND FRENCH NAVIES

NIEUPORT (FRENCH) SINGLE-SEATER BIPLANE
EQUIPPED WITH A 120 H. P. LERHONE ROTARY MOTOR

POMILIO (ITALIAN) SCOUT BIPLANE
EQUIPPED WITH 300 H. P. FIAT ENGINE

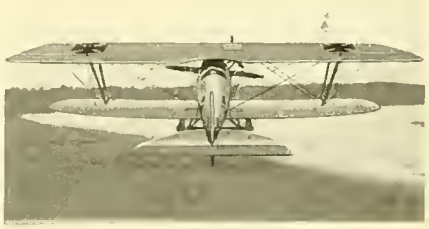


DE HAVILAND BIPLANE (AMERICAN)
DAYTON-WRIGHT TWO-SEATER 400 H. P.
12 CYLINDER LIBERTY MOTOR



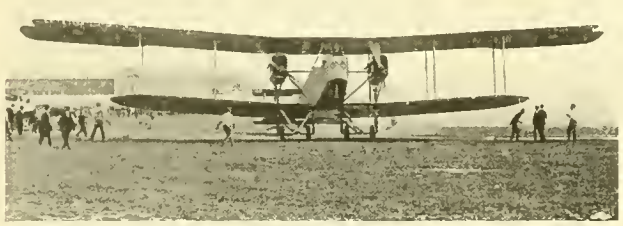
"ACE" TYPE AMERICAN BIPLANE
IN AERONAUTICS WHAT THE FORD CAR IS IN AUTOMOBILING

GERMAN A.E.G (GOTHA)
TWIN-MOTORED BIPLANE

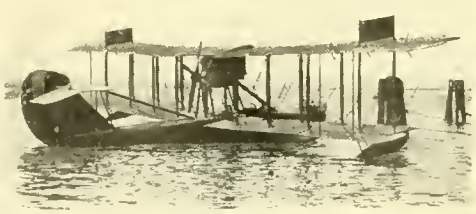


PFALZ (GERMAN) BIPLANE
WITH 160 H. P. MERCÉDÉS MOTOR

HALBERSTADT (GERMAN) BIPLANE
WITH 160 H. P. MERCEDES MOTOR



AMERICAN BUILT HANDLEY-PAGE BIPLANE TWO LIBERTY MOTORS

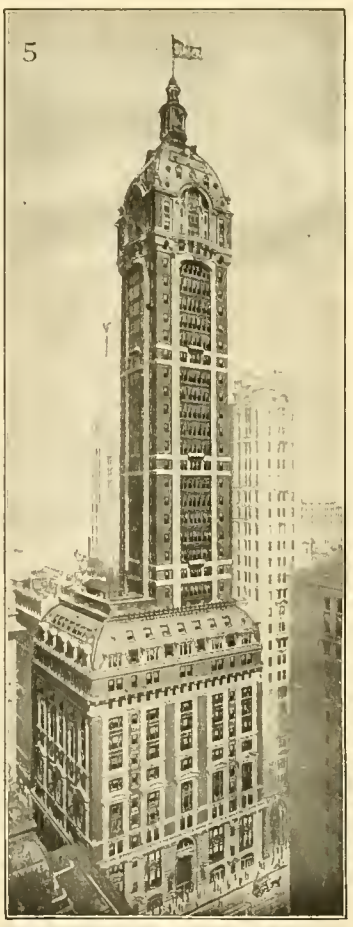


FLYING BOAT
STANDARD AMERICAN MODEL H. S. 2L

HANDLEY-PAGE AIR CRUISER (BRITISH)
FOUR ROLLS-ROYCE 360 H. P. MOTORS. WING SPAN 129 FT.

FLYING BOAT CURTISS PLEASURE TYPE
TWO-SEATER 100 H. P. CURTISS MOTOR

EXAMPLES OF HIGH BUILDINGS



1. LAND TITLE AND TRUST CO. BUILDING, Philadelphia.
2. METROPOLITAN LIFE BUILDING, New York.
3. SPRECKELS BUILDING, San Francisco
4. THIRD NATIONAL BANK BUILDING, St. Louis.
5. SINGER BUILDING, New York.
6. MASONIC TEMPLE. Chicago.

out of this territory should be free or slave " as their constitution may prescribe at the time." This was the doctrine of **Popular Sovereignty** or **Squatter Sovereignty.** It left to the people the decision as to who should first organize the State government. It was directly contrary to the spirit and principle of the Missouri Compromise on the specious argument that the Missouri Act was repealed by the " principle " of the Compromise of 1850. Immigration societies were organized in both the North and the South, and settlers were hurried to Kansas. The North was more successful, and after a period of violence and even civil war, Kansas was admitted as a free State in 1861. In 1856 the political party opposed to slavery took the name of **Republican party** and nominated Frémont, " the Pathfinder," for president. Great enthusiasm was shown, and Frémont polled only 500,000 votes less than the successful Democratic candidate, Buchanan.

In 1857 opinion in the North was still further inflamed by the decision in the **Dred Scott Case.** The Supreme Court held: (1) that a slave or the descendants of a slave could not be a citizen and, therefore, had no standing in the United States Courts; (2) that the restriction of territorial slavery by the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional; (3) that slave owners could carry their slaves and property into any territory. The Republicans were thus informed by the highest court of the land that the political principles for which their party was formed were unconstitutional and impossible of accomplishment, and that even the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which embodied Douglas's principles, was unsound.

Two years later **John Brown,** an intense anti-slavery man and agitator in Kansas, thought he saw, in the possibility of Negro insurrection, a weak spot in the system of slavery. He, therefore, with a score of followers raided the United States arsenal at Harpers Ferry and tried to bring in the slaves in the neighborhood. He was captured and hanged for treason. Although his plan involved civil war and destruction and his sentence was legally just, he was convinced that he was doing a great service to humanity. Public opinion in the North raised him to the rank of a martyr. The South was not terrified, but for the first time realized the extent to which the Abolitionists were ready to go.

In the presidential campaign of 1860 four candidates appeared. The Democratic party split and the Northern wing nominated Douglas; the Southern wing put forward Vice President Breckinridge. A remnant of the old Whigs organized the Constitutional Union party and nominated Bell and Everett on the platform of the Constitution and the Laws. The growing Republican party nominated **Abraham Lincoln.** In the election Lincoln received 930,000 popular votes fewer than his combined opponents, but his majorities and pluralities in all the free States except New Jersey gave him 180 electoral votes, and he was elected. In Congress the Republicans elected nine members less than a majority of the House.

Secession. On the news of the election of Lincoln the legislature of South Carolina summoned a convention which declared (Dec. 20, 1860) that " the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of 'The United States of America,' is hereby dissolved." Other Southern States followed. On February 8, 1861, delegates of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida — a little later joined by Texas — met in convention at Montgomery, Alabama, and established a provisional constitution for **" The Confederate States of America."** **Jefferson Davis** was chosen president and Alexander H. Stephens vice president.

President Buchanan, a State-rights man, a Democrat, and a lifelong defender of slavery, advised Congress that secession was wrong, but that the anti-slavery men had provoked it, and that the Federal government had no right to coerce a State. He took no measures to prevent secession or to maintain the Federal control of the forts, mints, and custom-houses within the Confederate States. All efforts in Congress to find a basis of compromise failed; neither secessionists nor Republicans would yield.

March 4, 1861, **Lincoln was inaugurated.** His address was conciliatory, assuring the South that slavery would not be assaulted in the slave States and that fugitive slaves ought to be restored; but he uncompromisingly asserted that the Union was perpetual and secession impossible. As to the forts and customhouses, he maintained that they must be held by the Federal authorities and that it was his duty to enforce the laws throughout the territory of the United States.

Major Anderson, the commander of **Fort Sumter** in Charleston Harbor, refused to deliver the fort to the State authorities and April 12, 1861, the Confederate forces opened fire on the fort. After a two days' bombardment it surrendered; but the North, which had refused to believe the threats of the South, was aroused and gave an enthusiastic support to the President's call for 75,000 volunteers. This outbreak precipitated political action in those parts of the South which had not yet seceded. Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee at once joined the Confederacy. Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri remained in the Union, although in Kentucky and Missouri there were armed factions.

The Civil War. It was plain that the region on the border between the two sections would be the scene of the conflict. Both the Northern and Southern armies hastened to secure the most advantageous positions, especially in the area south of Washington. Richmond had been made the capital of the Confederacy and Northern public sentiment demanded an attack upon it. A hastily gathered force marched southward from Washington and on July 21, 1861, fought the battle of **Bull Run,** called in the South the first battle of Manassas, in which the Union army was defeated and in panic retreated to Washington. This event stung the North and made clear the terrible gravity of the struggle. Lincoln issued a call for half a million men. Jefferson Davis also called for troops and both sides prepared for a bitter conflict.

The fall of 1861 was spent by both armies in perfecting their organization and disciplining their troops, and no important general action took place in the East. In the West a struggle took place in Missouri where, although the Southern troops were generally successful in the field, the State was prevented from joining the Confederacy.

April 19, 1861, Lincoln proclaimed a **blockade** of the Southern ports This was practically a recognition of formal war and at once involved the United States in complications with European powers. The long coast line of the Confederacy made the blockade difficult; but after a few months it was tightened, and many captures were made, though blockade runners continued to enter the Southern ports till the end of the war. Lincoln's action on the blockade brought the great naval powers of France and England face to face with a decision as to the nature of the struggle. May 13, 1861, Great Britain properly recognized the war as an actuality and issued a proclamation of neutrality; but then and thereafter refused to recognize the independence of the Confederacy.

Relations with Great Britain, however, were brought almost to the breaking point by the seizure of **Mason and Slidell,** the Confederate commissioners, from the British steamer *Trent* (1861). A conflict was avoided by the prompt return of Mason and Slidell and the disavowal of the capture on a technicality by Lincoln. Nevertheless, a large party in England openly or secretly favored the cause of the Confederacy and exerted such influence that the British government neglected to enforce its neutrality, and several vessels under directions of Confederate agents were built or altered to serve as commerce destroyers, and were allowed to leave British ports. The most dangerous were the *Alabama, Shenandoah,* and *Florida,* which preyed upon Union commerce. In 1872 Great Britain arbitrated the claims arising out of her negligence and paid for the damage done.

The Western campaign of 1862 was favorable to the Union. General Grant captured **Fort Henry** on the Tennessee and **Fort Donelson** on the Cumberland. Two months later **New Orleans** was captured by Admiral Farragut. While the Union forces were still divided, Grant was attacked on April 6th by General Albert S. Johnston at the terrible battle of **Pittsburg Landing** or **Shiloh.** The first day's fight was a defeat for Grant, but the Confederate general was killed and Buell's army came to the rescue just in time. Two months of cautious maneuvering on both sides followed.

In the East General **George B. McClellan** spent the spring in preparation and finally transferred his army to the peninsula between the York and James Rivers, aiming at **Richmond.** April 4, the Army of the Potomac began to move from Fortress Monroe, and for three months the campaign went on, closing with a series of engagements within sight of Richmond, in which the more brilliant successes were won by the Confederates. General Jackson, known familiarly as **" Stonewall " Jackson,** especially distinguished himself. The battle of **Malvern Hill** held the Confederates in check while McClellan withdrew to the protection of his gunboats.

In August General Lee, now in command of the Confederate forces, moved toward Washington. A terrible battle, known as the **second battle of Bull Run** or **Manassas,** was fought on August 29 and 30, in which the Union army under General Pope was severely beaten. McClellan was summoned to Washington and his forces joined with the remnants of Pope's army. Lee crossed the Potomac, but was checked at the battle of **Antietam,** called **Sharpsburg** in the South. No other decided action took place until December 13, when General Burnside, who had been appointed in McClellan's place, engaged Lee's army at **Fredericksburg** and met with great loss.

On the Atlantic coast the Union forces were in possession of important ports. During the peninsular campaign the new ironclad *Merrimac,* or *Virginia,* as the Confederates called her, entered Hampton Roads and destroyed the Union ships, *Cumberland* and *Congress;* but the next day she was attacked by the Federal ironclad, the *Monitor,* " a cheese box on a raft," designed by John Ericsson and constructed within a hundred days. This first battle between ironclads ultimately revolutionized naval warfare. The Eastern campaigns of the Union forces had been unsuccessful, but the victories of Farragut and Grant had more than compensated for these defeats.

Emancipation. Early in the war Congress, ignoring the Dred Scott decision, prohibited slavery in the District of Columbia and the territories. September 23, 1862, President Lincoln issued a preliminary proclamation which was followed on January 1, 1863, by a formal **emancipation proclamation,** freeing all slaves within the territory held by the Confederate States. This action was based upon the power of the President to conduct the war and to weaken the Southern forces by reducing slave labor. Up to this time the Republican party, or the Union party, as it was sometimes called, put in the foreground that it was fighting for the preservation of the Union; and slavery was not directly affected in the four loyal border slave States. By the **Thirteenth Amendment** to the Constitution, adopted in 1865, slavery and involuntary servitude were prohibited throughout the United States and all places subject to its jurisdiction. This was the first amendment to be added since 1804.

The Western war in 1863 turned to the advantage of the North. The battle of **Murfreesboro,** Tennessee (January 1, 1863), left the Union force in possession of the field. The great object in the West was now the opening of the Mississippi, and General Grant began a series of operations for the capture of **Vicksburg,** which surrendered on July 4, 1863, so that the Mississippi ran, as Lincoln said, " unvexed to the sea." Meanwhile, under General Hooker, the Army of the Potomac in the East suffered a great reverse at **Chancellorsville** (May 2–3, 1863); and Lee shortly after invaded Pennsylvania. Meade was placed at the head of the great Union force which confronted Lee at **Gettysburg.**

During the first three days of July was fought what is generally regarded as **the decisive battle of the war.** Lee was repulsed and fell back across the Potomac. In the West the Union army commanded by Rosecrans was badly defeated at **Chickamauga** (September 19–20). Grant was placed at the head of the Western armies and organized a powerful movement which led to the battles of **Lookout Mountain** and **Missionary Ridge** and drove the Confederate forces out of southern Tennessee.

Grant's success led to his appointment as lieutenant general and commander of all the Union forces. Leaving the Western army in command of Sherman, Grant opened the campaign in the East by attacking Lee's army in the terrible **battle of the Wilderness,** May, 1864. During the next six weeks Grant fought a series of battles which resulted in heavy losses, especially on the Union side. Lee was driven back to Petersburg, the key to Richmond, but held his lines for many months. But the Union losses could be replaced by fresh troops, while the strength of the Confederate army was permanently diminished.

In the West Sherman started a movement south from Chattancoga. He was opposed by Johnston, a general second only to Lee in ability. After three months of almost continual fighting Sherman succeeded in reaching Atlanta. On November 16 began his famous **" March to the Sea "** across Georgia, ending at Savannah, December 21. Sherman's campaign cut the Confederacy in two, besides devastating some of its most fertile territory.

February 1, Sherman started northward, while Grant, whose army had been strengthened, attacked Lee. Hoping to divert Grant, Lee dispatched Jubal Early with a body of Confederate troops through the **Shenandoah Valley** across the Potomac, and they reached the defenses of Washington, but were halted there. Grant dispatched **Sheridan** to flank Early and devastate the Shenandoah Valley.

Early in April Lee was forced to abandon his defenses, and a few days later was stopped and surrounded by Grant and Sheridan at **Appomattox** Court House. Here Lee, seeing further resistance hopeless, surrendered his whole army, April 9. A few days later Johnston surrendered to Sherman (April 26). The terms of surrender were such as had never before been granted to the defeated party at the end of a great civil war. The Confederate soldiers were required to lay down their arms and to cease from hostility. Grant generously allowed the men who had horses to retain them.

Reconstruction. At the outbreak of the war Lincoln and the Republicans generally denied that a State could secede and leave the Union. The war forced the seceding States to accept the contention of the North as a physical fact; but the emancipation of the slaves was a profound change in the social and economic conditions of the South, both in the Confederate States and the loyal slave States. The Thirteenth Amendment put both regions on an equality in this respect; but three other questions pressed for

settlement: (1) the status of the seceded States; (2) the status of the Southern whites; (3) the status of the Negroes.

Were the seceding States out of the Union? Or were they simply regular States in which insurrections had occurred and unlawful governments been founded? If they were States then the assent of 27 States was necessary for the ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment. If the States were out of the Union and had been reduced to a territorial basis, Congress might require them to ratify as a requisite for readmission.

President Lincoln held that the discussion of the question of whether the States were out of the Union or not was "bad as the basis of controversy and good for nothing at all." The States in question were "out of their practical relation with the Union" and the sole object of the government should be "to get them into that proper practical relation."

His plan for reconstruction, proposed in 1864, also took account of the personal status of participants in the Confederacy. He offered amnesty to all persons (except certain classes) who would take the oath to support the Constitution and the new state of things. Whenever one tenth of the voters in any State should organize a genuine republican form of government, the president was ready to recognize them. The two houses of Congress, however, could not be denied the privilege to act as sole judge as to whether they would admit senators and representatives from such State governments.

It was a frightful misfortune to both North and South when (April 14, 1865) **President Lincoln** was **assassinated** by the agent of a band of conspirators embittered by the failure of the South. The immediate result was to deepen a sense of the peril which still lay in the system of slavery.

The presidency went to the vice president, **Andrew Johnson.** He had been a Democrat before the war and still believed in State sovereignty, but he believed also in the Union. He was a man of great courage, with good intentions which he expressed with such violence that he alienated many who would otherwise have supported him.

President Johnson worked on the lines of Lincoln's reconstruction policy and had succeeded in most States. By the time Congress assembled (December, 1865), Johnson had ready a new group of Southern State governments which had joined in ratifying the Thirteenth Amendment, so that slavery was extinct throughout the United States.

At first the large Republican majorities in both houses were inclined to proceed in harmony with the President. But the radicals, under the leadership of Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, caused Congress to break with the President and omitted from the roll call the names of the newly elected representatives from the recognized Southern States. The Republicans held a two-thirds majority in both houses and were therefore able to override any presidential veto.

They turned their attention especially to the status of the Negroes, whom they feared the reconstructed States would keep in a condition of vassalage. These fears were strengthened by the passage of State "Vagrant Acts" which discriminated against the Negroes. To protect the Negroes Congress proposed the **Fourteenth Amendment,** which declared that "all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside." This directly reversed Taney's decision in the Dred Scott Case.

Still further to protect the freedmen the amendment included clauses forbidding any State "to abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; or to deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law." This removed the protection of the freedmen from State to Federal courts. This Fourteenth Amendment, which was based on a previous Civil Rights Act, was proposed to the States in June, 1866, but was rejected by all the Southern States except Tennessee.

Congress was ready in the spring of 1867 with a comprehensive **plan of reconstruction** passed over the President's veto. The act of 1867 divided all the late Confederate States (except Tennessee) into military districts under the command of army officers. Under their direction white and black alike (except those classes excluded by the Fourteenth Amendment) were admitted to vote for delegates to State constitutional conventions, which must frame a constitution including Negro suffrage. When this was done the voters could choose a legislature, which must ratify the Fourteenth Amendment. When this process was completed the State was to be allowed to return to the Union.

President Johnson, who had attempted by vetoes to check every step in this congressional plan for reconstruction, was distrusted by Congress lest through his power of appointment and removal he might thwart its plans. To insure success Congress passed the **Tenure of Office Act,** which made removals contingent upon the approval of the Senate. Johnson nevertheless removed Stanton, secretary of war, expecting to make a test case for the Supreme Court. For this **Johnson** was **impeached** by the House of Representatives, but after a long trial was acquitted by the Senate. His real offense was in obstinately differing with the party in power.

The Fourteenth Amendment went into force in July, 1868. General Grant, the Republican candidate for the presidency, was elected on a platform approving the congressional policy of reconstruction. In 1869 the **Fifteenth Amendment** was proposed, which declared that "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The ratification of this amendment, as well as the Fourteenth, was made a condition for the readmission of Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, and Georgia. Although the Fifteenth Amendment was declared in force March, 1870, it was not until 1871 that the last of the Confederate States was restored to its full rights.

The congressional policy of reconstruction expected Republican supremacy in the South through the Negro vote, which became the prey of unscrupulous leaders and some of the governments there organized fell into extravagance and corruption. State debts rapidly increased and State credit declined. The Southern whites, although reluctantly accepting the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, resolved that the Negroes should not control. They organized a secret political organization throughout the South, called **Ku-Klux Klan,** to terrorize the blacks, and speedily regained control of most of the State governments. This disturbance continued throughout the administration of President Grant.

The election of 1876 was in doubt for more than four months. The unquestioned electoral votes stood 184 for **Tilden,** Democratic candidate, and 166 for **Hayes,** Republican. The 18 votes of Louisiana, Florida, and South Carolina and one vote in Oregon were disputed. No method of terminating the dispute was provided by the Constitution and Congress finally created an **Electoral Commission** which declared, by a majority of 8 to 7 on all critical questions, that Hayes was elected.

President Hayes withdrew the troops from the South (April, 1877); henceforth the freedmen were left to their own resources and to the courts to obtain their civil and political rights.

Congress, which was now Democratic, attempted to repeal the various laws which protected the Negroes in their right to vote. In this attempt they were partially successful, but the last of the **Force Laws** were not repealed until 1890. A new method of assuring white supremacy was now proposed. Complicated voting systems and registration and poll taxes disposed of most of the Negro vote.

In seven States other steps were taken to assure the control of the whites. The first was the Mississippi Constitution of 1890, ordained and established without reference to the voters for ratification, which set up alternative conditions for voting, one of which was that the voter should be able to read or understand any section of the Constitution. Provisions of this sort when applied by white registration officers effectually disfranchised most Negroes. Since an educational qualification might be enforced upon the whites, Louisiana, in 1896, adopted a **"Grandfather Clause"** whereby a person who voted in 1867 or before, or the son or grandson of such a person, might vote. The Supreme Court held in 1915 that a similar clause in the Oklahoma constitution was unconstitutional, but throughout the Southern States the whites remain in political control.

The Economic Revolution. Long before the Civil War steam and machinery transformed large portions of the North into manufacturing regions, and the creed of protection was made a political issue for the benefit of these industries. In the fifty years following the Civil War the **advance in industry** and commerce was **tremendous.** In 1905 over twelve billion dollars was invested in factories; and the total value of the manufactured products was more than fourteen billion dollars — fifteen times the amount turned out in 1860. As late as 1882 hundreds of thousands of tons of steel rails were imported annually into the United States, but ten years later more than fifteen thousand tons were annually exported.

Railway construction advanced even more rapidly than the growth of the population and the increase in manufacturing. In the decade between 1860 and 1870 the mileage of railroads increased by more than two thirds. In the next two decades it increased fivefold; and in 1910 there were 242,000 miles of railroad, more than eight times the mileage of 1860. The early railroads were constructed on the important lines of transit; but they soon were pushed into the West, where there were no large cities.

This rapid expansion was not due solely to private enterprise, but was aided and stimulated by lavish grants of public land by the Federal government and by grants of money, credit, and land by State and local governments. This expansion included fraud and corruption, in which some public officials were involved. The building of these roads was often a great speculation, and fortunes were made; but in many instances the small investors were wiped out.

After the period of construction there followed a **period of combination.** Beginning in 1869 with the union of the Hudson River and New York Central lines, great systems were brought together in both the East and West. This was also an **era of inventions** which revolutionized transportation and industry. For example, air brakes, Pullman cars, and railway signals were introduced; Bell's telephone was put in operation in 1875, arc lights in 1879, incandescent lights in 1882; and electric street railways were in successful operation in 1885.

Social Transformation. This economic revolution brought about a transformation in society, which included several significant elements. The first was industrial capital which, as contrasted with agriculture, increased enormously in amount and in political power. The second was a new **distribution of the population.** The majority were no longer found on farms, but were wage workers. The **drift to the cities** checked the normal growth of the rural regions. In 1890, 31.6% of the population lived in towns of over 2,500; in 1900, 40.5%; in 1910, 46.3%; in 1920, over one half. In the forty years after the Civil War, New York tripled in population, San Francisco increased more than sixfold, Chicago more than tenfold.

Another altering force was the effect of demand for labor in stimulating **immigration.** In 1870 387,000 immigrants arrived in the United States; in 1880, 457,000; in 1882, 788,000; while in the three years between 1905 and 1907 more than a million came each year. In all more than 33,000,000 immigrants came to the United States between 1820 and 1920. Great Britain and Ireland furnished more than any single country, 8,000,000 in all; Germany came next with more than 5,000,000, and the Scandinavian immigration added 2,000,000.

About 1900, Russia, Italy, and the southern European countries began to send large numbers; and in all more than 3,000,000 have come from the countries under the control of the former Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, 3,000,000 from Russia, and 3,000,000 from Italy. On the Western coast about 200,000 have come from Japan and 288,000 Chinese arrived before the Exclusion Act of 1883.

The industrial revolution and foreign immigration acted together to force large numbers of people into a **proletariat,** a large population living in tenements and rented houses, suffering poverty and degradation. The employment of women and children in factories on the one hand, the **organization of the working class** into trade-unions and other groups on the other, led to demands for legislation to mitigate the evils. At length the opposition to the labor system reached the form of an attack on the industrial system itself.

As a result of this social and economic revolution the industrial class became a political factor. Trade-unions, which came into existence about 1800, were organized in many lines of industry and included millions of members. The **Labor Reform party** appeared in 1872, and a few years later the **Knights of Labor** attempted a consolidation of all trades and classes of workers, and demanded an eight-hour day and other reforms. In 1877 the **first great railroad strike** occurred, and Pittsburgh for a time fell almost completely into the hands of the strikers. From this time on strikes, often accompanied by violence, were a regular part of the struggles between the employer and the employee.

The most significant result of the industrial transformation was the rise of **enormous combinations** in transportation and industry. The largest and most profitable lines of business were passing from individual to corporate ownership. The next step was to combine the corporations into still larger units, commonly called **trusts,** which possessed greater resources and exercised greater influence.

In 1882 the Standard Oil Trust was organized, and the stocks of several competing corporations were placed in the hands of trustees, who managed the properties as a whole and distributed the profits *pro rata.* This method proved attractive and was followed by similar organizations in cotton, oil, linseed oil, lead, sugar, whisky, and cordage. Where the trust method was not followed, vast new corporations were formed which purchased the securities of other corporations and thus controlled their properties and managed the industry as a whole. By this method enormous amounts of securities were issued, oftentimes upon purely fictitious values, which encouraged speculation of the wildest sort.

Moreover, in the necessity for paying dividends upon these securities the corporations attempted to crush competition and to control, if not to increase, prices. Special privileges were demanded from legislatures, and corporations were in a position to exercise political influence. Attempts were made on the part of the States to regulate and control the trusts, but with little success.

Development of the West. In 1876 the Far Western States, Oregon, California, and Nevada, were separated from the States of the Middle West by a broad wedge of territories: Washington, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, Dakota, and the Indian Territory. In 1870 the combined population of these territories was under half a million. This region was devoted almost entirely to cattle raising, but the small farmers were beginning to take up government land and to fence off the more fertile fields and watercourses. The building of the great transcontinental railroads opened up this region to settlement, and the territories developed more rapidly than the older States had done. From 1889 to 1896, seven new States were formed from this area.

The Economic Development of the South. The emancipation of the slaves and the devastation wrought by the Civil War made it necessary to reconstruct the industry of the South. The few remaining old plantations of large size were mostly subdivided. In 1860, the average holding of land in the Southern States had been 335 acres; in 1880 it was 153, and in 1900 it had fallen to 138. The fluid capital of 1860 was invested in Confederate securities, which became worthless; and the demand for new capital could only be satisfied by large amounts from the North. Railroads were rebuilt, cities extended, and cotton factories, blast furnaces, and iron and steel works set up. For the first time the South became an industrial region.

In 1860, there were but 300,000 cotton spindles in that section; in 1900 there were 4,000,000, while the number of employees had increased tenfold and the value of the output nearly twelvefold. In West Virginia and Alabama coal and iron and steel industries developed so rapidly that Alabama, which had stood tenth among the pig-iron producing States in 1880, ranked third in 1890. The social effects of the industrial change were significant: political leaders began to be drawn from industry and business as well as from agriculture. This rapid industrial growth and mutual coöperation in business and investments did much to heal the breach between the North and South and to unite the country.

Changes in Politics and Law. This economic and industrial development in both sections brought in a **new type of public official.** Statesmen like Clay, Webster, and Calhoun were succeeded by men of the type of Conkling, Platt, Gorman, Quay, and Blaine. Congress was more and more composed of practical men who either had organized or had assisted in the organization of great railways and industries and other enterprises which controlled natural resources and franchises. They were convinced that the prosperity of the country depended upon the development of these industries and resources. They demanded the widest possible extension of the rights of private property and the narrowest restriction of the State. They believed that the natural resources of the country should be transferred to private ownership, and that intangible assets like franchises should be transformed into private property. They supported their theory of property by a theory of law and politics, which, while protecting property against disorder and furnishing public aid for private enterprises, regarded State interference with this property as an evil to be resisted.

Judicial Review under the Fourteenth Amendment. For many years the only attempts to control or regulate the industrial and economic system were made by the States. Some years after the Fourteenth Amendment was passed, efforts were made to apply its terms to restrict the actions of the States. The words "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws" were supposedly framed to protect the Negroes against injustice by the States. The amendment certainly transferred a great area of power to the Federal government.

Hence, property owners appealed to it to protect their interests. Thus, the word "person" was held to include artificial persons, such as corporations, which, therefore, could not be deprived of property without due process of law. Due process of law gradually came to mean that the Supreme Court of the United States would make it a practice to review State legislation and to test its reasonableness. A serious question was that of rates charged by public-service corporations. The courts held that rates which were so low as to make any return impossible were confiscatory and thus against due process of law; then, that rates which deprived the owners of a "customary" return were likewise deprivations of property. Gradually it became a settled doctrine that all State legislation affecting private property was subject to judicial review, and that private property should be free from all interference, except such as might be allowed by the Supreme Court of the United States. This was in reality a novel doctrine; but the alternative was the regulation of property and business rights by forty-eight different State legislatures, which would have led to industrial and economic anarchy.

The power of judicial review has been applied not only to property, but also to social and remedial legislation. Thus, the Supreme Court has asserted its right to review and occasionally to reverse the decision of the State courts and State legislatures upon the limitations of hours of labor and other laws attempting to alter or remedy social and industrial conditions.

Parties and Party Issues from 1877 to 1896. From 1861 to 1889 was an era of Republican control. During it the Democrats held the presidency for only four years out of twenty-eight. The **Republican party**, originally a minority party of protest, was transformed by the Civil War into the majority party, which felt sure that on its success depended the preservation of the Union and the salvation of society. The high tariff required by the financial necessities of the Civil War was gradually raised to a party doctrine and was supported by the influence and campaign subscriptions of the corporations affected. The skillful and honest management by Republican officials of the national debt caused by the war attracted financiers; and the farmers of the West owed their homes to the generous public-land policy of the Republicans.

The **Democratic party** for a time seemed discredited by the Civil War, but its principles had such vitality that it succeeded in gaining a majority in the House of Representatives in 1874, and it almost gained the presidency in 1876. The administration of Hayes was colorless, and he was hampered by a Democratic House of Representatives. In 1880 a section of the Republicans vainly tried to nominate General Grant for a third term, to revive their waning popularity. The next Republican president, James A. Garfield, of Ohio, received a popular vote only 7,000 greater than that of his Democratic rival, General Hancock. After Garfield's death by assassination in 1881, he was succeeded (September, 1881) by the vice president, Chester A. Arthur, who administered the office with dignity and ability, but could not make headway against the rising distrust toward the Republican party.

In 1884 the Republicans nominated James G. Blaine, of Maine, a man of ability who had had a brilliant career in the House of Representatives and was possessed of a magnetic personality. Unfortunately, he had used his political power for the private ends of some of his friends. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland, governor of New York. Many reform Republicans, commonly called "mugwumps," refused to support Blaine and went over to the Democratic candidate. Cleveland was elected, though the shifting of a thousand votes in New York would have given the victory to the Republicans.

Cleveland's first two years were negative rather than positive. He used the veto more freely than any other American president, chiefly to check private pension bills. He succeeded in recovering more than 80,000,000 acres of public land from illegal claimants. He was the first to treat the labor problem in a special message. The most significant statute passed in his administration, the **Interstate Commerce Law** of 1887, was not a partisan measure. Throughout his administration he was hampered by a Republican Senate and by the divisions within his own party in the House of Representatives.

Cleveland became satisfied that the tariff was dangerous to the country, and in 1887 he made it an issue on which he hoped to unite his own party and defeat the Republicans in the campaign of 1888. The Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison, whose campaign was managed by a political boss and by a capitalist who raised a large sum from the interests protected by the tariff. Harrison was elected by an electoral plurality of 65, although Cleveland polled a greater popular vote; and the Republicans succeeded in gaining control of both houses of Congress.

Their narrow majority in the House of Representatives caused Speaker Reed to "count a quorum," a practice thereafter embodied in the rules. Thus organized, the Republicans at once prepared a bill called the **McKinley Tariff**, after the man who had charge of it. The tariff of 1890, based upon the theory of high protection, was the Republican answer to Cleveland's demand for tariff reform. In the same year, in response to the outcry against the big corporations and trusts the **Sherman Antitrust Law** was passed. An attempt was made to hold the Western States and the silver wing of the party by the passage of the Sherman Act, which provided for the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver each month, to be paid for in notes redeemable in silver or gold at the option of the government.

In the campaign of 1892 both parties renominated the candidates of 1888, but Harrison was decisively defeated. For the first time since 1872, a third party polled a significant vote — 1,000,000 votes cast for the Populist candidate, Weaver.

Cleveland's second administration began in 1893 with what appeared to be an era of prosperity; but beneath the surface were serious financial and industrial difficulties. The revenues were declining and the government was facing a deficit at a time when there was a stringency in the gold market. The **gold reserve,** which the government maintained to redeem United States notes, diminished rapidly. Finally, on October 30, 1893, the Sherman silver law was repealed and some relief obtained.

The industrial condition of the country was also bad. Never before had the evil of unemployment been so widespread in the United States; and **Coxey's Army** of the unemployed, which planned to march to Washington as a protest, was felt to be a dangerous symptom. Reduction in wages produced strikes, chief of which was the **Pullman strike** of 1894 at Chicago, which for a time paralyzed the railroads and led to the interference of Federal troops against the protest of Governor Altgeld of Illinois. In this strike the Federal courts granted an **injunction** against the president of the union, Eugene V. Debs, who went to prison for persisting in the direction of the strike contrary to the commands of the court.

The most important piece of legislation was the **Wilson Tariff** of 1894, including an **income tax** designed to make up for loss of revenue by a reduced tariff, a provision which in 1895 was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. The tariff bill was so altered in the Senate that President Cleveland refused to sign it, but allowed it to become a law without his signature.

Minor Parties. While the two great parties attempted to concentrate public attention upon the tariff other issues, especially social and economic problems, were constantly being discussed and reforms urged. Since these questions were ignored by the old parties, minor parties took them up, beginning in the Reconstruction period.

The Greenback Party. During the Civil War there were issued about $450,000,000 in United States notes, popularly known as greenbacks. Beginning in 1866, an attempt was made to redeem these, but this was checked by Congress within a year. The arguments in opposition to the retirement of the greenbacks were those which have always been used for the expansion of the currency: to reduce the circulating medium would increase the value of coin and cause prices to fall. To pay all the greenbacks a bonded debt must be substituted, thus increasing the interest charges, and causing increased taxation. The debtor class would suffer, while the holders of bonds or other obligations paying a fixed income would receive relatively much more.

In 1876 a **National Greenback convention** was held and **Peter Cooper,** of New York, was nominated for president. The Greenbackers differed from the old parties, not only on monetary questions, but also on social and economic legislation. Thus, in 1880, when their candidate received over 300,000 votes, they advocated labor legislation of an advanced type, Chinese exclusion, and the regulation of interstate commerce for the benefit of the shipper. This party ceased to exist after 1884, but the discontented elements which went to make it up were absorbed by the newly formed **People's party.**

The 16-to-1 Silver Men held ideas similar to the Greenbackers'. In 1792 gold and silver were coined at the ratio of 15 to 1; this proved too low for gold, which was driven out of circulation. In 1834 the **ratio** was established at **16 to 1,** which proved an overvaluation for gold, so that little silver was offered for coinage. In 1873, when silver had practically ceased to circulate, silver was demonetized and the **gold dollar** made the basis of the monetary system. Meantime, the production of silver increased immensely, while its use in coinage was discontinued. The result was that the **price of silver declined** and the silver-mine owners demanded that a government which protected manufactures should give them aid by resuming the coinage of silver. These demands were reënforced by those of the debtor class, who demanded cheap and abundant money with which to pay their debts. The West was in debt to the East and believed that the gold standard worked against them and for the banker.

Both the Republicans and Democrats were divided on this issue. In 1878 the **Bland-Allison Act** provided that the secretary of the treasury should buy not less than two million dollars' worth of silver each month, to be coined into silver dollars. This was altered by the **Sherman Act** of 1890, which required the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver a month. Silver was overproduced and steadily fell in price — gold went almost out of circulation, and it was with great difficulty that Cleveland accomplished the repeal of this act (1893) which threatened to empty the treasury.

Labor Parties. The organization of labor began as early as 1865. In 1870 labor reform parties nominated candidates for governor in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. In 1872 a candidate for the presidency was nominated by a national convention. These attempts to utilize the political influence of

labor failed and the labor reformers were absorbed by the Greenback party.

The Socialist Labor party was organized in 1892, but has never received a large number of votes, the maximum being 39,000 in 1900. It was the most radical of all parties and because of its very radicalism has failed to unite the working class.

The Socialist party, which first nominated candidates in 1900, is less radical than the Socialist Labor party and has attracted far wider support. In 1900 it received 87,000 votes; in 1908, 420,000; in 1912, 900,000. It has succeeded also in electing occasional representatives to Congress, but has had no appreciable effect in presidential campaigns, since it draws its strength from both of the great parties.

The Populists. In the sixties was organized a secret society called the "Patrons of Husbandry," commonly known as the "Grangers," which attempted to improve the conditions of the farmers. Of itself it accomplished much in the way of State railway legislation, but on national issues it united with the Greenbackers. The first national focus of agrarian discontent was the **People's, or Populist, party,** which was the combination of the National Farmers' Alliance, the Industrial Union, organized in Texas in 1875, and the National Farmers' Alliance of Illinois, organized in 1880.

The aggregation grew very rapidly and in 1890 claimed a membership of over three million. The People's convention of 1892 put forward the most radical platform ever adopted by any American party. Among the planks were free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1; additional United States notes until the circulating medium should amount to $50 per capita; and a graduated income tax to compel holders of wealth to contribute their proportional share to the expenses of the government. In the campaign of 1892 they cast a million votes and chose twenty-two electors, and the party was represented in Congress by three senators and eleven representatives.

The Campaign of 1896. Gradually these irregular movements came together for the campaign of 1896. During his second administration, President Cleveland failed to hold the confidence of his party and was bitterly attacked by the radical wing. In the Democratic convention of 1896, this wing gained control and adopted a platform favoring the free and unrestricted coinage of silver, denouncing the tariff, and attacking the Supreme Court for its decision on the income tax case and the lower Federal courts for the use of injunctions in labor disputes. This platform was enthusiastically supported by **William Jennings Bryan,** of Nebraska, in his famous **"Cross of Gold"** speech which won for him the nomination of the party. The Populist party also nominated Bryan.

The Republican convention was controlled by the conservatives and, although nearly a hundred delegates who favored the free coinage of silver seceded, a platform favoring the maintenance of the gold standard was adopted. The Republicans hoped to focus the attention of the campaign upon the tariff, but the radical nature of the Democratic platform and its frank appeal to class prejudice, divided the parties sharply along class lines. The **gold standard** was made the most **prominent issue.** The Republican campaign was ably managed by Marcus A. Hanna, who introduced into the political campaign the efficiency he had shown in business. The Republican candidate, **McKinley,** was elected by a popular majority of less than 500,000 over the Democrats and all other parties. For Congress, the Republicans elected a safe, but by no means united, majority. Although the conservatives triumphed, the large popular vote which the Populist and Democratic candidates secured showed that new issues were entering into political life; but the solution of these questions was postponed by the Spanish American War and the resulting imperialism.

United States as a World Power. The Civil War altered the international position of the United States. It showed that the military and naval resources of the nation were so great that no other state was likely to challenge it. It left several diplomatic controversies with Great Britain. The long dispute over the northwestern boundary was finally settled by the award of the emperor of Germany in 1872. More important was the question of Great Britain's liability for the damage done to American commerce by the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers built or altered in Great Britain and allowed to use the colonial ports. Finally, by the **Treaty of Washington** (1871) Great Britain practically admitted her responsibility; these claims were referred to an arbitration commission which met at Geneva, and in 1872 awarded the United States $15,500,000.

With France the United States became involved because of the attempt of Napoleon III. to defy the Monroe Doctrine and to establish an empire in Mexico, under Maximilian. At the close of the war, France listened to the warning of the United States and withdrew her support, and the short-lived Mexican Empire fell. Again in 1895 affairs with Great Britain were strained by President Cleveland's assertion that the Monroe Doctrine was international law for the world, and applied to a boundary dispute in Venezuela. Great Britain was at last aroused to the necessity of an understanding with the United States for the safety of the empire. Arbitration was accepted, but far beyond this peaceful adjustment was the changed tone of British statesmen and people toward the United States.

In 1895 the **Cubans revolted** against the oppression of the Spanish governors; this rising interfered with the business between the United States and Cuba and also forced our government to take stringent measures to maintain neutrality. The Spaniards were unable to suppress the revolt, and adopted cruel measures in dealing with the revolutionists, who in their turn depended on guerrilla warfare and destruction and could not win sufficient success to warrant recognition even as belligerents. In 1898 the American battleship, *Maine,* was destroyed in the harbor of Havana, by what agency was never revealed; and the demand for intervention became irresistible. April 19, 1898, Congress adopted a resolution recognizing the **independence of Cuba,** demanding the immediate withdrawal of Spain from the island, and authorizing the president to use the military and naval forces to carry out the resolution. On April 25 Congress declared that war had existed since April 21, the day on which the American ambassador was dismissed from the Spanish Court.

The war was brief, and resulted in an overwhelming victory for the United States. On May 1 Commodore Dewey attacked and destroyed the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. May 25, the American fleet blockaded Santiago and on June 10 the **invasion of Cuba was begun** at Guantánamo Bay near Santiago. July 1–2, the outer defenses of Santiago were captured by the American fleet and the next day Admiral **Cervera's fleet was destroyed** by the American fleet under command of Admiral **Sampson.** The only military officer who attracted public attention was Theodore Roosevelt, who served as colonel of a cavalry regiment popularly called the **Rough Riders.** Santiago surrendered July 17, and General Miles began the easy conquest of **Porto Rico;** while on August 13 the city of **Manila** surrendered to General **Merritt** and Admiral **Dewey.**

The taking of Manila occurred the day after a protocol was signed at Washington suspending hostilities, and on December 10, 1898, the **Treaty of Paris** was signed. By this treaty Spain relinquished all sovereignty over Cuba, and ceded to the United States Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands, while the United States agreed to pay to Spain $20,000,000.

As a result of the war with Spain the United States assumed a new position in international affairs. It was in possession of Asiatic territory, the Philippines. It had become sponsor for the independence of Cuba, and for law and order in that island, thereby establishing a protectorate. Even more important, the United States by intervention departed from the traditional policy of isolation and was soon involved in European affairs. February 4, 1899, the Filipinos attacked the American forces at Manila and began an annoying guerrilla warfare which lasted until 1902.

The Panama Canal. During the war with Spain the spectacular voyage of the *Oregon* from California around South America to Cuba showed the inconvenience and danger of having the American fleet separated by the continent. Demands were made that the isthmus should be cut by a canal which the United States should control. The **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty** of 1850 with Great Britain prevented this, for it recognized the equal interests of the United States and Great Britain in the construction, use, and neutrality of any canal on any route. During the eighties there were frequent diplomatic negotiations with Great Britain, looking to the extension of the privileges of the United States in that region, but nothing was accomplished.

In 1901, however, the **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** annulled the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty and allowed the United States to construct and control the canal. The United States of Colombia, of which Panama was a province, refused to ratify a satisfactory agreement, and **Panama** revolted in 1903 and established a **republic.** This republic was recognized by President Roosevelt, and a treaty was negotiated by which the United States is given full sovereignty over a strip of land ten miles wide.

In the Orient, the influence of the United States was lent to the preservation of the integrity of the Chinese Empire, and Secretary Hay in notes sent to London, Berlin, and Saint Petersburg urged that the **"open-door"** policy be accepted, by which no foreign power should gain exclusive rights in the empire. The dangerous condition of China was emphasized by the **Boxers** in 1900, when the European powers, Japan, and the United States were obliged to send troops in order to protect their legations. The most serious danger, however, was experienced in the **Russo-Japanese War** (1904–05), which was brought to a close through the mediation of President Roosevelt. Japan retained control of Korea and the Russian fortress of Port Arthur.

With **Latin America** the United States had assumed new relations. The Monroe Doctrine as interpreted by the United States prevented European nations from interfering in the affairs of the South American republics. As interpreted by President Roosevelt, it made the United States the sponsor for their good behavior, and in three instances — Santo Domingo, Nicaragua, and Haiti — protectorates were established in order to preserve order and compel the states to make reparation. In the cases of Cuba and Panama the United States felt that their interests were so closely bound up with those of the United States that it was justified in assuming virtual control. Pan-American conferences have been held, the last in 1915, in order to cement the relations between the Western republics and to remove causes of misunderstanding.

With **Mexico,** relations have been strained almost to the point of war. In 1910 Porfirio Diaz was inaugurated president for the seventh consecutive term, but was compelled by a rising tide of revolution to resign, and Madero was elected president. He was deposed and murdered by General Huerta, whose administration the United States refused to recognize. In 1914 American forces landed and took possession of Vera Cruz, and Huerta resigned. The United States finally lent its influence to the party of Carranza, who succeeded in establishing a government, which, however, was unable to maintain peace in the face of the rebellion of Villa. In 1916 the United States dispatched a punitive expedition into Mexico, and war seemed likely, but although affairs remained in an unsatisfactory state, the United States allowed the Mexicans to attempt to solve their own problems.

Prosperity and Discontent. The period from 1896 to 1912 differs remarkably from other periods of the political and economic life of the country in two respects. First, large economic interests, or "big business," very frankly attempted to control the government. Second, this attempt was met by countermoves to control business, first by the ordinary constitutional legislative method, and finally by the attempt to make radical changes in the system of government.

From 1896 to 1907 the country was very prosperous. In 1897 the Republicans used their majority to pass the **Dingley Tariff,** which aimed not merely at a large revenue for the government, but was a return to the McKinley policy of stimulating manufactures and raised the duties still higher. Foreign trade rapidly expanded, while manufacturing and business more than kept pace. The destruction caused by the Spanish War created a demand for new commodities and fresh capital, but the real underlying reason for expansion lay in the fact that the country was in an era of rapid expansion of business.

The most characteristic feature was the continued organization of **trusts.** New combinations of railroads were also made, and in the attempt to pay dividends on the inflated capital and watered stock, rates for transportation were increased. Business, moreover, meddled in politics, not merely for the general good, but for special privileges, which were sometimes gained by the use of corrupt means. Thus, in spite of the superficial prosperity the country was enjoying, there were warnings of trouble and symptoms of public discontent with its methods.

The demand for the **regulation of the railroads,** begun in the Granger movement espoused by the Greenbackers, was partially solved by the passage of the **Interstate Commerce Law** of 1887. This law forbade rebates and special favors and created a commission to carry out the statute, but its supposed power to regulate rates was denied by the Supreme Court.

Prohibition of monopolies was attempted by the **Antitrust Law** of 1890, which declared illegal every combination in the restraint of foreign or interstate commerce. Little conscientious effort was made to enforce either law until the second Roosevelt administration. The Interstate Commerce Law was amended by the Hepburn Act of 1906 which specifically gave the commission the power to prescribe reasonable rates for railroads and interstate carriers which were declared to include telegraph and telephone companies, pipe lines, express and sleeping-car companies, bridges, ferries, and railway terminals. During Roosevelt's administration, moreover, several prosecutions of large corporations were initiated under the Antitrust Law, especially the Northern Securities Case of 1904. These attempts, however, failed to satisfy the demands of constantly increasing elements in both parties for more radical regulation.

The election of 1900 triumphantly returned to power the Republicans under McKinley and seemed to have ended the possibility of serious threats from the radicals who composed the Populist party. In both parties the conservative elements were in control and showed little sympathy with the demands made either by the radicals or the liberal elements. The assassination of President McKinley and the

accession of President Roosevelt in 1901 made little difference for a time in the power or policy of the organization of the party. The fact that President Roosevelt was able in some measure to obtain legislation and to initiate policies looking toward more stringent government control failed to satisfy the discontented elements.

Since neither of the great parties would adopt a thoroughgoing policy of governmental control, and since the radicals had learned from bitter experience the futility of dependence upon State legislation, they proposed schemes to shake the control of the party organization and to give the people a more direct participation in the affairs of the government. These measures grouped themselves around the **initiative, referendum,** and **recall;** but they also include movements for **direct primaries** in place of nominating conventions, the subjection of party organizations to law, and the limitation of the use of money in political campaigns.

Most radical of all was an attack upon the **power of the courts to declare statutes unconstitutional.** This arose from the feeling that the courts in the exercise of their power of judicial review were more ready to protect property and private interests than to allow the State legislatures to pass such regulatory and remedial legislation as they felt necessary, especially in labor cases. To subject the courts to popular control, the device of the **recall of judges** or the recall of judicial decisions was proposed, and the former was adopted by several States. Most of these movements originated in the West, but they spread eastward so rapidly that conservative politicians were thoroughly alarmed.

President Roosevelt's administrations (1901–1909) postponed the conflict. His personal popularity was so great and many of his policies so satisfactory to the liberals that no open division appeared in the Republican party, which easily elected Mr. Roosevelt's candidate, William Howard Taft (November, 1908). The administration of President Taft failed to satisfy the discontented elements. The question of the revision of the tariff, which Roosevelt had avoided, was met by the **Payne-Aldrich Bill** of 1909, but the duties were not substantially lowered. During this administration many antitrust prosecutions were successfully concluded, and the Standard Oil Trust and the American Tobacco Trust were dissolved. Many wise and liberal laws were passed, but the Republican party was still divided.

In 1910 discontent in the Republican ranks was reflected by the cutting down of the power of Speaker Cannon, a "standpatter." **The Progressives,** as the more radical element was called, demanded a solution of the economic and social questions which was unacceptable to the leaders of the party. President Taft himself, although liberal as regards particular measures, was resolntely opposed to any changes in the constitutional or legal framework of the government which would result in a more democratic control. The second Congress of his administration (elected 1910) was Democratic, thus showing the trend of popular discontent.

The presidential campaign of 1912 was interesting in many respects. Direct primaries were tried for the first time in many States, thus allowing the voters the opportunity to express their preference directly in the choice of delegates; and such delegates were generally pledged to a particular candidate. Mr. Roosevelt, who felt that the Republican party had abandoned his policy and was pursuing a course which would lead to disaster, contested the nomination with President Taft. Roosevelt obtained the majority of the delegates chosen by the primaries, but Taft was strong in States where the delegates were chosen by conventions. After a bitter struggle, in which nearly all the contests were settled in favor of Taft delegates, the Republican national convention nominated Taft. Roosevelt and his supporters therefore seceded and formed the **Progressive party,** which nominated Roosevelt.

The Democrats nominated Governor Wilson, of New Jersey, on a platform advocating a tariff for revenue, dissolution of the trusts, and criminal prosecution of the officials of the trusts, together with such additional legislation as to make private monopoly impossible.

The three-cornered campaign was very lively. Taft had 3,484,000 popular votes and 8 electoral; Roosevelt polled 4,119,000 popular and 88 electoral votes; Wilson was elected with 6,293,000 popular votes and 435 electoral votes. Notwithstanding the Democratic and Progressive platforms, which called for legislation that up to this time had been considered socialistic, the Socialist party more than doubled its vote over 1908, obtaining 900,000 popular votes.

The Democratic party in 1913 was in a better condition than at any time since 1896. By inviting Bryan to become his secretary of state, President Wilson succeeded in gaining the support of the Bryan wing of the Democracy for the important measures he desired to pass. The first of these concerned the tariff. By the **Underwood Tariff Bill,** adopted October 3, 1913, many of the duties were reduced from a protective to a revenue basis, although considerable protection was still accorded. To meet the loss of revenue an **income tax** was provided. This was made possible by the ratification in 1913 of the **Sixteenth Amendment** to the Constitution of the United States, which allowed Congress to levy taxes on income without apportionment according to the population. The main features of this first successful law were: (1) moderate rates; (2) exemption of incomes under $3,000; (3) a sliding scale running from 1% to 6%.

The next steps were financial. The Owen-Glass Currency Bill established a **Federal Reserve Bank system,** which put the control of the member banks under a national board resembling the Interstate Commerce Commission. The purpose was to concentrate the banking resources of the country and to provide an elastic currency.

Next came **the Federal Trade Commission Bill,** by which a commission was established to prevent unfair competition in commerce and to investigate the affairs of corporations other than banks and common carriers.

In the same direction was the **Clayton Antitrust Bill,** which attempted to codify the various laws and court decisions concerning monopoly and unlawful restraints of trade. The legislative program was in fulfillment of the Democratic platform and proved satisfactory, both to the more radical elements of the country and to the large economic interests.

During the first years of President Wilson's administration there was serious industrial depression; but with the outbreak of the World War in 1914 the demands of the belligerents stimulated manufacture and trade to a startling degree. Whereas, in 1913 the United States had imported $1,800,000,000 worth of products and exported $2,400,000,000 worth, in 1917 the imports amounted to $2,600,000,000, while the exports reached the stupendous total of $6,290,000,000. In addition, the necessities of the Allies forced them to sell in the American market the American securities they had held, and the interest which formerly had been sent abroad was available for investment in the United States. Moreover, the Allies floated issues of bonds in the American market, the interest on which was also added to the American resources.

Thus, within five years, the United States became the financial center of the world, controlled the largest proportion of the gold supply, and became the great creditor nation whose products and whose capital alone were capable of satisfying foreign demands. During the year and a half of war, the United States issued $19,000,000,000 worth of **Liberty Bonds,** which were taken up by all classes of the population.

During the war immigration declined, and there was a shortage of labor, which was increased by the enlistment in the United States army of over 3,000,000 men. Labor was not slow to take advantage of this situation and demanded better conditions and increase after increase in wages. During the period when the United States was in active participation, the **National War Labor Board** did much to prevent widespread or long-continued strikes.

With the end of hostilities, labor continued to demand the high wages it enjoyed during the war, and in many instances even higher. The high cost of living was made the reason for these demands. Moreover, during the war the National War Labor Board, had, wherever possible, recognized and negotiated with the labor unions; and union labor now demanded recognition in more and more industries, together with the right of collective bargaining. In some regions still more advanced demands were made, looking toward the nationalization of the railways and even the control of industry by labor. On November 1, 1919, a strike in the bituminous coal fields began, which the government checked through the utilization of the war powers it still had the right to use.

A part of the war legislation dealt with the conservation and distribution of food; and the president was authorized to prohibit the use of food products for the manufacture of liquors. In the meantime an amendment to the Federal Constitution to prohibit the manufacture or sale of alcoholic liquors as beverages was in 1917 submitted by Congress to the States for ratification. On January 16, 1919, this amendment was ratified by the necessary number of States, and proclaimed as the **Eighteenth Amendment** to the Constitution; it went into effect January 17, 1920.

United States in the World War. Although the country sympathized with Belgium and France in 1914, the President issued a proclamation of neutrality at the outbreak of the World War, and until 1917, in the face of great difficulties and in spite of the promptings of large numbers of the people, maintained this neutrality. The position, which was difficult enough because of the extensions which Great Britain made in the belligerent rights of blockade and contraband was made still more difficult by Germany through the destruction of both belligerent and neutral commerce by her **submarines.**

The destruction of the *Lusitania,* May 7, 1915, brought a strong protest from President Wilson, which was the beginning of negotiations looking toward the restriction of submarine activity. The destruction of the *Sussex,* March, 1916, was followed by a qualified pledge of Germany to give up submarine warfare, at least against neutrals. January 31, 1917, Germany declared **unrestricted submarine warfare** on all commerce within certain zones off the coast of Great Britain and France. Within three days diplomatic relations with Germany were severed; and **war was declared April 6, 1917.**

By voluntary enlistment the military forces of the United States were increased from 121,000 regulars to 475,000, and the National Guard from 76,000 to 400,000. On May 18, 1917, **conscription** was adopted, all men between the ages of 21 and 31 being liable; on August 31, 1918, the age limits were extended to include those between the ages of 18 and 45; and about two million men were sent to France. The war was financed by means of the sale of **Liberty Bonds,** certificates of indebtedness, and **thrift stamps.** Heavy **increases in taxation,** particularly the income and excess-profits taxes, yielded $2,314,000,000, and other taxes made the total revenue over five billion.

Even before the United States entered the war, President Wilson announced that he would urge the United States to enter a **World Peace Federation** to guarantee and enforce future peace. During the war, partly because of the disinterested position the United States occupied, and partly because he commanded the resources necessary for the Allies' success, the President was able to secure acceptance of his ideas. The **Treaty of Versailles,** signed June 28, 1919, which terminated the war, included the covenant for a **League of Nations.**

When the treaty reached the Senate strong opposition appeared to some parts of it, especially the transfer of the Chinese province of Shantung to Japan. Still more bitter was the **objection to the League of Nations.** Several senators were opposed to any international union, many others would not accept this particular text, others were ready to accept the league with "amendments" or "reservations." President Wilson would accept no alterations, and the **treaty** (including the league) **failed of ratification.**

In 1920 the **Nineteenth Amendment, abolishing sex qualification for the suffrage,** was ratified by 37 States and took effect in the presidential election of that year.

The Land.

The Country. The development and history of a people are influenced, if not largely determined, by the physical characteristics of the country they inhabit. The United States of America occupies the territory south of the Great Lakes and the 49th parallel, and north of the Gulf of Mexico, the Rio Grande, and Mexican territory, stretching from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific. Its **area** is 3,026,789 square miles, which is more than three fourths as great as that of all Europe. Within this territory there are all varieties of climate and kinds of soil, and most of the products that are found in Europe exist here in abundance.

Temperature and Climate. In the various parts of the territory of the United States there are **great variations of temperature.** This is partly due to the effect on the Eastern coast of the cold Labrador Current and on the Western coast of the warm Japan Current; while the vast plains extending from the Arctic circle to the Gulf of Mexico permit currents of warm or cold air to circulate freely. Thus, Arkansas has the winter climate of Edinburgh and the summer climate of Spain, while in Minnesota the summers are those of Venice and the winters those of Norway. In like manner the summer climate of Maine is like that of France, while the winters are literally as "cold as Greenland." These variations in climate make possible products similar to those distributed from northern Africa to Norway. The occupations of the people are equally varied.

In all parts of the United States except the area extending from the eastern front of the Rocky Mountains, and their southern extensions, westward to the Sierra Nevadas, the rainfall is sufficient for farming. Portions of this area, and regions in and near the mountains, may be reclaimed by irrigation, but there are large areas which can never support a population.

Physical Characteristics. East of the barrier of the Rocky Mountains the territory of the United States is **singularly uniform.** The Atlantic coastal plain is narrow, but is not broken by impassable rivers. The Appalachian Mountains, which in central New York and in Georgia sink to a low level, can be easily traversed throughout their extent. Most of the vast interior of the country consists of the valley of the **one great river system** — that of the Mississippi and its tributaries. The rivers, instead of being barriers, furnish easy means of communication. The western mountain regions of the Rockies, the Sierra Nevadas, and the Coast Ranges are steep and difficult, but have all been pierced by railroads.

Natural Resources. The United States has been greatly aided in its development by its **vast natural resources.** The early explorers and colonists were attracted by the fur trade and the abundant timber. The fisheries greatly aided, especially in New England, where they made possible the early development; while the rich soil of the South was suitable for profitable crops of grain and tobacco. **Almost everywhere** in the United States, save in New England, the **soil is fertile,** and the early settlers, once past the initial stage, had no fear of scarcity, but produced a surplus which the easy communications made a solid basis of agricultural prosperity.

The staple crops are cereals: wheat, corn, rye, oats, barley, and buckwheat. In the warmer regions of the south rice and even sugar cane are profitably cultivated, while for many years "Cotton was King" in the seaboard States. The prairie regions of the interior proved rich for corn, and the plains of the Southwest are unrivaled ranges for cattle. In southern California and in Florida the climate makes tropical fruits profitable.

Minerals in great variety are abundant in the United States, especially noteworthy being the **rich coal deposits** extending from Alabama to New York along the slopes of the Alleghenies and as far west as Iowa. The United States possesses one square mile of coal-bearing strata for every 10 square miles of territory; whereas in Europe the proportion is one to every 188. This coal, together with the **immense deposits of iron,** assures the United States an unrivaled position in industry. This of late has been increased by **vast oil fields** and a seemingly inexhaustible supply of oil-bearing and gas-bearing shales. The precious metals gold and silver are abundant and widely distributed. Copper, zinc, lead, and tungsten all are available.

The rapid-flowing streams of the Atlantic coast furnish a **good supply of water power,** while the larger rivers of the South and the interior and the swift streams of the mountain regions promise a volume of water power for electrical energy which has hardly been appreciated.

The Aboriginal People. When America was discovered it was inhabited by a race whom the discoverers called Indians. Whence they came or how long they had been in North America cannot be definitely stated. It is probable that Asia and North America, and perhaps even Europe and North America, were once joined, and that human life, wherever it originated, flowed from one hemisphere to the other. Human remains, deeply buried in geological strata, are proof that man has existed in America at least 30,000 years, perhaps much longer.

The Indians. The aborigines of North America all belong to one ethnic unit and all reached about the same degree of culture; none of them were utterly savage, none civilized. Those in the southern part of North America and the western part of South America were in the middle stage of barbarism; they had no phonetic alphabet, nor any idea of the private ownership of landed property, which marks the beginning of civilization. Thanks to Indian corn, they knew a rude but productive agriculture. They still were in that stage of culture in which the family is inferior to the clan or gens as a recognized group. All things being owned by the clan, all members of the clan and gens traced their descent, not through their fathers, but through their mothers. For purposes of war and government the clans were united into tribes and some of the more advanced tribes into larger units.

The United States Bureau of Ethnology divides the Indians of the United States into **59 families,** the most important of which were: The Algonquian family, which included the Ojibwas, Ottawas, Crees, Algonquins, Micmacs, and Blackfeet; the Iroquoian family, the most important members of which were "The Five Nations"; the Muskhogean family, which occupied most of Georgia; the Siouan family, the chief group of which lived west of the upper Mississippi and the upper Missouri valley; the Shoshonean family, the most important tribes of which were the Comanches and Utes. Yet they were few in total numbers — perhaps **half a million,** within the limits of the present United States.

Contact with the whites caused the Indians to dwindle in the East. Wherever the whites settled, the story is the same. Early uprisings were followed by more severe struggles in which the tribes were broken or driven westward to contend with the tribes already on the land. French neighbors in the North and Spanish in the South used the Indians against the English, till the English were so firmly settled that there could be but one outcome to the struggle. Through later frontier wars and Indian massacres the whites triumphantly moved westward, **and the Indians were either exterminated** or **confined to reservations** where they lost their independence, while the government attempted to raise them to civilization by education and paternal care.

Organization.

National Government. The United States is a federal constitutional republic, consisting of forty-eight States. The national Constitution went into force in April, 1789, and has been amended on ten occasions, the total number of amendments being nineteen. Ultimate sovereignty resides in the "people of the United States," who by the action of three fourths of the legislatures of the States can amend the Constitution, thereby adding to the powers of the national government or limiting the powers of the States.

The legislative power is vested in a **Congress** consisting of two houses: a Senate with two senators from each State, chosen for six years, one third of whom retire every two years; and a House of Representatives (435 in 1919) chosen for two years in proportion to the population of the States. No bill can become a law until it has passed both houses of Congress and is signed by the president. The president may allow it to become a law by default, or may sign it, or may veto it, in which case it may be passed over the veto by a two-thirds vote of both houses. The legislative power of Congress, as set forth in the Constitution, includes broad national powers of taxation and appropriation, control of foreign and interstate commerce, military and naval legislation, declaration of war, creation of offices, the monetary system, weights and standards, and finally the general power to pass all "Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof." Besides these positive powers, negative protection is given through prohibitions laid upon the States which prevent them from interfering with Congress in the exercise of these powers, and through the review of State legislation by the Federal courts.

The executive power is vested in a president, who, with the vice president, is chosen by special electors for a term of four years. Each State is entitled to a number of **presidential electors** equal to the number of its senators and representatives combined. These electors may be chosen in any way the constitutions of the States may provide, but at present are all chosen by popular election (see ELECTOR, *n.*, 3 and ELECTORAL COLLEGE, in the *Dict.*). **The president** is commander in chief of the army and navy, negotiates treaties — which require ratification by two thirds of the Senate — and appoints most of the important officers. The president, moreover, is charged with the faithful execution of the laws of the United States and may utilize the army and navy to fulfill his obligation.

He is assisted by ten heads of ten departments — the secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of War, the Attorney-General, the Postmaster-General, the secretaries of the Navy, of the Interior, of Agriculture, of Commerce, and of Labor. These officers sit in an informal council, not designated by law, usually called **the cabinet.** They are subject to the directions of the president under the law, but are in no way responsible to Congress in the sense of being compelled to resign by adverse vote. Other portions of the executive power are placed in the hands of administrative commissions and boards.

The judicial power is vested in the **Supreme Court** of the United States and "such inferior Courts as the Congress may . . . establish." The Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and eight associate justices. This court has original jurisdiction in cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and cases to which a State shall be a party. In all other cases, the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court is appellate.

The inferior courts of the United States by acts of Congress consist of a **Circuit Court of Appeals,** divided into 39 circuits and 89 district courts, a **Court of Claims,** and a **Court of Customs Appeal.** The jurisdiction of these courts extends to all cases in law and equity arising under the Constitution, the laws of the United States and treaties; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; and between citizens of different States.

Two consequences of the American theory of judicial power have developed during the life of the Federal republic. From an early date the Supreme Court has construed its power to receive appeals from the highest State courts on Federal questions as justifying the annulment of State laws whenever it finds that they contravene the Constitution. And since 1857 the Supreme Court has set aside numerous Federal statutes on the same ground.

State Government. Each of the 48 States by its own constitution determines its frame of government, except as it may be limited by the Constitution or laws or treaties of the United States. Each State has a governor, a legislative body of two houses, and a judiciary (see States by name, page 195 ff.).

Production and Industry. The United States, from the variety of its soil and climate and the variety and extent of its resources, is at once the leading agricultural and the greatest manufacturing country of the world. In 1919 the **value of the agricultural products** was estimated at $24,900,000,000 There were produced 2,900,000,000 bushels of corn, 1,200,000,000 bushels of oats, 940,000,000 bushels of wheat, 357,000,000 bushels of potatoes, 165,000,000 bushels of barley, 91,800,000 tons of hay, 41,000,000 bushels of rice, 1,761,000 pounds of sugar, 11,030,000 bales of cotton, 1,389,000,000 pounds of tobacco. The **value of the mineral products** of the United States was more than $7,679,000,000 in 1918. The value of the metallic products amounted to more than $2,000,000,000, the production of pig iron being valued at more than $1,180,000,000; copper at $471,000,000; zinc at $89,000,000; lead at $76,000,000; and gold at $68,000,000. Of the nonmetallic products, bituminous coal was mined to the value of $1,465,000,000; coke nearly $200,000,000; petroleum, more than $690,000,000; and anthracite coal, $336,000,000.

In 1915 there were 275,791 **manufacturing establishments,** with a total capital of more than $22,000,000,000, employing more than 8,000,000 persons and with products to the value of $24,000,000,000. Of these, food and kindred products amounted to more than $4,000,000,000; textiles, $3,400,000,000; iron and steel, $3,220,000,000; chemicals and allied products, $2,000,000,000.

Religion. The original colonies were settled by people of various beliefs, many of whom desired to perpetuate their own peculiar doctrines to the exclusion of all others. Gradually, **religious toleration** won the day, and by the Federal Constitution Congress was prohibited from making any law concerning religion. Freedom of worship is also guaranteed in the various State constitutions. There is thus no established or state church anywhere in the United States, and all religious denominations are represented. The Roman Catholics are the largest religious body, with 16,000,000 (1917) communicants (including the confirmed children). The Baptist bodies with 7,236,000 (mostly adults), and the Methodist with 7,165,000, have each about as many persons in the families reported as the Catholics. The Lutheran bodies comprise 2,460,000 communicants; the Presbyterian, 2,260,000; the Protestant Episcopal Church, 1,000,000. There are also 360,000 members of Jewish congregations. The Church of Christ Scientist has 319,000 adherents.

Education. From early colonial days great stress has been laid on **common-school education.** All States now provide actually or nominally free elementary and secondary instruction, but the systems vary. In some States attendance between certain ages is compulsory, in others it is optional. In some, public education is provided only through the high or secondary schools; but all the States maintain some universities and schools which give collegiate instruction. In 1916 the 281,000 State common schools counted more than 20,000,000 pupils. In this group were more than 12,000 public high schools, with over 1,000,000 pupils; more than 2,000 private high schools and academies, with 155,000 pupils; 574 universities, with 259,000 students. In addition there were numerous professional schools of theology, law, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, veterinary medicine, as well as increasing numbers of technical and vocational schools. Special schools are established for the deaf and blind and feeble-minded.

Defense. Before the World War, the military forces of the United States consisted of the Regular Army recruited by voluntary enlistment, and a National Guard, also recruited by voluntary enlistment under the direction of the various State governments, but subject to Federal control in case of war. The peace footing of the Regular Army was 137,203, and the total enlisted strength of the National Guard, July 30, 1916, was 8,589 officers and 123,605 men.

When war was declared on Germany in 1917, **conscription** was introduced. The object was to insure at least 4,000,000 men available to send to France by June, 1919. In November, 1918, the Regular Army consisted of 3,665,000 men, of whom about 2,000,000 were in France. Some of the important ports of the United States are protected by an elaborate system of coast defense.

At the outbreak of the World War, the United States ranked below Great Britain and Germany, and possibly Japan, in its **naval establishment.** In 1916–1917 a great expansion was begun, and a three-year program of shipbuilding adopted. On the entry of the United States into the war, this program was greatly accelerated, and in 1920 the United States ranked **second** only to Great Britain **in naval strength,** having 36 battleships as compared with Great Britain's 55, 8 cruisers, 13 light cruisers, 4 coast-defense vessels, 105 torpedo-boat destroyers, and 84 submarines. There were building or projected 13 battleships, 9 cruisers, 238 torpedo-boat destroyers, and 74 submarines. These official figures show that the United States ranks second among the five great naval powers, being far exceeded by Great Britain, but far surpassing both France and Japan. The German navy, second in 1914, has disappeared.

The United States maintains a **military academy** at West Point and a **naval academy** at Annapolis for the training of officers for the army and navy.

Area and Population. Statistics showing the area and population will be found on pages 220–222.

Chronology.

DISCOVERIES.

1492. *Aug. 3.* **Columbus** sails on his first voyage. On October 12 (**Discovery of New World**) **Columbus lands** on **San Salvador,** probably the island now often called Watling Island. Later he discovers Cuba and Haiti, which he considers a portion of Asia.

1493. *May 3, 4.* Pope Alexander VI. issues two **bulls of demarcation** dividing the exclusive right of discovery and trade of the unknown world between Portugal and Spain. The line is modified by the **Treaty of Tordesillas** on June 7, 1494, which, with explorations, becomes the basis of **Spain's claim to all of America** except Brazil. **Columbus** makes his **second voyage.**

1497. *June 24.* **John Cabot** sights land, probably in the region of Newfoundland, and sails southward along the coast.

1498. He makes a second voyage, possibly as far south as the Carolinas. These voyages become later the basis of **England's claim** in North America. **Columbus** makes a **third voyage,** touching the mainland of South America at the Orinoco.

1499–1500. For Spain, Ojeda and Juan de la Cosa voyage to the region of Guiana and Venezuela. Niño covers a similar route. Pinzón coasts the shore farther south, discovering the Amazon, and Lepe parallels him. **Amerigo Vespucci** accompanies Ojeda and is probably also with Lepe.

1500. *April 21.* The Portuguese Cabral sights the coast of Brazil. A year later another Portuguese captain, with whom Vespucci sails, develops the southern coast of Brazil.

1500–1502. The Cortereals, under the Portuguese flag, explore the coast between Labrador and present northern United States.

1502. **Columbus** makes his **fourth voyage,** skirting the coast of Central America. These various expeditions cause the conjecture of a vast **New World** between Asia and Europe.

1504–1505. **Amerigo Vespucci's** letters on his voyages are published and attract wide attention throughout Europe; he is given undeserved credit for discoveries.

1507. Amerigo or **America** is first suggested as the name for the new world covered by Vespucci's account; that is, for the **southern lands.** It spreads gradually to include both continents.

1510. The Spanish make at **Darien** the first permanent settlement on the mainland, the West Indies having been earlier colonized and made the base for further exploration.

1512. *April 2.* **Ponce de León discovers Florida.** He sails around most of the peninsula and later attempts a colony.

1513. *Sept. 29.* **Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean** at the Isthmus of Panama. The discovery emphasizes the existence of a new world and encourages voyages to find a strait ("Northwest Passage") northward around it.

1519. Pineda explores the Gulf coast between Florida and Mexico; must have passed the mouth of the Mississippi.

1520. *Nov. 28.* **Magellan** enters the Pacific Ocean, having discovered and traversed the Strait of Magellan. The first circumnavigation of the earth by his expedition reveals the probability that the New World is separate from Asia, previously suggested by Balboa's discovery.

1521, 1525. Ayllon sends out two expeditions to the Atlantic coast north of Florida.

1524. **Verrazano,** sailing for the king of France, is on that part of the coast which later becomes the Middle Atlantic States and New England.

1525. Gomez continues Spanish exploration in the neighborhood of **Nova Scotia.** By this time the cod fisheries off **Newfoundland** are regularly frequented.

1526. Ayllon attempts a Spanish colony, probably near Cape Fear River. See **1521,** above.

1528. Narváez explores the Gulf coast by land and sea from Tampa to Texas. One of his men, Cabeza de Vaca, captured by the Indians, wanders through Texas and northern Mexico; the first European to **cross the continent.**

1534–1541. **Jacques Cartier** makes three **voyages** to the St. Lawrence gulf and river, going as far as Montreal. He attempts a colony, which fails, but his exploration is the basis of the **French claim** in North America.

1539–1542. **Coronado** and his lieutenants march from Mexico **through New Mexico** and Arizona and into Kansas.

1539–1543. **Hernando de Soto** heads a great Spanish expedition which explores the southeastern portion of the later United States. He reaches the **Mississippi,** May 8, 1541.

1542–1543. Cabrillo and Ferrer for Spain sail along the **coast of California and Oregon.**

1562. Coligny's Huguenot colony is founded by Ribault at Port Royal, S.C.; it fails.

1564. Coligny's second Huguenot colony is founded by Laudonnière on St. Johns River (Florida). It is destroyed by the Spaniards in 1565.

1565. Menéndez founds **St. Augustine,** Florida, the **first permanent settlement** within the present limits of the United States.

1578–1580. **Sir Francis Drake** sails along the **Pacific coast** to Oregon, and then circumnavigates the globe; first Englishman on the Pacific.

1582. Espejo renews exploration of New Mexico.

1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, under royal patent, attempts an English colony at Newfoundland; fails.

1584. *March 25.* **Sir Walter Raleigh** receives a royal charter of trade and colonization in America. He sends out Amidas and Barlow, who explore Pamlico and Albemarle sounds. On their enthusiastic report Queen Elizabeth names the country **Virginia.**

1585–1587. Raleigh's attempts to settle Roanoke Island fail. A relief expedition (1591) finds no trace of his colonists.

1588. The **destruction of the Spanish Armada** by England's navy opens the way for English settlement of North America.

1598. The Spanish settlement of **New Mexico** begins. **Santa Fe,** its center, is founded about seven years later.

COLONIZATION.

1602. *May 25.* Gosnold discovers and names **Cape Cod.** His expedition attempts, unsuccessfully, the first English colony in New England, at Cuttyhunk.

1605. De Monts's colony, Port Royal, Nova Scotia, the **first permanent French settlement** in America.

1606. *April 10.* Grant of the **first Virginia charter** to the London and Plymouth Companies for trade and settlement. The boundaries conflict with Spanish and French claims.

1607. Popham for the Plymouth Company sends out a colony to Maine, which fails.

May 14. **Virginia settled at Jamestown** by the London Company; the **first permanent English settlement.** The settlers are promised all the rights of Englishmen.

1608. **Champlain** plants a French colony at **Quebec.** He begins the strife between French colonists and **Iroquois Indians** which vitally affects colonial history in North America.

1609. *May 23.* A separate charter is granted to the London (Virginia) Company. The boundaries of Virginia are extended to the Pacific Ocean. This and similar grants in other charters originate the later **western claims** of the States.

September. **Henry Hudson** explores the Hudson River. This voyage forms the basis of **Dutch claims** in North America.

1612. **Tobacco** is first planted by colonists in Virginia. It becomes the main staple; and the economic and social life of the southern colonists center around its production.

Dutch fur traders begin to frequent Manhattan Island. The post is named **New Amsterdam** and the region **New Netherland** (1614).

1614. Captain **John Smith** explores and names the New England coast.

1619. **First colonial assembly** in America is held, July 30, at Jamestown, Va. A Dutch vessel brings to Virginia 20 **Negroes,** who are sold as **slaves.**

1620. *Nov. 3.* The **Council for New England** is chartered as the successor of the Plymouth Company. Its grant covers New England and conflicts with French claims in Acadia and Canada. It makes various subgrants which result directly or indirectly in colonies, but dissolves in 1635.

December. **Plymouth** colony is founded by **the Pilgrims,** coming in the *Mayflower.* They touch at Provincetown, November 21 (N.S.), and land at Plymouth on December 21 (11th O.S.). This **first permanent colony in New England** is based on a frame of government adopted by the colonists; later it receives a patent from the Council for New England, but no royal charter.

1621. *June 3.* Dutch West India Company chartered and given control over New Netherland.

1622. *Aug. 10.* Grant by the Council for New England to Mason and Gorges of the Province of **Maine,** between the Merrimac and the Sagadahoc. Between this date and 1635 there are numerous conflicting grants to these men and others in this region, including one of November 7, 1629, of **New Hampshire** to Mason. Under the grants, or independent of them, settlements are made from 1623 on. Mason (1635) and Gorges (1639) obtain royal charters, but Massachusetts extends her jurisdiction over most of the towns.

1624. *June 16.* The charter of **Virginia** is annulled by judicial process; the colony becomes a **royal province,** the king appoints the governor, but the Assembly continues to be representative.

1629. *March 4.* **Massachusetts** Bay Company receives a royal charter; the company is transferred to America and becomes itself the colony, instead of a ruling body resident in England. **John Winthrop** is the leader.

July 19. Quebec captured from the French, but restored by the peace of March 29, 1632.

1630. A fleet of vessels bearing immigrants arrives in Massachusetts, there being already settlements at **Salem** and elsewhere.

Sept. 7. The chief settlement is named **Boston.**

1632. *June 20.* **Maryland** is granted to Sir George Calvert (**Lord Baltimore**) as a proprietary colony.

1634. *March 27.* The **settlement of Maryland** begins at St. Marys. The first settlers are Roman Catholics; later, Puritans and others are admitted; factions develop and much strife results.

1635–1636. Settlements are made on the Connecticut River at Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield by emigrants from Massachusetts. They form a colony called **Connecticut.**

1636. **Harvard College** is founded at Cambridge, Mass., by the General Court of Massachusetts.

June. **Providence Plantation** (Rhode Island) is founded by Roger Williams, an exile from Massachusetts.

1637. **Pequot War** in New England.

1638. *April 25.* **New Haven colony** (Connecticut) is founded.

April. Swedes settle on the Delaware, near Wilmington; colony called **New Sweden.**

Rhode Island Plantation is founded by exiles from Massachusetts.

1639. *Jan. 14.* The Connecticut River towns, having no charter, adopt the Fundamental Orders, the **first written constitution** in America made by representatives of the people.

1643. *May 19.* **New England Confederation,** the first union of colonies, is founded by Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. This league promotes united action and lasts until 1684. It acts under the **first written federal constitution in America.**

1644. *March 14.* A parliamentary patent unites settlements at Providence and on Rhode Island as **Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.**

1651. First English **Navigation Act,** restricting and regulating colonial commerce.

1655. **Conquest of Jamaica** by England, the first English colony in the West Indies. The island colonies later exercise a governing influence over English colonial policy.

Civil war in Maryland.

September. **Dutch conquer New Sweden.**

1660. Second **Navigation Act** renews the earlier one and begins the system of "enumerated goods" which can be exported to England only.

1662. *April 20.* **Connecticut** is given a royal **charter,** which includes New Haven colony.

1663. *March 24.* **Carolina** is granted to certain courtiers. The boundaries conflict with the active Spanish claim. Settlements already exist in North Carolina.

July 8. **Rhode Island** gets a royal **charter.**

1664. The country between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers is granted to the Duke of York. On August 29 **New Amsterdam** surrenders and the town and colony become **New York.**

June 24. **New Jersey,** already settled, is granted by the Duke of York to Berkeley and Carteret; later, it is divided.

1670. Settlement of **South Carolina** begins on Ashley River near later site of Charleston.

May 2. Royal charter is granted the **Hudson's Bay Company.**

July 8. In the **Treaty of Madrid,** Spain acknowledges the right of England to all lands in the West Indies and America which she does "at present hold and possess," which includes Carolina.

1671. *Sept. 13.* Batts and Fallam cross the summit of the Alleghenies and reach a west-flowing river (New River, or Kanawha).

1675–1676. **King Philip's War** in New England; colonists put down a final attempt by the New England tribes to check the colonies.

1676. **Bacon's Rebellion** in Virginia; an unsuccessful uprising against the misgovernment of Sir William Berkeley.

1678. *March 15.* Massachusetts fixes her control in Maine by purchase of the Gorges grant.

1679. **New Hampshire** made a **royal province.**

1680. **Charleston,** S.C., is founded.

1681. *March 4.* **Pennsylvania** is granted to William Penn as a proprietary colony.

1682. The colony includes previous Swedish and other settlers and receives a large immigration of English Quakers and others. **Philadelphia** is founded.

La Salle descends the Mississippi to its mouth, takes possession of the whole valley for France and names it **Louisiana.**

Aug. 24. The Duke of York deeds to Penn the Lower Counties on the **Delaware.** They are united to Pennsylvania on December 7.

1684. *Oct. 23.* **Massachusetts charter annulled** by judicial process.

1684–1687. La Salle sets out from France to establish a colony on the Mississippi, but lands instead at Matagorda Bay, Texas. Colony fails, but a claim to Texas as part of Louisiana is later set up.

1685. *Feb. 6.* The Duke of York becomes king and New York a royal province.

1686–1689. The **Dominion of New England,** including New York and New Jersey, is ruled by Sir Edmund **Andros** with autocratic powers and no representation.

1688. *April 18.* Germantown Quakers protest against slavery; beginning of **antislavery movement.**

1689. **Risings in the colonies** follow the revolution in England. Andros is overthrown and the old governments restored. The proprietary government in Maryland is also overthrown.

1689–1697. **King William's War** between the French and English colonists, a colonial offshoot of a European struggle. Frontier settlements are destroyed by Indian raids. Treaty of Ryswick (Rijswijk), September 20, 1697, restores all colonial conquests.

1690. *May 21.* Port Royal, Acadia, taken by New Englanders; later restored.

1691. *Oct. 7.* **Massachusetts** is granted a **second charter,** including Plymouth and Maine; but the king appoints the governor, so that the colony is akin to a royal province.

1692. Salem **witchcraft** trials.

1693. **William and Mary College** is founded at Williamsburg, Va.

1696. The **Board of Trade and Plantations** succeeds various committees. It is the main instrument for the English government of the colonies through the Privy Council.

1699. **Louisiana** is settled at Biloxi; later, Mobile is founded.

1700. *June 12.* Samuel Sewall, of Boston, publishes *The Selling of Joseph,* an antislavery tract.

1701. **Yale College** is founded; first location is at Saybrook; moved to New Haven, 1717.

Detroit is settled by the French. It is in the **chain of** forts, missions, and **settlements** linking Canada and Louisiana, other important points in which are: Arkansas Post (founded 1685); Cahokia (about 1700), Kaskaskia (about 1700), and Fort Chartres (1720) in Illinois; Vincennes (1727), in Indiana. They give **control of the great valley** and threaten to confine the English settlements to the Atlantic slope. The French push their explorations toward the Rocky Mountains.

1702. **New Jersey** is reunited as a royal province. **Queen Anne's War,** the colonial share in the War of the Spanish Succession, begins. Indian raids are resumed.

1703. **Delaware** becomes a separate colony, though with the same governor as Pennsylvania.

1704. *April 24. Boston News Letter,* first regularly published journal in the United States, is established.

1707. *May 1.* England, Scotland, and Wales are united as the Kingdom of Great Britain; terms "Briton" and "British" henceforth commonly used.

1710. **Port Royal,** Acadia, is captured by the British, and named **Annapolis.** First post-office system for the colonies established.

1712. *Sept. 14.* Crozat's patent defines **Louisiana** as the whole valley of the Mississippi.

1713. *March 31.* **Treaty of Utrecht** ends Queen Anne's War. Great Britain acquires Nova Scotia (Acadia) from France and a definite title to Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay country.

1715. Proprietary is restored in Maryland,

1718. **New Orleans** is founded and becomes the capital of Louisiana.

1729. **North and South Carolina** are separated and become royal provinces.

Baltimore is founded.

1732. *Feb. 22* (11th O.S.). Birth of George Washington.

June 9. Proprietary charter granted for colony of Georgia.

1733. *Feb. 12.* **Georgia is settled** by Oglethorpe at Savannah.

May 17. **Molasses Act** is passed by Parliament, an attempt to confine, by prohibitive duties, the West Indies trade of the mainland colonies to the islands under British control. It is considered a grievance and systematically disregarded

1739. *Oct. 20.* War begins between Spain and Great Britain. In the colonies there are resultless contests between Georgia and Florida. The colonial fights merge in King George's War.

1741. Bering sails along the coast of **Alaska,** reaching Cape St. Elias on Kayak Island (see p. 20, 1728); beginning of **Russian** interest on the mainland of America. He is followed by fur traders, and Russian settlement begins in 1784 at Kodiak. Sitka is founded 1799.

1743. The Verendrye sons, French fur traders, see a range of the **Rocky Mountains.**

1744–1748. **King George's War** is the colonial phase of the War of the Austrian Succession.

1745. *June 17.* Louisburg is captured by the English colonists and British navy.

1746. College of New Jersey founded (later **Princeton University**).

1748. *Oct. 18.* Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restores all colonial conquests.

1749. Céleron de Bienville voyages down the Ohio River, taking possession for France. The English explorers and fur traders have penetrated into the **Ohio valley** and English settlement west of the crest of the Appalachians has begun on the upper New River. The French begin a **chain of forts** from Canada to the Ohio to check this advance; most important is Fort Duquesne, now Pittsburgh

May 19. **Ohio Company** is chartered to begin the English settlement of the **valley.**

1751. *June 25.* Parliament passes an act forbidding the New England colonies from making **paper money** a legal tender.

1753. Pennsylvania College founded (Philadelphia; later University of Pennsylvania).

November. Virginia claiming the region of the Ohio valley under her old charter, Gov. Dinwiddie sends George Washington to remonstrate with the French at the new posts.

1754. **Georgia** becomes a royal province by the surrender of the charter.

King's College founded (New York city; later Columbia University).

June 19. A colonial **congress** is held **at Albany** to consider Indian affairs and plans for the expected war with the French. A **plan of union,** drafted by Benjamin Franklin, is adopted, but is rejected by both the colonies and England.

July 3. Washington, sent with a Virginian force to the Forks of the Ohio (Pittsburgh), surrenders to the French at Fort Necessity; the beginning of the **French and Indian War.**

1755. *July 8.* British force under **Braddock** advancing against Fort Duquesne is routed by the French and Indians. Washington escapes. Expeditions against the French positions at Niagara and Crown Point also fail, as do all attempts against the French during the next two years.

September. Removal of the Acadians from Nova Scotia by British troops.

1756. *May 18.* Great Britain formally declares war on France; the American struggle is thus merged into the European Seven Years' War.

1758. *July 8.* British attack under Abercrombie on Fort Ticonderoga is repulsed.

July 26. Amherst captures Louisburg.

Aug. 27. Colonials, under Bradstreet, take Fort Frontenac (Kingston, Ont.).

Nov. 25. Expedition under Forbes occupies Fort Duquesne.

1759. *July.* Montcalm abandons Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point before Amherst's advance. Fort Niagara surrenders to British and Indians under Johnson. Except the far-western posts, nothing is left to the French but Quebec and Montreal.

Sept. 13. **Battle of the Plains of Abraham** before Quebec, a French defeat. The opposing commanders, **Montcalm** and **Wolfe,** are killed.

Sept. 17. **Quebec surrenders.**

1760. *Sept. 8.* Montreal surrenders to Amherst; practical end of American war.

1763. *Feb. 10.* **Treaty of Paris** is signed. **France cedes** to Great Britain **Canada** and **Louisiana** east of the Mississippi River, excepting Isle d'Orleans including the city of New Orleans. She also cedes New Orleans and the western portion of Louisiana to Spain, and so ceases to hold colonies on the North American mainland. Spain cedes **Florida** to Great Britain.

Oct. 7. British proclamation of 1763, part of a new policy of stricter control, forbids the Atlantic-slope colonies to make settlements west of the watershed; and Indian affairs are placed under direct royal control. The policy is resented; the proclamation is disregarded; exploration and settlement push westward, especially into Kentucky and Tennessee; and new western colonies are proposed.

1763–1765. **Pontiac's Conspiracy,** a revival of the war against the British by the western Indians, former allies of the French.

REVOLUTION AND CONSTITUTION.

1764. **St. Louis** is founded by the Spaniards.

April 5 **Sugar Act** of Parliament revives the earlier Molasses Act, with modifications to make it practical and a revenue producer; active measures to stop forbidden trade with foreign West-Indies and smuggling.

April 19. Parliament prohibits the making of paper money a legal tender in all the colonies.

1765. *March 22.* British **Stamp Act,** having for its purpose the raising of revenue **within** the colonies. Object is to have the colonies share in the expenses of their own defense; but as they consider any internal taxation an infringement upon the principle "No taxation without representation," they see in the plans for a standing army and other phases of the new imperialistic policy a curtailment of the practical self-government they have so long enjoyed, and under which they have prospered. Public sentiment and mob violence prevent the operation of the act.

Oct. 7. **Stamp Act Congress** meets at New York; delegates from nine colonies. The right of Parliament to tax the colonies is denied.

1766. Queen's College founded (New Brunswick, N.J.; later Rutgers College).

March 18. **Stamp Act is repealed,** but in the Declaratory Act Parliament reasserts its right to tax the colonies.

1767. *June 29.* **Townshend Act** lays duties on tea, glass, paper, etc., imported into the colonies. This is met by nonimportation agreements, formal protests, and vigorous pamphlets.

1768. *Feb. 11.* Massachusetts Assembly sends a circular letter, written by Samuel Adams, to the other legislatures, suggesting combined action against the new duties.

Sept. 27. **British troops arrive** at Boston to enforce customs laws; this is the ministry's answer to the Assembly's action.

1768–1771. War of the Regulation in North Carolina; a frontier protest against grievances.

1769. Spanish settlement of **California** begins at San Diego.

Discovery of San Francisco Bay.

Daniel Boone begins his explorations of Kentucky.

Watauga settlement in eastern Tennessee begun.

Foundation of Dartmouth College (N.H.).

1770. *March 5.* The so-called **Boston Massacre:** Soldiers kill members of a mob attacking them. Popular indignation forces the withdrawal of the troops from Boston.

April 12. Duties of the Townshend Act, except tea, are repealed.

Nov. 2. Local Committees of Correspondence come into existence in Massachusetts. The practice spreads throughout the colonies; similar intercolonial committees, inaugurated later by Virginia, are an important unifying factor.

1773. The king determines to assert his authority by protecting the importation of tea and collection of duty. At Boston, on December 16, the tea is thrown overboard by the **"Boston Tea Party."** At other ports it is sent back, or stored without payment of duty.

1774. *March 31.* Boston Port Act interdicts all commerce there.

May 20. **Massachusetts Government Act** practically nullifies the charter, centralizes the government, and limits town meetings. These coercive acts are punishment for the leadership of the colony in opposing the imperialistic policy. Troops again garrison Boston, and General Gage is made governor of the province.

June 22. **Quebec Act** is passed, extending that colony over the region north of the Ohio River and west of New York and Pennsylvania, establishing the Catholic religion, and making no provision for representative government; mistakenly considered by the other colonies a menace to them.

Sept. 5–Oct. 26. **First Continental Congress** meets at Philadelphia. Twelve colonies are represented. It sends out in various forms the colonial side of the controversy, and adopts the "Association," a nonimportation agreement, against British goods. The local committees enforce this against the **Loyalists,** who later are greatly persecuted, exiled, and their property confiscated.

Oct. 10. Battle of Point Pleasant; defeat of western Indians.

1775. *April 19.* Defeat of a British force at **Lexington and Concord** inaugurates the **American Revolution.** The Massachusetts military begin the **siege of Boston,** receiving reënforcements from other colonies.

May 10. **Second Continental Congress** meets at Philadelphia; it continues until 1781 as the national government. Without formal authorization it takes charge of the military, financial, Indian, and foreign affairs of the revolting colonies.

May 10. Allen and Arnold take **Ticonderoga** (American victory). May 12: **Crown Point** taken by the Americans. June 15: **Washington** is made **commander in chief** by Congress. June 17: Battle of **Bunker Hill** (British Pyrrhic victory). July 3: Washington takes command of the army before Boston. November 13: **Montreal** is taken by Montgomery. December 31: Battle of **Quebec;** Montgomery is killed.

Pennsylvania Society for the Abolition of Slavery is organized.

1776. Spanish *presidio* and mission at San Francisco are founded.

Jan. 5. New Hampshire adopts the first **written constitution** for a State of the Union. During the next four years all the States do likewise, except Rhode Island and Connecticut, which adapt their old charters.

March 17. **Boston is evacuated** by the British. June 18: Canada is evacuated by the Americans. June 28: British attack on Fort Moultrie at Charleston is repulsed.

July 4. **Declaration of Independence** of the United States of America (drafted by Thomas Jefferson) is adopted; signed by John Hancock, president of Congress. Other signatures added August 2 and later.

Aug. 27. Battle of Long Island; the British under Howe defeat Washington's army.

September. Commissioners are sent to **France** to obtain aid.

1776 (*continued*).

Sept. 15. British troops enter New York. October 28: Battle of White Plains (indecisive) November 16: Fort Washington is taken (British victory). November–December: **Washington retreats** through New Jersey. December 26: Battle of **Trenton** (American victory) ends the retreat.

1777. **Slavery,** which exists in all the States, is abolished in the unrecognized State of Vermont. By 1804, all the other seven northern States have adopted immediate or gradual **emancipation.**

Jan. 3. Battle of **Princeton** (American victory). **Lafayette** arrives in U. S. and is appointed major general (July 31). August 6: Battle of **Oriskany;** American victory which checks an invasion down the Mohawk. August 16: Battle of **Bennington;** American victory against Burgoyne's army invading from Canada. September 11: Battle of **Brandywine,** between Howe and Washington (British victory).

Sept. 19. Battle of **Bemis Heights** or **Saratoga** (indecisive). September 26: Philadelphia is taken by Howe. October 4: Battle of **Germantown** (British victory). October 7: Battle of **Saratoga** (American victory). October 17: **Burgoyne surrenders** to Gates at Saratoga.

Nov. 15. **Articles of Confederation** are adopted by Congress and sent to the States for ratification. [$6,300,000.

1777–1783. France lends the United States

1778. James Cook explores the Pacific coast from Oregon northward; a basis for the British claim to this region.

Feb. 6. Independence of the United States is recognized by France, and two treaties made, one of alliance and one of commerce.

April. British commissioners come to America to negotiate terms of peace (unsuccessful).

June 18. Philadelphia is evacuated by the British. June 28: Battle of **Monmouth** (American victory); the British retire to New York, and Washington resumes his position on the Hudson. July 3: Massacre at Wyoming by Indians.

July 10. France declares war against England.

July 29. French fleet under d'Estaing arrives in Narragansett Bay. December 29: **Savannah** is taken by the British; beginning of the attempt to conquer the South, which continues to be the main military factor for three years.

1778–1779. George Rogers Clark and a Virginia force conquer the British posts of Cahokia, Kaskaskia, and Vincennes, giving control of the southern half of the Northwest. This occupation is the basis of claims to the region in the later peace negotiations.

1779. *June 16.* Spain declares war against Great Britain, but makes no alliance with United States.

July 15. Wayne captures **Stony Point.** August 29: Sullivan defeats Tories and Indians at the Battle of the Chemung, near Elmira, destroying the power of the Iroquois. September 23: John Paul Jones in *Bonhomme Richard* captures the *Serapis.* September–October: **Savannah** besieged by Americans and French. October 9: d'Estaing and Lincoln repulsed at Savannah.

1780. *March 1.* Pennsylvania adopts gradual emancipation. [Henry Clinton.

May 12. **Charleston surrenders** to Sir

June. Massachusetts constitution, first to be adopted by a convention and ratified by popular vote; is against slavery.

July. Rochambeau arrives with a French army at Newport, R. I. August 16: Battle of **Camden,** S. C. (British victory). September 25: Treasonable purpose of **Arnold to surrender West Point** discovered. He escapes. The British agent, **André,** captured and hanged on Oct. 2. October 7: Battle of **King's Mountain** (American victory).

Oct. 10. Congress passes a resolution promising that western lands ceded by the States should be settled and admitted into the Union as equal States.

1781. *Jan. 5.* Arnold burns Richmond, Va. January 5: **Battle of the Cowpens** (American victory). January–February: Greene's masterly retreat in the Carolinas.

Feb. 3. Five-per-cent Scheme: proposed as amendment of the Confederation: Congress requests permission to levy an import duty; it fails though all the States but one accept it.

March 1. The **Articles of Confederation** put in effect by ratification by Maryland, the last State. Her consent is given on the understanding that the **States** which have **western claims** shall relinquish them to the Confederation, which is gradually done (1781–1802). On this same date New York cedes all claims west of present western boundary.

March 15. Battle of **Guilford Court House,** N. C.; Greene retires, but Cornwallis is obliged to leave North Carolina. He goes to Virginia to join Arnold. April 25: Battle of **Hobkirk's Hill,** S. C.; Rawdon defeats Greene, but retires to preserve communications. May: Surrender of Pensacola completes the Spanish conquest of West Florida. September 7: Battle of **Eutaw Springs,** S. C.; a British victory, but Greene forces the victors to retire to Charleston. October 19: **Cornwallis surrenders** at Yorktown to Washington and Rochambeau.

1781–1782. Spain lends the United States $174,000.

1782. *July 11.* Savannah evacuated by British.

Nov. 20. Preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and United States are signed at Paris.

Dec. 14. **Charleston evacuated.**

1782–1789. Holland lends the United States $3,600,000.

1783. *April 18.* Revenue Plan: Congress makes second proposal of amendment of the Confederation for a federal impost and other revenue improvements; it fails for lack of unanimous State consent.

Sept. 3. **Peace of Paris,** being the preliminaries of 1782 unchanged. Independence recognized, western boundary the Mississippi River, restoration of the Floridas to Spain by Great Britain.

Nov. 25. British evacuate New York.

Dec. 22. Washington resigns his commission

1784. *February.* Connecticut and Rhode Island adopt gradual emancipation laws.

March 1. Virginia cedes western claims except Kentucky.

April 23. First (Jefferson's) Territorial Ordinance; not put into operation.

April 30. Commerce Plan, third proposition for amendment of the Articles; authorizing a federal navigation act; fails for lack of ratification Without financial or commercial or coercive powers, Congress is impotent and the Confederation begins to go down.

June 2. New Hampshire constitution against slavery.

1785. *April 19.* Massachusetts cedes western claims. Reserves land titles in western New York

May 20. Jefferson's **Land Ordinance** begins the system of rectangular survey and federal management of the western lands ceded by the States.

1786. Futile negotiations with Spain for the free navigation of the Mississippi River, which the West demands.

Trial of John Fitch's steamboat on the Delaware. In the following year James Rumsey ran a steam craft of another type on the Potomac.

Sept. 14. Connecticut cedes western claims except Western Reserve.

September. **Annapolis Convention,** called by Virginia to consider uniform trade regulations. Only five States send delegates, so it merely proposes another convention.

1786–1787. **Shays's Rebellion** in Massachusetts; the most important of a number of violent disturbances which occur in several States and are due to social, economic, and financial dislocations following the war. Congress feebly tries to raise troops.

1787. *Feb. 21.* Congress issues a formal call for a convention.

May 25. **Federal Convention** meets at Philadelphia; all States but Rhode Island eventually represented. An entirely new constitution is drafted, which provides for a government of three separate departments, and of adequate powers operating directly upon the people; the constitution within its field to be the supreme law of the land.

July 13. **Northwest Territory** is authorized by Congress for the region north of the Ohio River; the beginning of actual territorial governments, which resemble former colonies. **Slavery is prohibited** within the territory.

Sept. 17. Convention submits the Federal Constitution to State conventions for ratification and adjourns.

1787–1788. **Ratification of the Federal Constitution** by eleven conventions: Delaware (December 7, 1787); Pennsylvania (December 12); New Jersey (December 18); Georgia (January 2, 1788); Connecticut (January 9); Massachusetts (February 6); Maryland (April 28); South Carolina (May 23); New Hampshire (June 21); Virginia (June 26); New York (July 26).

1788. **Settlement of the Northwest begins** at Marietta, and the territorial government is established. Kentucky as part of Virginia, and Tennessee as a part of North Carolina, receive many settlers. **Cincinnati** is settled.

EARLY FEDERAL REPUBLIC.

1789. French Revolution; Jefferson, United States minister, a spectator.

Feb. 4. **First voting for president** by the electors; Washington receives all the votes; John Adams, receiving 34 out of 69, becomes vice president.

April 5. **First Congress under the Constitution** is finally organized at New York.

April 30. **George Washington** is inaugurated at New York as **first president.**

June 1. First act of Congress; regulates oaths.

July 4. **First tariff act.**

July 27. Congress creates the **Department of Foreign Affairs (State).** The same session provides a **War Department** (August 7), a **Treasury Department** (September 2), a Postmaster-General (September 22), and an Attorney-General (September 24). The heads of these departments, except that of the Postmaster-General, constitute an unofficial **cabinet.** Thomas Jefferson is the first secretary of state, and Alexander Hamilton the first secretary of the treasury.

Sept. 24. Judiciary Act begins the Federal system of district, circuit, and supreme courts.

Sept. 25. Congress submits to the States twelve amendments to the Constitution, forming a **bill of rights.** Those adopted by the States become the **first ten amendments.** (They appear to have been in force from November 3, 1791.)

Nov. 21. **North Carolina** (12th State) ratifies the Constitution.

1790. Imports, $23,000,000; exports, $20,205,156.

Jan. 14. **Hamilton's** first **report** on public credit is laid before Congress. One of four reports presenting a policy which is adopted and which restores public credit at home and abroad.

May 26. **Territory South of the Ohio** (later Tennessee) is authorized.

May 29. **Rhode Island** (13th State) ratifies the Constitution.

July 16. Act passes for temporary **seat of government** at Philadelphia; permanent capital to be erected on the Potomac.

August. **First U. S. census;** population shown as 3,929,214 (59,557 free Negroes, 697,624 slaves).

Aug. 4. Act for Hamilton's funding plan including assumption of State debts.

1791. *Jan. 1.* Amount of outstanding national debt, $75,463,477.

Feb. 25. Act to incorporate the **Bank of the United States;** a further portion of Hamilton's plan.

March 4. **Vermont** is admitted (14th State); a free State.

1792. *April 2.* Mint Act provides for a **decimal system of coinage** on a bimetallic basis.

May 11. Columbia River is discovered by Captain Robert Gray; first step in U. S. claim to **Oregon country.** Gray is followed by British explorer Vancouver, who sails up the river.

June 1. **Kentucky** is admitted (15th State); a slave State.

November. Second presidential election; Washington receives all of the 132 electoral votes, Adams reëlected vice president with 77 votes. Political parties begin to emerge; Washington, Adams, and Hamilton become **Federalists,** the opponents call themselves **Republicans,** with Jefferson as leader. The division is based on broad (nationalistic) or strict (localistic) interpretation of the Constitution, but is influenced also by foreign relations and social and economic conditions.

1793. **Cotton gin** is invented by Eli Whitney; makes cotton so profitable that antislavery is checked in the South.

Feb. 12. First Fugitive Slave Act.

Feb. 18. In Chisholm *v.* Georgia the Supreme Court holds that a State may be sued in Federal courts. This leads to the **Eleventh Amendment** (in force January 8, 1798).

April 8. **Edmond Genest** arrives as minister from revolutionary France. His conduct and the controversies with Great Britain over carrying out the treaty of 1783 and over neutral rights, accentuate party division.

April 22. Washington issues a **proclamation of neutrality;** new principle of keeping out of war.

Sept. 18. Washington lays the corner stone of the national capitol.

Dec. 31. Jefferson retires from the cabinet.

1794. *Jan. 3.* Madison's commercial resolutions presented; threats of legislation against Great Britain, followed by acts to provide defenses for ports (March 20); arsenals (April 2); increase of army (May 9); and temporary embargo (June 4).

March 27. Appropriation for feeble **beginning of a navy.**

July–October. **Whisky Insurrection** in western Pennsylvania; a frontier protest against the excise. Its suppression by military force, though without a fight, displays the coercive power of the new government.

Aug. 20. Wayne defeats the Indians in Ohio.

Nov. 19. **Jay Treaty** with Great Britain; the terms are humiliating but it prevents war, and is ratified by Senate (June 24, 1795) in spite of strong opposition.

1795. Imports, $69,756,268; exports, $47,989,872.

Jan. 1. National debt, $80,747,587.

Jan. 31. Hamilton retires from the cabinet.

Aug. 3. Treaty of Greenville with the northwestern Indians; most of Ohio is ceded.

Oct. 27. Treaty with Spain: Spain acknowledges boundary of parallel 31°, and grants free navigation and right of deposit on the Mississippi. This and the Indian and British treaties strengthen the Union in the West.

1796. Cleveland is founded in Connecticut Western Reserve.

March 8. In Hylton *v.* United States, first internal-revenue decision, the Supreme Court declares that a tax on carriages is not a direct tax, such as must be apportioned among the States.

June 1. Tennessee is admitted (16th State); a slave State.

Sept. 19. **Washington's Farewell Address** warning especially against entangling foreign alliances and lack of military preparation.

November. Third presidential election. Adams receives 71 of the 138 electoral votes; Jefferson receives 68 and becomes vice president.

1797. *March 4.* **John Adams** inaugurated as second president.

1797–1798. **XYZ Mission** to France, following French retaliation for the Jay Treaty. It fails, and a naval war with France results.

1798. *Jan. 8.* **Eleventh Amendment** is proclaimed. Prevents suits against States, and is a check to broad construction. [permitted.

April 7. Mississippi Territory created; slavery

April 30. Navy Department created; its secretary becomes a member of the cabinet.

June 25, July 14. **Alien and Sedition Acts** to crush the strong Republican opposition to measures unfriendly to France.

August. In Calder *v.* Bull the Supreme Court holds that the prohibition on State *ex post facto* laws has reference to criminal laws only.

Nov. 16, Dec. 24. **Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions** are adopted by legislatures of these States, asserting the right of a State to nullify the Alien and Sedition Acts or other Federal legislation considered unconstitutional. First official statement of the **State-rights theory.**

1799. *March 29.* New York passes a gradual emancipation act.

1800. Imports, $91,252,786; exports, $70,971,780.

Jan. 1. National net debt, $82,976,294.

May 7. Northwest Territory is divided and the western portion becomes Indiana Territory.

May 10. Public Land Act authorizes sales on credit in any quantity.

August. Second U. S. census; population, 5,308,483 (108,435 free Negroes, 893,602 slaves).

Sept. 30. **Treaty** of peace and commerce **with France;** under Bonaparte's influence favorable to the United States.

November. Fourth presidential election: Jefferson and Burr, the Republican candidates, tied with 73 electoral votes each; Adams, 65 votes. House of Representatives **elects Jefferson** (February 17, 1801), **and Burr** becomes vice president. The Republicans, or strict constructionists, also gain control of both houses of Congress.

Nov. 17. **Congress meets in Washington** for the first time.

1801. *Jan. 31.* John Marshall commissioned chief justice of the Supreme Court.

Feb. 13. Judiciary Act passes; the final Federalist effort to strengthen the national government.

March 4. **Thomas Jefferson** takes the oath as third **president;** Madison made secretary of state and Albert Gallatin secretary of the treasury.

May 10. **Tripoli declares war** on the United States over the tribute paid by the United States in common with other commercial nations. Naval exploits, especially the destruction, by Stephen Decatur, of the captured U.S.S. *Philadelphia* on February 15, 1804.

1802. *March 18.* Republican Congress repeals the Judiciary Act of 1801; part of an attempt to make the judiciary amenable to changes of party.

April 24. Georgia cedes claim to all land west of present boundary. The region is added to the territory of Mississippi Territory.

1803. *Feb. 19.* Congress admits Ohio (17th State); free State.

Feb. 24. In Marbury *v.* Madison the Supreme Court upholds the **independence of the judiciary** and asserts its right to declare Federal acts void. Under Marshall the Court continues to maintain the broad interpretation of the Constitution.

April 30. **Louisiana Purchase Treaty.** For $15,000,000 United States buys from France the recently acquired Spanish Louisiana, with badly defined boundaries.

1804. *February.* New Jersey passes a gradual emancipation act, completing group of eight Northern free States.

March 26. Act for Territory of Orleans, embracing the Louisiana Purchase below 33°.

July 14. Vice president **Burr kills Hamilton** in a duel. This leaves the Federalists without capable leadership.

Sept. 25. **Twelfth Amendment** is proclaimed. It requires separate votes for president and vice president, so as to prevent a tie.

November. Fifth presidential election: Jefferson and George Clinton receive 162 electoral votes; C. C. Pinckney and Rufus King, Federalist candidates, 14 votes.

1804–1806. **Lewis and Clark Expedition** up the Missouri, down the Columbia to the Pacific, and return; is a further foundation of the claim to the Oregon country.

1805. Imports, $120,600,000; exports, $95,566,021.

Jan. 1. Net national debt, $82,312,151.

Jan. 11. Indiana Territory is divided and Michigan Territory erected.

March 1. Justice Samuel Chase, impeached by the House of Representatives, is acquitted by the Senate. This strengthens the judiciary and stops impeachments for political reasons.

June 4. Treaty of peace with Tripoli; no reference to tribute.

1806. *March 29.* Policy of internal improvements at Federal expense is inaugurated by an act authorizing the National (Cumberland) Road between the Potomac and the Ohio.

Nov. 21. Berlin Decree is issued by Napoleon; part of the violation of the **rights of neutral trade** by both Great Britain and France. Great Britain impresses American seamen from neutral vessels. Jefferson's retaliatory policy is limited to peaceful coercion by depriving the belligerents of American products and trade.

1806–1807. Z. M. Pike explores the upper reaches of the Mississippi River and penetrates the Rocky Mountains in Colorado.

Burr Conspiracy; a project led by Aaron Burr, intending, probably, an invasion of Mexico, or a settlement of Western lands. Public opinion, led by Jefferson, believes it to be a disunion scheme. Burr tried for treason but acquitted, under a ruling by Marshall (September 1, 1807).

1807. *March 2.* Act to prohibit foreign slave trade; in effect, January 1, 1808.

June 22. H.M.S. *Leopard* fires on, boards, and searches U.S.S. *Chesopeake*, impressing sailors from it. No reparation until 1811.

Aug. 17. **Fulton's** voyage up the Hudson to Albany by **steamboat** *Clermont;* first successful use of a steamboat.

Nov. 17. British order in council answering Berlin Decree; heavier restrictions on neutral trade. [burdens neutral trade.

Dec. 17. Milan Decree by Napoleon further

Dec. 22. **Embargo Act,** the supreme measure of Jefferson's commercial retaliatory policy. American vessels forbidden to leave for foreign ports, and foreign vessels not permitted to take cargo. Affects New England and New York chiefly; is resisted as much as possible; Federalists threaten nullification and secession.

1808. *November.* Sixth presidential election: Madison has 122 votes for president, George Clinton, 113 for vice president; Federalist opponents, Pinckney and King, have 47 votes.

1809. *Feb. 3.* Illinois Territory is created out of Indiana Territory.

Feb. 20. In United States *v.* Peters (Olmstead case), the Supreme Court upholds supremacy of Federal courts over State laws, rebukes Pennsylvania, and declares that a suit nominally against a State agent does not necessarily violate the Eleventh Amendment.

March 1. Jefferson's Embargo Act repealed and **Nonintercourse Act** with Great Britain and France substituted; president may restore intercourse with either belligerent.

March 4. **James Madison** (4th president) takes the oath; virtually his own secretary of state; Gallatin remains secretary of the treasury.

April 19. Through the unauthorized act of Erskine, British minister, intercourse is restored with Great Britain; minister repudiated and intercourse again suspended, August 9. Increased American resentment.

September. First experimental railroad in America, built by John Thomson in Delaware County, Pennsylvania.

1810. Imports, $85,400,000; exports, $66,757,970.

Jan. 1. Net national debt, $53,173,218.

March 16. In Fletcher *v.* Peck arising out of Yazoo claims, Supreme Court holds that the attempt of Georgia to repeal a law creating contract rights impairs the obligation of contracts, contrary to the Federal Constitution.

May 1. Macon Bill No. 2 restores intercourse with Great Britain and France (see March 1, 1809, above) but directs the return to nonintercourse with either nation if the other nation, before the 3rd day of March following, withdraws its restrictions on U. S. commerce.

August. Third U. S. census; population 7,239,881 (186,466 free Negroes, 1,191,362 slaves).

Aug. 5. Nominal withdrawal of French decrees (Berlin and Milan decrees); proves to be a pretense.

Oct. 27. Occupation of West Florida is ordered by presidential proclamation; claimed under Louisiana Purchase Treaty. Region west of Pearl River occupied and added to Territory of Orleans.

Nov. 2. Resumption of nonintercourse with Great Britain to take effect February 1, because of supposed repeal of the French decrees.

1811. House of Representatives for first time adopts the rule of the previous question as a means of checking debate and facilitating legislation.

Astoria is founded by John Jacob Astor's American Fur Company, near the mouth of the Columbia River. Another party dispatched overland (1811–1812) to the post. Beginnings of fur trade in whole region west of the Missouri.

February. Recharter is refused to the Bank of the United States though desired by Gallatin. Removal opens way for unrestrained State banking and paper currency, with disastrous results.

October. **First steamboat on the Mississippi** River begins its initial voyage; important in development of the West.

Nov. 4. Twelfth Congress meets. It is under control of the younger men, especially from the South and West, who demand a strong foreign policy and a development of national resources.

Nov. 7. Battle of **Tippecanoe; Harrison** defeats Tecumseh. Dramatic incident in the steady advance of the frontier line. Indian war erroneously ascribed in the West to British and Spanish intrigue. [State.

1812. *April 8.* Louisiana (18th State); a slave

June 18. **War of 1812** begins by a declaration of war against Great Britain. The ostensible reasons — violation of the rights of neutral trade and impressment — apply equally to France; underlying factors are the failure of the Jeffersonian policy of peaceful commercial coercion, and belief in the West that its future depends on repressing the Indians by acquiring Canada.

Aug. 16. Hull surrenders Detroit to the British. August 19: U.S.S. *Constitution* captures *Guerrière;* the first of the **brilliant ship duels** which help to sustain American spirit in spite of unpreparedness, mismanagement, and failure of land campaigns. October 13: Battle of **Queenston Heights;** British victory. October 18: U.S.S. *Wasp* defeats the *Frolic.* November: Failure of Dearborn's campaign against Montreal and Smyth's against Niagara. October 28: U.S.S. *United States* captures the *Macedonian.*

November. Seventh presidential election: Madison and Elbridge Gerry receive 128 and 131 votes; De Witt Clinton and Jared Ingersoll, Federalists and bolting Republicans, 89 and 86 votes.

Dec. 29. U.S.S. *Constitution* destroys the British frigate *Java.*

1813. *Jan. 22.* Battle of **Raisin River** (Mich.); Indian massacre of American troops.

Feb. 12. Act for occupation of the rest of **West Florida** (to the Perdido), which region is added to Mississippi Territory.

Feb. 24. U.S.S. *Hornet* defeats the *Peacock.* June 1: U.S.S. *Chesapeake* surrenders to the *Shannon;* a mortifying naval defeat. August 14: U.S.S. *Argus* is defeated by the *Pelican.* August 30: Massacre by Creeks at **Fort Mims** (Ala.). Andrew Jackson begins his campaign against the southwestern Indians. September 5: U.S.S. *Enterprise* captures the *Boxer.* September 10: **Perry's** squadron captures a British squadron on **Lake Erie.** This gives American control of the Great Lakes and enables Harrison (October 5) to defeat the British and Indians at the battle of Thames River (Ont.), which ends western fighting. November: Failure of Wilkinson's campaign down the St. Lawrence and Hampton's advance from Plattsburg. During the year the British effectually blockade the American coast.

1814. *March 28.* U.S.S. *Esser* is captured by a squadron at Valparaiso. March 29: Jackson defeats the Creeks at Horseshoe Bend, Ala. April 29: U.S.S. *Peacock* defeats the *Epervier.* June 22: U.S.S. *Rattlesnake* is captured by the *Leander.* June 28: U.S.S. *Wasp* destroys the *Reindeer.* July: Final Niagara campaign begins. Jacob Brown, with Winfield Scott as chief lieutenant, commands the American forces. July 5: Battle of **Chippewa** (American victory). July 25: Battle of **Lundy's Lane** (indecisive). August 15: British assault on **Fort Erie** (opposite Buffalo) is repulsed. August 24: **British,** having defeated the American militia at Bladensburg, the same day **occupy Washington, burn the public buildings,** including the Capitol and White House, and then retire. September 1: U.S.S. *Wasp* sinks the *Avon.* September 3: U.S.S. *Adams* is destroyed to prevent capture. September 11: Prevost's British invasion by way of Lake Champlain repulsed through Macdonough's naval victory off Plattsburg. September 13: British, before Baltimore, bombard Fort McHenry unsuccessfully and retire. During the bombardment the **"Star-Spangled Banner"** is written by Key. November 5: Fort Erie is blown up and Americans again retire from Canada.

Dec. 14–Jan. 5, 1815. **Hartford Convention** culmination of New England opposition to the war and the dying party effort of the Federalists. Policy of **nullification is approved,** various drastic amendments to safeguard New England's interests are proposed, and resistance intimated.

Dec. 24. **Peace of Ghent** is signed; vital causes of the war are ignored, all conquests restored, and commissions to settle disputed boundaries between the United States and Canada au-

1814 *(continued).*
thorized. American right to fish on the British-American coast, enjoyed under the treaty of 1783, is not restored.

NINETEENTH-CENTURY PERIOD.

1815. Imports, $113,041,274; exports, $52,557,753.
Jan. 1. Net national debt, $99,833,660.
Jan. 8. Battle of **New Orleans;** British attack on Jackson's intrenchments repulsed. Jan. 15: U.S.S. *President* captured by squadron. Feb. 20: U.S.S. *Constitution* captures the *Levant* and *Cyane.* March 23: U.S.S. *Hornet* sinks the *Penguin.*
May. Squadron under **Decatur** sails to punish **Algeria** for seizure of vessels and crews. All the **Barbary powers** are forced to renounce their claim to tribute.
July 3. Commercial **treaty with Great Britain.** It does not open British West Indies to American merchant vessels, and the revival of this controversy causes irritation and reprisals until 1830 when the trade is finally opened.

1815–1821. Revolts in Spanish American colonies; new states set up, with which the United States holds commercial intercourse.

1816. National Colonization Society is organized; promoted especially by the Border States to solve the growing **slavery problem** by colonizing the Negroes in Africa. It later founds **Liberia,** but fails to effect appreciable results.
Jan. 1. Net national debt, $127,334,933; largest amount until 1861.
April. In Martin *v.* Hunter's Lessee the Supreme Court reverses the highest Virginia court and holds that its appellate power extends over State court decisions in all cases involving the Federal Constitution, laws of the United States, and treaties.
April 10. **Second Bank of the United States** is chartered. Need of such a bank shown by financial demoralization during the war and unsound banking.
April 27. Tariff Act of 1816. It lays moderate duties, but is a step in the development of the **American system of protection of domestic industries** and the creation of a home market for them by means of internal improvements paid for by tariff revenue.
November. Eighth presidential election; Monroe and D. D. Tompkins have 163 electoral votes; King, the Federalist candidate, 34. Thenceforward Federalist party declines and disappears by 1822.
Dec. 11. Indiana (19th State) admitted without slavery.

1817. *March 3.* Alabama Territory is created out of Mississippi Territory.
March 4. **James Monroe,** the fifth president. His cabinet contains J. Q. Adams as secretary of state, W. H. Crawford as secretary of the treasury, and J. C. Calhoun as secretary of war.
Dec. 10. Mississippi (20th State) admitted as a slave State. Taken with Indiana, the first clear case of admission of free and slave States in pairs.

1818. Cumberland (National) Road is opened to the Ohio River; becomes the great east and west highway.
Oct. 20. **Treaty with Great Britain** restores to the United States the privilege of **fishing** on the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador only, establishes the northern boundary of the **Louisiana** Purchase west of Lake of the Woods, and provides for joint occupation of the Oregon Country.
Dec. 3. Illinois (21st State) admitted as a free State.

1819. First national **financial crisis,** caused by speculation and unrestrained State bank currency and efforts by the Bank of the United States to regulate excess. The Western people are antagonized by this attempt and by various decisions by the Supreme Court, especially in protection of the United States Bank, intended as remedies of the existing evils and to strengthen Federal government by restricting the States.
Feb. 2. In the **Dartmouth College Case** the Supreme Court declares that a charter of incorporation of a benevolent institution is a contract, the obligation of which the Federal Constitution forbids a State to impair.
Feb. 17. In Sturges *v.* Crowninshield the Supreme Court decides that a State insolvency law may impair the obligation of antecedent contracts.
Feb. 22. **Florida Treaty** with Spain is signed. West Florida (already occupied) and East Florida are ceded. United States assumes claims on Spain to amount of $5,000,000, as payment for Florida. All Spanish claims yielded to territory north of 42° (southern boundary of Oregon Country). Western line of Louisiana Purchase is established. [Congress.
March 2. Arkansas Territory is authorized by
March 6. In M'Culloch *v.* Maryland the Supreme Court upholds the rights of Congress to charter the Bank of the United States and holds unconstitutional State attempts to tax the bank.
May 26. The *Savannah,* under sail and steam, leaves Savannah for Liverpool. She crosses in 25 days, the **first transatlantic passage of a steamship.** [slavery.
Dec. 14. Alabama (22d State) admitted, with

1819–1820. Major S. H. Long explores the Great Plains between Canadian River and Platte.

1820. Imports, $74,450,000; exports, $69,691,669; immigrants (first official report), 8,385. Estimated arrivals 1789 to 1820, 250,000.
Jan. 1. National net debt, $91,015,566.
March 3. **Missouri Compromise Act:** Sharp conflict involving the 11 slave States and 11 free States; adjusts first national slavery crisis. Attempt to prohibit slavery in Missouri as condition of admission is defeated, but balance between free and slave States is preserved by providing for the admission of Maine as free and Missouri as slave; **slavery is prohibited** in all the rest of the Louisiana Purchase **north of 36° 30′.** This gives the larger part of cession to the North; but there are no settlers west of the Missouri for many years.
March 15. Maine (23d State) admitted; free.
April 24. **Public Land Act** permits the purchase of tracts of 80 acres or more at a minimum price of $1 25 per acre; abolishes credit system.
August. Fourth U. S. census: population, 9,638,453 (233,634 free Negroes, 1,538,122 slaves).
November. Ninth presidential election: Monroe and Tompkins are virtually unopposed

1821. Russian ukase claiming North American coast south to 51° and exclusive rights in North Pacific Ocean and Bering Sea.
March 3. In Cohens *v.* Virginia the Supreme Court reasserts its appellate jurisdiction and declares that, notwithstanding the Eleventh Amendment, it has jurisdiction on appeal over a case involving a Federal law begun by a State in its own courts against its own citizen.
Aug. 10. Missouri (24th State) finally admitted with slavery.

1822. *March 8.* Monroe sends a message to Congress advising the recognition of the Spanish American states. Congress (May 4) appropriates money for missions to them.

1823. *Dec. 2.* **Monroe Doctrine,** in large part due to John Quincy Adams, announced in president's message to Congress. It warns European nations not to assist Spain in subduing her revolted American colonies; and declares that the American continents are not henceforth "to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers." It also objects to their "political system." Intended in part as rebuke to Russia.

1824. *March 2.* In Gibbons *v.* Ogden the Supreme Court lays down the fundamental principles governing Congress's exclusive control over **interstate commerce,** holding that it includes navigation and does not stop at the boundary of a State.
March 19. In Osborn *v.* Bank of the United States — really a case against Ohio — the Supreme Court declares that the United States has a right to protect the Bank as its agent against the acts of State officials, notwithstanding the Eleventh Amendment.
April 17. Treaty with Russia; no Russian settlements south of 54° 40′, which becomes the recognized **northern boundary of the Oregon Country;** Rocky Mountains remains its eastern line.
April 30. General Survey Act passed, intended to prepare the way for internal improvements of national importance.
May 3. Congress authorizes a national subscription to canal stock. Act to continue the **Cumberland Road** west of the Ohio is passed. The road is planned to run to St. Louis, but, because of the later development of railroads and the reaction against internal improvements, the road is not completed by the United States beyond Springfield, Ohio, and is finally turned over to the States through which it passes.
May 24. First **river and harbor acts** of importance notwithstanding constitutional doubts of Monroe.
Tariff Act of 1824; increases protection and, with the survey and river acts, is a part of Clay's American system. It is opposed by commercial New England (Webster) and the cotton-raising South.
Aug. 15. Lafayette arrives as a guest of the nation. He remains until September 6, 1825.
November. Tenth presidential election: Adams, Calhoun, Clay, Crawford, and Jackson are candidates. Calhoun is elected vice president. As no one has a majority of electoral votes for president, the House of Representatives chooses Adams, who favors the American system.

1825. Imports, $90,189,310; exports, $90,738,333; immigrants, 10,199.
Santa Fe Trail between the Missouri and New Mexico is opened and becomes an important factor in Far Western progress.
W. H. Ashley explores the northern Great Plains.
Jan. 1. National net debt, $83,788,433.
March 4. **John Quincy Adams** sixth president. He makes Clay secretary of state; later unfounded charges made that this was done to reward Clay for his support of Adams for presidency.
Oct. 6. **Erie Canal** is completed. It aids greatly in the development of the West and in the growth of New York City. Its great success encourages other plans for canals connecting the Atlantic waters with those of the Mississippi valley, across Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia; also for connecting the valley with the Great Lakes. Few of them are finished and fewer are financially successful. States accumulate great debts in promoting such works and the Federal government adopts a policy of land grants in aid of construction, beginning on March 2, 1837.

1826. *June.* Panama Congress (see PANAMA).

1826–1829. Jedediah Smith, a fur trader, first explores the Great Basin, California, and southern Oregon Country.

1827. *Feb. 2.* In Martin *v.* Mott the Supreme Court holds that the president is the final judge whether the exigency under which he is authorized to call out the militia has arisen.
March 12. In Brown *v.* Maryland the Supreme Court declares that a State tax on importers is an interference with Federal control over imports, as well as a regulation of foreign commerce, over which Congress has exclusive control.
March 13. In Ogden *v.* Saunders the Supreme Court, changing somewhat its view, declares that a State insolvency law does not impair the obligation of a contract made after the law is enacted.
Aug. 6. Treaty with Great Britain continues the joint occupation in Oregon.
Nov. 15. Final cession of Creek lands in Georgia postpones a crisis between the State and Federal authorities.

1828. Noah Webster publishes his *American Dictionary of the English Language;* an event in English literature.
March 15. In American Insurance Company *v.* Canter the Supreme Court holds that the Federal power to make war and treaties includes the right of annexation, and the power of Congress to govern territories cannot be questioned.
May 19. **Tariff Act of 1828,** called the Tariff of Abominations. It is strongly protective, and the South, especially South Carolina, declaring that the burden of it falls on the slave States, threatens resistance. **Calhoun** writes his **Exposition** (published anonymously), which holds that the Constitution is a compact between sovereign States, each of which is the final judge whether its reserved rights have been infringed upon. This is in direct opposition to the nationalistic theory built up by Marshall through his decisions in the Supreme Court, and revives the **nullification theory** of the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions.
July 4. Construction begins on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.
November. In the eleventh presidential election Jackson receives 178 electoral votes, Calhoun 171 votes for vice president, and Adams and his running mate, Rush, 83 votes.

1829. **First locomotive used in America** is imported from England for the Carbondale and Honesdale (Pa.) Railroad.
March 4. **Andrew Jackson** is inaugurated seventh president. He gradually develops his policy, including strict construction of the Federal Constitution, and superiority of the rights of the people over those of vested interests. "Jackson men" later become known as **Democrats;** their opponents accept the name of **Whigs.** Under Jackson the postmaster-general becomes the sixth member of the cabinet. The **"spoils system"** is introduced into national politics.
March 12. In Craig *v.* Missouri the Supreme Court declares State loan certificates intended for circulation are "bills of credit" and therefore unconstitutional
March 17. In Willson *v.* Blackbird Creek Marsh Co. the Supreme Court accepts a zone of dual commercial control by holding that till Congress acts a State may dam a creek which is navigable from the sea.
March 22. In Providence Bank *v.* Billings the Supreme Court holds that a State tax on a bank chartered by it is not an impairment of the obligation of contract.

1830. Imports of merchandise, $62,720,995; exports of merchandise, $71,670,735; immigrants, 23,322. [since 1804.
Chicago laid out. A Federal post has been there
Jan. 1. National net debt, $48,565,407.
January. **Webster-Hayne debate** in the Senate. Webster expounds Marshall's nationalistic theory of the Federal government; Hayne defends the State-rights doctrine, based on a compact with the United States.
April 13. Jackson in his toast, "Our Federal Union: it must be preserved," warns the nullifiers.
May 27. Jackson vetoes the **Maysville Road Bill,** checking Federal aid to roads and canals. He eventually makes opposition to national internal improvements a Democratic principle.

1830 (*continued*).

May 28. Jackson signs the **Indian Removal Act**, which embodies his policy for the general removal of the Indians to reservations west of the Mississippi. An intermittent war is carried on for years with the Seminoles in Florida over their removal. Georgia's controversy with the Creeks and Cherokees involves her loyalty to the Union.

June. Fifth U.S. Census; population 12,866,020 (319,599 free Negroes, 2,009,043 slaves).

August. Peter Cooper's **locomotive** runs on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad; first successful use in the U. S. of steam in railroad transportation.

SLAVERY CONTROVERSY.

1831. *Jan. 1.* W. L. Garrison establishes the *Liberator* at Boston. It is the organ of those who demand the immediate **abolition of slavery**, and is influential in arousing the people on the evils of the slavery system.

Jan. 10. The king of the Netherlands makes award as arbiter of the Northeastern Boundary dispute; the award is not accepted by the United States nor insisted on by Great Britain.

March 18. In Cherokee Nation *v.* Georgia the Supreme Court denies the right of an Indian tribe to sue in the Federal courts, because it is not a foreign nation.

August. **Nat Turner's Insurrection** in Southampton, Va.; the most important of several Negro risings which influence public opinion on the dangers of slavery.

1832. Oregon Trail from the Missouri River at Independence, via the Platte and Snake valleys to the mouth of the Columbia, comes into use as the main route of American settlement of the Oregon Country.

Black Hawk War in Illinois and Wisconsin results from pressure of the whites on the Indians and resistance to the policy of trans-Mississippi removal. Abraham Lincoln serves as a captain.

March 3. Marshall for the Supreme Court in Worcester *v.* Georgia declares that the Federal government has exclusive authority over **tribal Indians** and their lands within a State. Georgia defies the court's mandate and Jackson declines to enforce it. The Cherokees are finally forced to cede their lands (December 29, 1835) and remove to Indian Territory where the other four Civilized Tribes (Creeks, Chickasaws, Choctaws, and Seminoles) are already located.

July 10. Jackson vetoes a bill to **recharter the Bank of the United States** for 20 years from 1836, thus making the Bank the main issue of the election. This is an episode in the "Bank War." Jackson opposes the power of the Bank in public affairs. The Bank defends itself by literature and some doubtful methods. In part the Bank becomes an East *v.* West question.

July 14. Tariff Act of 1832 continues the protective duties so obnoxious to the South.

November. Twelfth presidential election: Jackson receives 219 electoral votes and Van Buren 189 votes for vice president; Clay and John Sergeant (National Republicans or Whigs), 49 votes.

Nov. 24. **South Carolina Nullification Ordinance** against the tariff act; prepares to resist collection of duties.

Dec. 10. Jackson's proclamation against nullification, which he calls disunion.

1833. *February.* Debate on nullification between Webster and Calhoun, who denies that the national government can be a party to a compact with States.

Feb. 16. In Barron *v.* Baltimore the Supreme Court decides that the Federal courts have no jurisdiction over State impairment of civil rights by virtue of the first eight constitutional amendments, which apply to the Federal government only. This construction stands until the **Fourteenth Amendment** (1868) gives the Federal courts such jurisdiction.

March 2. Clay's **Compromise Tariff** Act, calling for a gradual reduction to a revenue basis in 1842. A Force Act is also passed to furnish means for controlling the recalcitrant State. The South Carolinians accept this inasmuch as other Southern States fail to support South Carolina. Jackson pockets a bill to distribute the proceeds of public land sales which is part of the compromise.

March 15. South Carolina repeals the Nullification Ordinance, though adhering to the doctrine.

Oct. 1. Jackson orders the **removal of the Federal deposits** from the Bank of the United States; Secretary Duane resigns rather than carry out the policy; his successor, Taney, gives desired order.

Dec. 4. American Antislavery Society is organized at Boston by **Garrison**. Becomes a center of antislavery activity.

1834. C. H. McCormick patents the horse reaper.

1835. Imports of merchandise, $136,764,295; exports of merchandise, $115,215,802; immigrants, 45,374.

Samuel Colt patents the revolver.

Jan. 1. National net debt is virtually extinguished; problem of surplus revenue at once arises.

1836. *March 2.* **Texas declares her independence** from Mexico. The settlers are mainly Americans. She desires "reannexation" to the United States, but receives recognition (March 3, 1837) instead.

March 15. Roger B. Taney succeeds Marshall as chief justice of the Supreme Court. Thereafter the decisions of the court tend toward a stricter construction of Federal powers and an amplification of police powers of the States; the fundamental principles of real Federal authority, established by Marshall's decisions, are not disturbed.

April 20. Wisconsin Territory is set up out of Michigan Territory; it includes a portion of the trans-Mississippi region.

May 26. First Gag Resolution, to prevent the reception of antislavery petitions, is adopted by the House of Representatives, and frequently renewed until 1844.

June 15. Arkansas (25th State), admitted with slavery.

June 23. **Surplus Revenue Act** for the distribution among the States during 1837 of the accumulated surplus of $36,000,000.

July. Local postal authorities in several Southern places stop and destroy abolition mail; action is countenanced but not officially sanctioned by the department.

July 11. Jackson issues a **Specie Circular**, requiring that public land payments be made in coin.

November. Thirteenth presidential election: Van Buren, Jackson's chosen successor, receives 170 electoral votes out of 294. R. M. Johnson has 147 votes for vice president; Senate elects him.

1837. *Jan. 9.* Jackson's special message shows interest of the United States in an **Isthmian Canal.**

Jan. 26. Michigan is admitted (26th State); free State.

February. Three decisions of the Supreme Court mark a retirement from extreme nationalism. In New York *v.* Miln the court validates a State law requiring ship captain to present an account of his passengers from abroad. In Briscoe *v.* Bank of Kentucky (February 11), circulating notes of a bank wholly owned by the State are held not to be issued by the State itself and hence are not bills of credit. In Charles River Bridge *v.* Warren Bridge (February 14) the court declares that a State charter of a toll bridge is not a contract preventing a rival charter.

March 4. **Martin Van Buren** becomes the eighth president.

May 10. **Panic of 1837** begins. It is caused by a period of wild speculation; reckless loans by the "pet banks" which have received the Federal funds on deposit, and other State banks; and the mortgaging of the future for internal improvements.

Sept. 4. Twenty-fifth Congress meets in special session to consider the financial situation. As nearly as can be calculated, 34 Democrats and 18 Whigs attend in the Senate, and 126 Democrats and 116 Whigs in the House.

Oct. 2. Fourth installment of distribution of the surplus revenue is suspended because of extensive bank failures.

Oct. 12. $10,000,000 in treasury notes authorized to tide the government over the crisis. This starts a new debt, which becomes permanent.

1838. *Great Western* and *Sirius* cross the Atlantic under steam power alone.

June 12. Iowa Territory created out of that part of Wisconsin Territory west of the Mississippi.

1839. E. B. Bigelow develops the carpet loom.

December. In preparation for the national campaign, Whigs and, later (May 31, 1840), Democrats hold **national nominating conventions.**

Dec. 2. Twenty-sixth Congress meets; in the Senate, 27 Democrats and 20 Whigs; in the House, 120 Democrats and 113 Whigs.

1840. Imports of merchandise, $98,258,706; exports of merchandise, $123,668,932; immigrants, 84,066.

Jan. 1. National net debt, $3,573,344.

June. Sixth U. S. census; population, 17,069,453 (386,293 free Negroes, 2,487,355 slaves).

July 4. **Independent Treasury**, or Subtreasury, Act; Democratic substitute for a central bank. It provides for the keeping of Federal funds under direct control of government officials.

November. Fourteenth presidential election: Harrison and Tyler, Whigs, receive 234 electoral votes; Van Buren and Johnson, 60 and 48 votes; a national antislavery party, the Liberty party, casts 7,000 popular votes for Birney.

1841. *March 4.* **William Henry Harrison**, ninth president; first Whig administration. Webster is secretary of state.

April 4. Harrison dies; **John Tyler** succeeds as tenth president.

May 31. Twenty-seventh Congress meets in special session to enact a Whig program. In the Senate are 23 Democrats and 29 Whigs; in the House 98 Democrats and 144 Whigs.

July 21. A small government loan; others and more issues of treasury notes follow. Except in 1839 expenditures exceed receipts during the period 1837–1843.

Aug. 13. Independent Treasury Act is repealed by the Whigs.

Aug. 16. Tyler vetoes the Whig "Fiscal Bank" Bill on constitutional grounds. Indications of a split in Whig ranks follow.

Aug. 19. Federal Bankruptcy Act, but the same Congress later repeals it.

Sept. 4. Act for **preëmption of public lands** and distribution of the proceeds of public land sales among the States. Settlers once only may preëmpt 160 acres at $1.25 an acre. The distribution of proceeds is to discontinue if tariff rates go above twenty per cent.

Sept. 9. President's veto of a "Fiscal Corporation" Bill causes a **split among Whig leaders;** all the cabinet but Webster resign in a body.

Sept. 11. Temporary tariff act to increase the revenue.

1842. Dorr Rebellion in Rhode Island; a protest against the undemocratic constitution of the State. Dorr is convicted of treason, but a new constitution is put through.

March 1. In Prigg *v.* Pennsylvania the Supreme Court declares that State laws contrary to the Fugitive-Slave Law of 1793 are void; but that State authorities are under no obligation to assist in the enforcement of the law.

March 4. In Dobbins *v.* Commissioners the Supreme Court holds that a State cannot tax the salary or emoluments of a Federal officer.

June 29, Aug. 9. Tyler vetoes new tariff bills that are tangled with the distribution of land revenue.

Aug. 9. **Ashburton Treaty** signed with Great Britain. It settles the northeastern boundary dispute, which threatens war, by a compromise line.

Aug. 20. **Tariff Act of 1842;** a protective measure without any distribution of proceeds of public lands. Tyler has prevented the reëstablishment of a Federal bank and disrupted the Whig program; but national internal improvements continue and the Whigs adhere to their policy of national banking control and protection.

1842–1846. John C. Frémont conducts several **expeditions** which explore the Great Plains, Rocky Mountains, Great Basin, California, and southern Oregon country.

1843. *Dec. 4.* Twenty-eighth Congress meets; 23 Democrats and 29 Whigs in the Senate, and 141 Democrats and 82 Whigs in the House.

1844. *Jan. 6.* Texan Annexation Treaty signed: would make Texas a State, but public lands to go to the national government.

May 24. **Magnetic telegraph,** invented by S. F. B. Morse, is first brought into practical use between Baltimore and Washington, the Federal government having provided the funds for constructing the line.

June 9. Senate rejects the Texan treaty, partly because Texas is slaveholding, though the movement for annexation is not primarily intended to extend slavery.

June 15. Charles Goodyear patents the process of vulcanizing India rubber.

June 27. In a riot against the **Mormons** at Nauvoo, Ill., their prophet, **Joseph Smith,** is killed. **Brigham Young** succeeds as leader. The Mormons are driven from the State, and shortly afterwards migrate to Great Salt Lake, then Mexican territory.

November. Fifteenth presidential election: Texas and sole control over all of Oregon Country are issues in the campaign; Polk (favoring annexation) and G. M. Dallas receive 170 electoral votes, Clay and Theodore Frelinghuysen, the Whigs, 105; Birney, the Liberty party candidate, polls 62,000 popular votes, and his adherents throw their balance of power in New York against Clay, which causes his defeat.

1845. Imports of merchandise, $113,184,322; exports of merchandise, $106,040,111; immigrants, 114,371.

March 1. Joint resolution of Congress for the **annexation of Texas,** less favorable to the United States than the abandoned treaty.

March 3. Florida (27th State) is admitted, with slavery.

March 4. **James Knox Polk** is inaugurated as eleventh president.

July 1. National net debt, $15,925,303.

Dec. 1. Twenty-ninth Congress meets: 30 Democrats and 24 Whigs in the Senate, 141 Democrats, 77 Whigs, and 6 Native Americans in the House.

Dec. 29. Texas (28th State) admitted with slavery, making 15 slave States to 13 free. United States troops under Zachary Taylor have already been sent to protect the region. Polk adopts the Texas claim to the Rio Grande as her boundary. Mexico declines to acknowledge the independence of the new State and hangs back on the payment of adjusted claims. On the annexation of Texas, Mexico threatens war and denies that Texas extends to the Rio Grande.

1845 (*continued*).

December–March, 1846. **Slidell Mission** to Mexico, a futile effort to adjust the Texan boundary as an offset to claims, and to purchase California.

1846. *March 28.* Taylor's force occupies the strip between the Nueces and Rio Grande. April 24: **Mexican War is begun** by an attack by Mexicans on the north side of the river. May 8, 9: Battles of **Palo Alto** and **Resaca de la Palma**; Mexicans driven across the Rio Grande.

May 9. Polk has decided to send in a war message when news comes of the fight on April 24, and so he declares in his message of May 11 that Mexicans have "shed American blood upon American soil."

May 13. Congress declares that **war exists by the act of Mexico** and authorizes the raising of volunteers.

May 18. Taylor crosses the Rio Grande and occupies Matamoros.

June 15. **Treaty** is signed with Great Britain adjusting Oregon; the United States confirmed in the portion south of 49°.

July 7. Commodore Sloat occupies Monterey, California. Later, a military government is established over California.

July 30. **Tariff Act of 1846**; a revenue measure with a high duty on luxuries only.

Aug. 6. Act reëstablishing the Independent Treasury.

Aug. 8. **Wilmot Proviso** passes the House; prohibits slavery in any territory to be acquired from Mexico, and though in its origin directly the result of sectional difference in the Democratic party, it is evidence of strong sentiment against slavery; defeated in the Senate, but for the next four years it is a political issue.

Aug. 18. Kearny, after an overland march, occupies Santa Fe. He organizes a temporary government for New Mexico. [chine.

Sept. 10. Elias **Howe** patents the **sewing ma-**

Sept. 24. Taylor occupies Monterey, Mexico, after a three days' battle.

Sept. 30. W. T. G. Morton uses **ether** successfully as an anæsthetic.

Dec. 12. Treaty with New Granada (Colombia): freedom of transit on Isthmus of Panama given to United States; in return, neutrality of Isthmus and Colombia's sovereignty over it are guaranteed by United States.

Dec. 28. Iowa admitted (29th State); free State.

1847. Richard M. **Hoe** invents the rotary **printing press.**

Feb. 22–23. Taylor's victory at **Buena Vista.**

March 6. In License Cases the Supreme Court hands down the opinion that a State license to sell liquor is legal even though the liquor comes from outside the State.

March 9. Army under Winfield **Scott** lands before Vera Cruz. March 29: **Vera Cruz surrenders.** Scott marches against the Mexican capital, defeating **Santa Anna** in various battles: Cerro Gordo (April 18); Contreras (August 19–20); Churubusco (August 20); Molino del Rey (September 8); capture of Chapultepec and assault on gates of Mexico City (September 13). **Occupation of Mexico City** follows.

Dec. 6. Thirtieth Congress meets: 32 Democrats and 22 Whigs in the Senate and 110 Democrats, 117 Whigs, and 1 Native American in the House. Abraham **Lincoln** a member from Illinois.

1848. In West River Bridge Co. *v.* Dix the Supreme Court decides that the exercise of the State right of eminent domain which takes over a franchise does not impair the obligation of contracts.

Jan. 24. **Gold is discovered** near Sutter's Mill **in California.** A great immigration by land and sea follows (**"forty-niners"**), with pressure for quick organization of civil government.

Feb. 2. **Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo** is signed with Mexico. Rio Grande recognized as the boundary and New Mexico and California ceded. United States pays Mexico $15,000,000 and assumes claims.

May 29. Wisconsin (30th State) free; balance of free and slave States restored. [ment laid

July 4. Corner stone of Washington Monu-

Aug. 14. Oregon is organized as a territory, slavery being forbidden.

Nov. 7. Sixteenth presidential election: Taylor, nominated by the Whigs as a war hero and on no platform, and Fillmore receive 163 votes; Lewis Cass and W. O. Butler, the Democratic candidates, 127 votes; **Free-soil party**, composed of former Liberty party, Wilmot Proviso men, and factional New York Democrats ("Barnburners"), nominates Martin Van Buren, who polls 291,000 popular votes, but carries no State.

1849. *Jan. 3.* In Luther *v.* Borden, a case arising out of the Dorr Rebellion, the Supreme Court holds that the question what is a State government under the Federal Constitution is political and not judicial; hence the decision of the executive is followed.

January–March. Struggle in Congress over organization of the new territory; South claims the extension of 36° 30' line to the Pacific, dividing California.

Feb. 7. In the Passenger Cases the Supreme Court disallows a State law requiring payment for each alien landed, as a regulation of foreign commerce.

March 3. Act for Department of the Interior; its head becomes the seventh member of the cabinet. Minnesota Territory is established.

March 5. **Zachary Taylor** is inaugurated as twelfth president.

September. Volunteer constitutional convention in California asks admission as a free State covering the Pacific coast from Oregon to Mexico.

Dec. 3. Thirty-first Congress assembles: 34 Democrats, 24 Whigs, and 2 Free-soilers in the Senate, and 112 Democrats, 105 Whigs, and 13 Free-soilers in the House. Main question is whether slavery shall go into the new territory; Taylor opposes the extension.

1849–1851. Filibustering expeditions against Cuba; the leader, López, is executed by the Spaniards on September 1, 1851.

1850. Imports of merchandise, $173,509,526; exports of merchandise, $144,375,726; immigrants, 369,980 (15 months).

April 19. **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty** with Great Britain. Acquisition of California has made the transit across the Isthmus important to the United States; and the British show intention of fixing themselves there. Treaty is a recognition of equal interest in any canal or line of transit on the principle of guarantee of neutrality.

May 3. In Fleming *v.* Page the Supreme Court declares that conquest gives a valid title; conquered annexed territory is, as regards other countries, a part of the United States, but is not a part of the Union until the Constitution and laws have been extended to it.

June. Seventh U.S. census; population, 23,191,876 (434,495 free Negroes, 3,204,313 slaves).

July 1. National net debt, $63,452,774.

July 9. President Taylor dies.

July 10. **Millard Fillmore** succeeds as thirteenth president.

September. **Compromise of 1850** is effected by the passage of several separate acts: (1) September 9: Texas cedes her claim to the eastern portion of New Mexico and receives a Federal indemnity; New Mexico is organized as a territory, without provision respecting slavery, the people of the territory to decide the question when ready for statehood — practically an invitation to slaveholders to carry slaves into the territory. (2) September 9: California (31st State), admitted free and with the boundaries claimed. (3) September 9: Utah Territory erected with the same conditions respecting slavery as those for New Mexico; expected that it will be free. (4) September 18: A new and drastic **Fugitive-Slave Law**; intended to check organized assistance to fugitives (Underground Railroad). (5) September 20: Slave trade forbidden in the District of Columbia.

Sept. 20. First act of Congress making land grants in aid of the construction of railroads (Illinois Central).

1851. *Feb. 15.* Rescue in Boston of Shadrach, a fugitive slave.

March 3. Congress reduces **letter postage** to three cents per half ounce for carriage up to 3,000 miles.

June 2. Maine Law prohibits the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors in that State; repealed, 1856; reënacted, 1858.

July 4. Fillmore lays the corner stone of the extension of the Capitol.

Dec. 1. Thirty-second Congress: 35 Democrats, 24 Whigs, and 3 Free-soilers in the Senate, and 140 Democrats, 88 Whigs, and 5 Free-soilers in the House.

1852. Harriet Beecher Stowe publishes *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a novel which influences Northern public opinion against slavery.

Vermont adopts prohibition: in force, with modifications, until 1903, when local option is substituted.

March 2. In Cooley *v.* Port Wardens the Supreme Court declares that State regulation of pilots and pilotage is not beyond the power of the State so long as Congress has not acted.

May 27. In Pennsylvania *v.* Wheeling Bridge Co., however, the court discountenances a bridge across the Ohio River, under State law, as being an obstruction to undisturbed interstate or foreign commerce, which is subject to interruption by act of Congress only.

Nov. 2. Seventeenth presidential election: Whigs and Democrats accept the Compromise of 1850 as a "finality" and try to suppress the slavery issue. The Whig candidates, General Scott and W. A. Graham, receive only 42 electoral votes, to 254 given Pierce and W. R. King, their Democratic rivals. Free Democrats (Free-soilers) poll 156,000 popular votes.

1853. Chicago is connected by links of railroad with New York and Boston.

March 2. Washington Territory set off from Oregon Territory.

March 4. **Franklin Pierce** becomes the fourteenth president. In his inaugural he declares for the annexation of Cuba.

Dec. 5. Thirty-third Congress meets: 37 Democrats, 21 Whigs, and 2 Free-soilers in the Senate, and 159 Democrats, 71 Whigs, and 4 Free-soilers in the House.

Dec. 30. **Gadsden Purchase Treaty** with Mexico; for $10,000,000 a strip transferred over which the southern route of the proposed Pacific Railroad would pass.

1854. *Feb. 28.* Steamer *Black Warrior* seized by Cuban authorities. Southerners try to use the incident to obtain the island from Spain, but are checked by conditions at home.

March 31. Commodore **Perry's treaty with Japan** is signed; ends the isolation of that nation.

May 25. In Cross *v.* Harrison the Supreme Court holds that the civil government established in conquered territory as a belligerent right legally continues after peace in acquired territory until Congress legislates otherwise.

May 26. Burns fugitive slave incident in Boston; attempt of an antislavery mob to storm the courthouse. Several new personal-liberty laws are passed by Northern States to hinder the operation of the Federal law of 1850.

May 30. **Kansas-Nebraska Act.** Framed by Stephen A. Douglas for the organization of Kansas and Nebraska territories on the principle of "popular sovereignty"; thus the prohibition of slavery in the Louisiana Purchase, embodied in the Missouri Compromise, is "suspended" by the "principle" of the Compromise of 1850. This uprooting of the adjustment of 1820 starts another contest over slavery, which ends only with the Civil War and emancipation.

June 5. Treaty of **reciprocity** with **Canada** is signed; in return for free entry of Canadian raw materials the rights of inshore fisheries are confirmed and increased.

July 6. One of the numerous conventions to protest against the Kansas-Nebraska Act, held at Jackson, Mich., gives its attendants the name of Republicans, which speedily becomes the name of a new national party.

Oct. 18. **Ostend Manifesto** is issued by the American ministers to London, Paris, and Madrid; declares that self-protection may require the seizure of Cuba, in order to maintain slavery in United States.

November. Fierce struggle in congressional elections. **Know-Nothing party** organized. Many anti-Nebraska and fusion candidates elected.

1854–1856. Struggle in Kansas between free-State and slave-State settlers becomes a miniature civil war. Proslavery element gets possession of the territorial government and has the support of the administration. Free-State men set up a separate government at Lawrence, which town is twice attacked. Free-State men, especially John Brown, make reprisals.

1855. Imports of merchandise, $257,808,708; exports of merchandise, $218,909,503; immigrants, 200,877. In 1854 there were 427,833 immigrants. Panama Railroad is opened.

New Hampshire adopts prohibition; in force until 1903, when local option is substituted.

July 1. National net debt, $35,586,957.

Dec. 3. Thirty-fourth Congress assembles. Nearly even balance of forces; contest over the speakership lasts until February 2, when Banks of Massachusetts is chosen. In the Senate, 34 administration Democrats and 25 in opposition. In the House there are at first 116 administration men; the opposition numbers 117, made up of a few Whigs and anti-Nebraska or **Republican party** men, Native Americans or Know-Nothing men, and antislavery Democrats. The Republicans stand in opposition to territorial slavery; to annexation of slaveholding regions; and to the admission of slave States; not for the abolition of slavery within the existing slave States. "Bleeding Kansas" is the chief topic before Congress.

1855–1859. Paraguayan controversy (see PARAGUAY).

1856. *Nov. 4.* Eighteenth presidential election: 174 electoral votes for Buchanan and J. C. Breckinridge, the Democratic candidates; 114 for the Republicans, J. C. Frémont and W. L. Dayton; and 8 for Fillmore, who ran as a Know-Nothing and Whig.

1857. *Impending Crisis of the South* is published by H. R. Helper, a Southern poor white, appealing against slavery as bad for the white man. The ruling Southern classes now assert that slavery is "a positive good," and entitled to Federal protection in the territories and foreign policy. Suggestions of reopening the slave trade.

March 3. **Tariff Act of 1857**: follows the plan of 1846, but further reduces duties; is accepted by

1857 (*continued*).
members voting from Massachusetts and South Carolina. During the years 1850–1856 the ordinary revenues have exceeded the ordinary expenditures by $80,000,000.

March 4. **James Buchanan** fifteenth president.

March 5. Chief Justice **Taney** delivers the decision of the majority of the Supreme Court in the **Dred Scott Case,** declaring the Missouri Compromise to have been always unconstitutional, as contrary to the inherent right of any man to take slave " property " into a territory. The decision also asserts that no person of African descent can be a citizen of the United States and as such entitled to bring suit. The decision is also contrary to the popular sovereignty theory of the Kansas-Nebraska Act and opens all territories to slavery.

Aug. 24. **Panic of 1857** begins; increase of gold and the rapid extension of railroads are underlying causes. The government surplus becomes a deficit ($63,000,000 for 1857–1861), and treasury notes and bonds are issued.

Nov. 7. A proslavery convention in Kansas frames the **Lecompton Constitution,** so worded as to permit slavery either directly or indirectly, no matter how the settlers vote on the document.

Dec. 7. Thirty-fifth Congress organizes: Senate has 39 Democrats, 20 Republicans, and 5 Know-Nothings; House, 131 Democrats, 92 Republicans, and 14 Know-Nothings. A long struggle ensues over the settlement of the Kansas question.

1858. Mormon War: Federal troops suppress the attempt of Brigham Young and his followers in Utah to defy the general government.

May 4. English Act of Congress adjusts the Kansas difficulty; offers admission to Kansas at once with the Lecompton Constitution; otherwise it must wait until it has population necessary for one representative. Free-State men having gained control, the constitution is rejected. This act is the high-water mark of proslavery in Congress. Later efforts for annexation of Cuba and negotiations with Mexico favorable to slavery fail.

May 11. Minnesota (32d State) free State (17 free to 15 slave).

Aug. 16. Communication established over the new **Atlantic cable,** but it soon ceases to work.

August–October. The **Lincoln-Douglas joint debates** in Illinois over the slavery issue attract great attention. Lincoln's arguments make him a national figure and furnish proof that the Republican principles are not revolutionary. Douglas's presentation of the Freeport Doctrine, by which the Dred Scott decision may be avoided by adroit use of popular sovereignty costs him the confidence of the South.

1859. First oil well is sunk on Oil Creek, Pa.; the beginning of the petroleum industry.
Silver discovered in the **Comstock lode,** Nevada.

Feb. 14. Oregon (33d State) admitted free; no new slave States in sight, territorial slavery no longer helpful.

March 7. In Ableman *v.* Booth the Supreme Court declares that Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850 is constitutional and that the jurisdiction over it is entirely in the Federal courts; efforts of State courts to obstruct it are illegal.

Oct. 16–18. **John Brown's raid** at Harpers Ferry, Va. A party of 19 Abolitionists seize the government arsenal as an armed position to which slaves may rally; put down by State and Federal troops. Brown is hanged on December 2. The South convinced that the constitutional rights of State slavery will not be respected by the Republican party, which is confounded with the Abolitionists.

Dec. 5. Thirty-sixth Congress meets. In the Senate are 37 Democrats, 24 Republicans, and 2 Americans; in the House, 101 Democrats, 109 Republicans, 26 Americans, and 1 Whig; 13 of the Democrats are antiadministration and 22 of the Americans are from slave States. House is not able to elect a Speaker until February 1, when Pennington, a Republican, is chosen.

1860. Imports of merchandise, $353,616,119; exports of merchandise, $333,576,057; immigrants, 150,237.

May 14. **First Japanese embassy** is received at Washington.

June. Eighth U. S. census; population 31,443,321 (448,070 free Negroes, 3,953,760 slaves).

July 1. National net debt, $59,964,402.

Nov. 6. **Nineteenth presidential election:** Lincoln and Hannibal Hamlin, the Republican candidates, receive 180 electoral votes. The Democratic party splits on the question of territorial slavery; Douglas and H. V. Johnson receive 12 electoral votes; J. C. Breckinridge and Joseph Lane, the Southern candidates, receive 72 votes. John Bell and Edward Everett, nominated as Constitutional Unionists (former Whigs and Know-Nothings), receive 39 votes. Republicans do not have a majority in the next Congress.

Dec. 4. Buchanan in his annual message denies the right of secession, but throws the responsibility for disunion on the North, and sees no constitutional method of resisting secession.

Dec. 18. **Crittenden Compromise** is introduced in the Senate. This and other efforts during the session, snpported by the Unionists and especially by the Border States, fail because the cotton States are bent upon secession, and on the other side Lincoln, president elect, advises against any concession on territorial slavery or new slave States, and the Republicans will not yield.

Dec. 20. **South Carolina** Convention passes an **Ordinance of Secession** from the Union on the ground that the Federal compact has been violated by Northern antislavery action.

CIVIL WAR.

1861. Telegraphic communication is opened across the continent.

Jan. 9. A South Carolina battery fires on the *Star of the West,* which is trying to reënforce the Federal garrison at Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor.

January–February. Six other **cotton States secede:** Mississippi (January 9); Florida (January 10); Alabama (January 11); Georgia (January 19); Louisiana (January 26); Texas (February 1). Border States hold off.

Jan. 29. Kansas (34th State) admitted free; the withdrawal of Southern Congressmen makes the vote possible.

Feb. 4–27. Peace Convention holds its sessions in Washington, a final effort by the Unionists. Congress submits to the States (March 2) the "Corwin Amendment" to the Constitution for the safety of slavery within States. It is not ratified.

Feb. 4–March 16. **Montgomery Convention** holds its sessions of delegates of the seceding States, becoming the first meeting of the Provisional Congress. **Confederate States of America** established with a temporary government, and **Jefferson Davis** and Alexander H. Stephens are inaugurated as provisional president and vice president (February 18). A permanent constitution, with definite recognition of slavery and State-rights, is submitted on March 17 to the States.

Feb. 28. Colorado Territory is created.

March 2. **Morrill Tariff Act** marks the revival of protection, under a plank in the Republican platform, and also provides a needed increase in revenue.
Nevada and Dakota territories are established.

March 4. **Abraham Lincoln** sixteenth president. In his inaugural address he denies the right of secession and promises to protect the Federal property and collect Federal revenue everywhere. William H. Seward as secretary of state, Salmon P. Chase as secretary of the treasury, Gideon Welles as secretary of the navy, and later, E. M. Stanton as secretary of war, are the important members of the great war cabinet.

April 12. Confederates open fire on **Fort Sumter.** It surrenders on April 14. On April 15 Lincoln calls out 75,000 militia.

April 17. Virginia begins the **secession of the Border States.** She is followed by Arkansas (May 6), Tennessee (May 6), North Carolina (May 20). Similar efforts in Missouri, Kentucky, and Maryland fail In Delaware, the other slave State, no attempt is made. Federal property in the seceding States is seized, notably the arsenal at Harpers Ferry (April 18) and the Norfolk Navy Yard (April 19). The Union retains control of four coast forts in the South including Fort Monroe (Va.) and Fort Pickens (Fla.).

April 19. **First blood of the Civil War** is shed at Baltimore in a mob attack on Union militia *en route* to Washington.

April 19. Lincoln proclaims a **blockade** of the Confederate coast, which is a recognition of the Confederates as belligerents and forestalls opposition to such recognition by neutral nations.

April 27. Lincoln authorizes General Scott to suspend writ of habeas corpus between Philadelphia and Washington; an illegal or extralegal act which Taney sharply condemns in *Ex parte* Merryman on May 27.

April 29–May 21. Second session of the Confederate Provisional Congress is held at Montgomery; a volunteer force of unlimited size is authorized, $50,000,000 worth of bonds and treasury notes voted, a tariff framed, the capital moved to Richmond, the existence of war recognized, and letters of marque authorized.

May 3. Lincoln issues a call for 42,000 volunteers for three years, and increases the regular army and navy; extralegal acts which later Congress sanctions.

May 13. Great Britain recognizes the belligerency of the Confederate States. France takes a similar step about a month later.

June 3. Action at Philippi, W. Va.; initial success of Union forces in that region under McClellan. June 10: Engagement at Big Bethel, Va.; Butler's Union troops are defeated. A few days later he declares **slaves** who have come within his lines to be **"contraband of war."** June 17: Action at Boonville, Mo.; Lyon disperses the forces of the Confederate governor.

July 1. National net debt, $87,718,661.

July 4. Extra session of Thirty-seventh Congress convenes; 11 Democrats, 31 Republicans, and 7 Unionists in the Senate, and 44 Democrats, 106 Republicans, and 28 Unionists in the House.

July 5. Action at Carthage, Mo.; the Unionists under Sigel defeated. July 11: Action at Rich Mountain, Va.; Union success.

July 17. Federal war financing begins: $250,000,000 in bonds and treasury notes.

July 20–Aug. 31. Third session of Confederate Congress is held at Richmond; issue of treasury notes and bonds is increased to $100,000,000; direct tax of one half per cent is laid, and alien enemy and sequestration acts are passed.

July 21. First battle of **Bull Run** or Manassas. Federal troops under McDowell routed by the Confederates under J. E. Johnston and Beauregard. No further Union advances are attempted for six months. McClellan put in command of the Army of the Potomac.

July 22. 500,000 Federal volunteers are authorized by Congress.

Aug. 5. Direct tax of $20,000,000 on the States; income tax of 3 per cent.

Aug. 10. Battle of Wilson's Creek, Mo.; Confederates under Price defeat Lyon, who is killed. August 29: Hatteras and Ocracoke inlets, N. C., occupied by Union military and naval forces. September 20: Surrender of Lexington, Mo., to Price. October 21: Battle of **Ball's Bluff** on the Potomac; Confederate victory.

Nov. 6. First and only presidential election in the Confederacy; Davis and Stephens elected.

Nov. 7. Port Royal, S. C., is captured by the Union forces under Du Pont and Gen. T. W. Sherman. Battle of Belmont, Mo.; Union troops under Grant capture the enemy's camp, but are forced to retire.

Nov. 8. Slidell and Mason, Confederate commissioners, are taken from the British steamer **Trent** by Capt. Wilkes, U. S. N. Great Britain threatens war; Lincoln disavows the action and releases the prisoners (December 26). (See TRENT AFFAIR, in the *Dictionary.*)

Dec. 31. General suspension of specie payments by the banks; not resumed until 1879.

1862. Gold, lowest price for year, 100; highest, 137.

Jan. 19–20. Battle of Mill Springs, Ky.; Federals under Thomas defeat Zollicoffer. February 6: **Fort Henry,** Tenn., captured by Union navy and land force under Grant. February 8: Capture of Roanoke Island, N. C., by Federal troops under Burnside. February 14–16: Capture of **Fort Donelson,** Tenn., by Grant; fall of the two forts opens the way for invasion of southwestern portion of Confederacy.

Feb. 18–April 21. First session of regular Confederate Congress; Draft Act (April 16).

Feb. 22. **Jefferson Davis** inaugurated regular president of the Confederate States of America.

Feb. 25. Federal **Loan and Legal Tender Act;** $150,000,000 circulating notes (greenbacks), to be legal tender and reissuable; $500,000,000 bonds ("5–20s") also authorized. Later acts increase volume of greenbacks to $433,000,000 at the end of the war.

March 8. Federal occupation of Columbus, Ky.; beginning of the opening of the Mississippi. March 7–8: Battle of Pea Ridge, Ark.; Union army under Curtis defeats Van Dorn and secures Missouri. March 9: **Merrimac-Monitor fight** in Hampton Roads, Va.; first battle of Ironclads; a drawn contest, but the turreted *Monitor* prevents the expected raid of the *Merrimac* on Union ports. March 14: Burnside occupies Newbern, N. C. March 17: Union troops embark for Fort Monroe to begin McClellan's **Peninsular Campaign.** March 23: Battle of Kernstown, Va.; Federals under Shields force Jackson up the Shenandoah Valley. April 5–May 3: Siege and capture of Yorktown, Va., by McClellan. April 6–7: Battle of **Shiloh** or **Pittsburg Landing,** Tenn. First day, Confederates under A. S. Johnston and Beauregard defeat Grant's Army of the Tennessee (Johnston killed); second day, Confederates driven back by Grant and Buell (Army of the Ohio). April 7: Surrender of Island No. 10 in Mississippi River to Federals under Foote and Pope. April 10–11: Fort Pulaski, near Savannah, captured by Union troops.

April 10. Congress, on Lincoln's advice, suggests to the loyal slave States gradual emancipation with Federal aid.

April 16. Act for compensated **abolition in the District of Columbia.**

April 24. Farragut's Federal fleet **passes the forts below New Orleans.** April 29: Possession of the city. May 5: Battle of Williamsburg, Va., victory for McClellan. May 8: Battle of McDowell, Va. (now W. Va.); T. J (Stonewall) Jackson begins his **Valley campaign,** to prevent reënforcement of McClellan.

1862 (*continued*).

May 15. Congress authorizes the Department of Agriculture; not a cabinet office until 1889.

May 20. **Homestead Law** is enacted.

May 23–25. Jackson defeats the Federals at Front Royal, Newtown, and Winchester, and retires up the Valley. May 30: Occupation of Corinth, Miss., by Halleck. May 31–June 1: Battle of **Fair Oaks** or **Seven Pines;** Johnston's attack on McClellan before Richmond is repulsed, Johnston is wounded, and R. E. Lee succeeds in command of the Army of Northern Virginia (June 1). June 4: Fort Pillow, Tenn., on the Mississippi, occupied by Federals. June 6: Naval battle and surrender of Memphis to Federals under Ellet. June 8–9: Jackson defeats pursuing forces at Cross Keys and Port Republic; later he marches his troops to join Lee at Richmond. [territories.

June 19. Congress **abolishes slavery in the**

June 25–July 1. **Seven Days' Battles** before Richmond (Mechanicsville, Gaines's Mill, Savage's Station, Frazier's Farm, Malvern Hill); Lee forces McClellan to retreat to Malvern Hill (July 1). Federals establish a new base on lower James River.

July 1. National net debt, $505,312,752.

Internal Revenue Act (first since 1802); graduated income tax, and many excises and duties. **Pacific Railway Act;** Federal land grant and loan of bonds to promote the construction of a line between Missouri River points and California. Additional aid by a later act.

July 2. Morrill **Agricultural College Act** grants public lands to States for the support of colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts; origin of most of the existing State agricultural schools. Ironclad oath is passed by Congress for every Federal official; the taker must never voluntarily have given aid to the Confederacy.

July 17. First **Confiscation Act** (authorizes the employment in the war of slaves of rebels).

July 29. C.S.S. **Alabama** sails from Liverpool where she has been built as a sea raider. Makes in all 68 captures and her activity nearly causes war between Great Britain and the United States. Three other English-built cruisers take part.

Aug. 9. Battle of Cedar Mountain, Va.; Jackson defeats Pope, who is advancing toward Richmond.

Aug. 18–Oct. 13. Second session of Confederate Congress. Treasury notes sufficient to pay appropriations authorized and Draft Act extended.

Aug. 28–30. **Second** battle of **Bull Run** (Groveton, Gainesville); Lee, who has joined Jackson, routs Pope, reënforced by part of McClellan's army, now withdrawn from the Peninsula. August 28: Confederates under Bragg and Smith start from Chattanooga to invade Kentucky. Federals under Buell race to reach the Ohio River first, and are successful.

Aug. 30. Battle of Richmond, Ky.; Smith defeats the Federals, and occupies Lexington (September 2). September 1: Battle of Chantilly, Va.; victory for Lee's troops. September 14: Battle of South Mountain, Md.; McClellan blocks Lee, who is invading Maryland. September 15: Capture of Harpers Ferry by Jackson. September 16–17: Battle of **Antietam;** indecisive, but Lee's invasion is checked, and he retires into Virginia. September 19–20: Battle of Iuka, Miss.; Rosecrans defeats the Confederates under Price.

Sept. 22. Lincoln's **preliminary Emancipation Proclamation;** as a war measure he will on January 1 declare free all the slaves in the States then in rebellion, excepting certain loyal or occupied sections.

Oct. 3–4. Battle of Corinth, Miss.; Rosecrans repulses an attack by Van Dorn and Price. October 8: Battle of **Perryville,** Ky.; Bragg attacks Buell; indecisive, but Bragg and Smith retire to Tennessee. December 7: Battle of Prairie Grove, Ark.; Union victory. December 13: Battle of **Fredericksburg;** assault by Burnside (who has succeeded McClellan) on Lee's intrenched position is repulsed. December 20: Van Dorn's raid on the Federal depot of supplies at Holly Springs, Miss., checks Grant's advance against Vicksburg. December 29: Sherman's assault on Chickasaw Bluffs, near Vicksburg, repulsed. December 31–January 2, 1863: Battle of **Murfreesboro** or **Stone River;** Rosecrans (who has succeeded Buell) and Bragg both attack; the Confederates retire.

1863. Gold, lowest price for year, 122⅓; highest, 172½. [tion.

Jan. 1. **Final Emancipation Proclama-**

Jan. 11. Capture of Arkansas Post, Ark., by Federals under McClernand.

Jan. 12–May 1. Third session of Confederate Congress; laws for funding loans and issuing treasury notes up to $50,000,000 a month; impressment of supplies for the army (March 26); income tax, excise, and tax in kind (April 24).

Jan. 30. Grant assumes command of the operations against Vicksburg; for several months tries unsuccessfully to gain rear of the position.

Feb. 24. Arizona Territory is created.

Feb. 25. **National Banks Act;** a safe currency of general circulation is authorized on the security of Federal bonds owned by the issuing banks.

March 3. **Draft Act;** intended to supplement volunteering; substitutes and purchase of exemption are permitted. Eventual net addition of drafted troops, about 46,000, besides many substitutes.

Loan Act for $900,000,000; bonds, treasury notes, and greenbacks, also issues of fractional currency, to replace silver which has disappeared from circulation. Congress authorizes the president under certain regulations to **suspend** the privileges of the writ of **habeas corpus;** this is done to prevent the abuse of **arbitrary arrests,** and also to legalize the war-time need of a rational use of direct action. Idaho Territory is erected.

April 7. Fort Sumter unsuccessfully attacked by a fleet of Federal ironclads. April 16: Federal ironclads and transports run the batteries at Vicksburg; Grant then crosses the river below the Confederate defenses (April 30). May 1: Battle of Port Gibson, Miss.; victory for Grant. May 1–4: Battle of **Chancellorsville,** Va.; Lee stops Hooker (who has succeeded Burnside) and compels him to recross the Rappahannock; Stonewall Jackson is mortally wounded. May 12: Battle of Raymond, Miss.; Grant's victory. May 14: Capture of Jackson, Miss., by Grant. May 16–17: Battles of Champion Hills and Big Black River, Miss.; Grant drives the Confederates within the defenses of Vicksburg and begins the siege.

May 16. Clement L. Vallandigham, of Ohio, convicted by a military commission of seditious utterances addressed to the "**Copperheads,**" or Peace Democrats, and sentenced to imprisonment in Fort Warren. Lincoln changes the sentence to banishment to the Confederacy.

May 27. Unsuccessful assault on Port Hudson, La., by Banks's Federal troops; a siege follows.

June 19. West Virginia (35th State) admitted with gradual emancipation; comprises the loyal western portion of Virginia.

July 1. National net debt, $1,111,350,737.

July 1–3. Battle of **Gettysburg,** Pa.; Lee, again invading the North, is defeated by Meade (who has succeeded Hooker); Confederates retreat across the Potomac. July 4: **Surrender of Vicksburg.** July 9: Confederate attack on Helena, Ark., is repulsed. Surrender of Port Hudson completes the **opening of the Mississippi** and cuts the Confederacy in two. July 11, 18: Union assaults on Battery Wagner before Charleston; the battery eventually evacuated (September 7), but all efforts to capture the city fail.

July 13–16. **Draft Riots** in New York City; about 1,000 persons killed; subdued by troops sent back from the front. (See DRAFT RIOTS, in *Dict.*)

July 26. Capture of the Confederate general, J. H. Morgan, at Salineville, Ohio, after a three weeks' raid through Kentucky, Indiana, and Ohio. September 1: Occupation of Fort Smith, Ark., by Federals under Blunt. September 8: Unsuccessful naval assault on Fort Sumter. September 10: Occupation of Little Rock, Ark., by Federals under Steele. September 19 and 20: Battle of **Chickamauga,** Ga.; Rosecrans is attacked by Bragg; Thomas, the "Rock of Chickamauga," in command of the left wing, holds, but finally the army retreats to Chattanooga, which Bragg besieges. Grant is made commander of the Military Division of the Mississippi (October 16); Sherman succeeds Grant in command of the Army of the Tennessee, and Thomas supersedes Rosecrans in command of the Army of the Cumberland. Sherman takes his army to Chattanooga; also two corps transferred to him from the Army of the Potomac.

Oct. 8. **Laird rams,** being built for the Confederacy in England, are seized by the British government; serious complication thus averted.

Nov. 17–Dec. 4. Siege of Federals under Burnside in Knoxville, Tenn., by Longstreet; relieved by a force under Sherman. November 23–25: Battle of **Chattanooga** (Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge); Confederates driven from their besieging position.

Dec. 7. Thirty-eighth Congress meets: 9 Democrats, 36 Republicans, and 5 Unionists in the Senate; and 75 Democrats, 102 Republicans, and 9 Unionists in the House.

Dec. 7–Feb. 18, 1864. Session of the Congress of the Confederacy; importation of luxuries and private exportation of the main products of the South are forbidden; act for funding and partial repudiation of paper money, with an issue of new notes (February 17); additional taxes on property and profits; draft made to include men between 17 and 50; and free Negroes and slaves made liable to noncombatant duty in the army.

Dec. 8. Lincoln's **Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction** embodies his policy of restoration.

1864. Gold, lowest price for the year, 151½; highest (July 11), 285. [victory.

Feb. 20. Battle of Olustee, Fla.; Confederate

March 9. **Grant** receives commission as **lieutenant general,** and is assigned to the **command of all the Federal forces** (March 12). Establishes his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac. Sherman in command in the West.

March 14. Unionists in Arkansas adopt a constitution under Lincoln's proclamation, abolishing slavery, and ask readmission.

April 8, 9. Battles of Sabine Crossroads and Pleasant Hills, La.; Banks (Red River Expedition) is defeated by the Confederates under Smith and Taylor, and retreats. April 30: Battle of Jenkins's Ferry, Ark.; Steele repulses Smith and Price.

May 2–June 14. Session of the second Congress of the Confederate States.

May 4. General advance of Federal armies under Grant, involving (1) attack on Lee by Grant; (2) advance toward Richmond by Butler (Army of the James), from Fort Monroe; (3) Sherman's advance from Chattanooga toward Atlanta against the Confederate J. E. Johnston. May 5–7: Battle of the **Wilderness,** Va., indecisive; Lee checks Grant's direct advance, but Grant presses on by the left flank. May 8–18: Battle of **Spottsylvania Court House,** Va.; Lee checks Grant and turning movement is resumed. May 15: Engagement at Resaca, Ga.; Johnston retires. May 16: Battle of Drury's Bluff, Va.; Confederates under Beauregard stop Butler's advance. May 24: Battle of the North Anna, Va.; Lee repeats his check, and Grant again moves southeastward. May 25–28: Battle of New Hope Church (Dallas), Ga.; indecisive; Johnston continues his Fabian policy.

May 26. Montana Territory is created.

June 3. Battle of **Cold Harbor,** Va.; Grant attempts to break Lee's line by direct assault, but is repulsed. June 14: Grant crosses the James River. June 15–18: Battle of Petersburg, Va.; Beauregard, joined by Lee, repulses Grant's army, and a regular siege begins. June 19: C.S.S. *Alabama* is sunk by the *Kearsarge.* June 27: Battle of Kenesaw Mountain; Sherman repulsed but outflanks enemy, who retire to defenses of Atlanta.

June 30. New and more searching **internal-revenue** law; tariff duties are increased.

Fugitive-Slave Law is repealed.

July 1. National net debt, $1,709,452,277.

July 2. Northern Pacific Railway is incorporated by Congress to run from Lake Superior to Puget Sound; it receives a land grant. Line not completed until 1883.

July 4. Lincoln defeats (pockets) the Wade-Davis Reconstruction Bill, which embodies the congressional policy of restoration, contrary to the presidential plan.

July 9. Battle of Monocacy, Md.; Early, who has marched down the Shenandoah Valley, defeats the last opposing force and appears in sight of the Capitol at Washington (July 11); but fails to occupy the city and retires next day. July 20, 22, 28: Battles before **Atlanta** (Peach Tree Creek, Atlanta, and Ezra Church); Hood, now in Confederate command, makes unsuccessful attacks on Sherman's encircling army. July 30: Battle of the Crater at Petersburg; Union assault repulsed. August 5: Battle of **Mobile Bay;** Farragut's Federal fleet passes the forts and defeats the Confederate fleet, closing the port to blockade runners. Sept. 2: **Atlanta captured** by Sherman.

Sept. 5. Unionists in Louisiana adopt a new constitution without slavery.

Sept. 6–Nov. 7. Price's expedition from the Arkansas into Missouri and return; he is before St. Louis (October 1), before Jefferson City (October 7), at Independence (October 21), defeated at Westport on the Kansas line (October 23). September 19, 22: Battle of Opequan (Winchester) and Fisher's Hill, Va.; **Sheridan** defeats Early; proceeds to devastate the **Shenandoah Valley.**

Oct. 13. Maryland abolishes slavery.

Oct. 19. Battle of Cedar Creek; Early's successful surprise later becomes a victory for the Federals.

Oct. 31. Nevada admitted (36th State).

Nov. 7–March 18, 1865. Final session of the Confederate Congress; on March 13 enlistment of slaves is authorized.

Nov. 8. Twentieth presidential election: Lincoln and Johnson, candidates of the Union party (Republicans and War Democrats), receive 212 electoral votes; General McClellan and G. H. Pendleton, Peace Democrats, 21 votes; J. C. Frémont, nominated by radical Republicans, withdraws.

Nov. 16. **Sherman** leaves Atlanta on his **March to the Sea.** He is practically unopposed; Hood moves northward and invades Tennessee.

Dec. 6. Salmon P. Chase succeeds Taney as chief justice of the Supreme Court.

Dec. 15–16. Battle of Nashville, Tenn.; Thomas routs the invading Confederates. December 21: Sherman enters Savannah.

1865. Imports of merchandise, $238,745,580; exports, $166,029,303; immigrants 247,453.

Gold, lowest price for the year, 128⅛; highest 234½.

1865 (*continued*).

Jan. 11. Missouri constitutional convention abolishes slavery.

Jan. 15. Fort Fisher, N. C., captured; this closes the port of Wilmington and leaves Charleston and Galveston the only considerable ports in the hands of the Confederates.

Jan. 19. **Lee is made commander in chief of the Confederate armies.**

Feb. 1. **Thirteenth Amendment**, abolishing slavery, adopted by Congress and submitted to the States. [**through the Carolinas.** Sherman starts from Savannah on his **March**]

Feb. 17. He enters Columbia, S. C., which is burned. February 18, his march forces the evacuation of Charleston.

Feb. 22. Tennessee abolishes slavery.

March 3. Loan of $600,000,000 is authorized Freedmen's Bureau Act is passed for the control of freedmen, Negro refugees, and abandoned or confiscated lands in the South.

A prohibitive ten per cent tax is levied on State bank circulation, leaving the field open for the new national bank notes.

March 19. Battle of Bentonville, N. C.; Johnston defeated by Sherman. March 21: Sherman joins forces with Schofield, who has advanced from Wilmington. April 1: Battle of Five Forks before Petersburg; Union success which is followed by an assault along the whole line. April 2: **Evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg** by Lee, who tries to join forces with Johnston; Grant pursues closely and finally heads him off. April 9: **Surrender of Lee** at Appomattox, Va. April 11: Capture of Mobile by Union forces under Canby. April 13: Sherman enters Raleigh, N. C.

April 14. **Lincoln shot** by Booth; dies the next morning.

April 15. **Andrew Johnson** becomes the seventeenth president; he is a former State-rights Democrat, but a strong Southern Unionist.

April 26. Johnston surrenders his army to Sherman. May 4: Taylor surrenders the southwestern Confederate forces to Canby.

April 29, June 24. Restrictions on domestic commerce with the South are removed.

May 10. **Jefferson Davis is captured**, charged with treason; he is never tried and finally is released on bail (May, 1867).

May 26. Smith surrenders the trans-Mississippi Confederate forces, the last of the disunion armies.

May 29. Johnson's proclamation of amnesty, extending pardon to the South, but with many exceptions.

Presidential plan of Reconstruction is inaugurated on the same day, carried out through proclamations for provisional governments, with directions to hold constitutional conventions and reconstruct the State governments. Proclamations issued as to North Carolina (May 29); Mississippi (June 13); Georgia (June 17); Texas (June 17); Alabama (June 21); South Carolina (June 30); Florida (July 13). The existing loyal governments of Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana are considered as sufficient for the reconstruction of these States. During the autumn and winter the conventions rescind the ordinances of secession, abolish slavery, and repudiate war debts. Under their amended constitutions State officers, legislators, representatives, and senators are elected. Nine of the eleven States recently in the Confederacy ratify the Thirteenth Amendment. Several legislatures place restrictions on the freedmen (**black codes** or vagrant laws) which irritate Northern public opinion.

July 1. National net debt, $2,674,815,857. The national net debt reaches its highest point (until 1917) on September 1, 1865, when it stands at $2,758,000,000. Ports of the South are opened to foreign commerce.

Dec. 4. **Thirty-ninth Congress** meets: 11 Democratic and 39 Republican senators, and 40 Democratic and 144 Republican representatives. The houses **refuse to admit the Southern Congressmen**; instead appoint a **joint committee** (December 12) **to consider Reconstruction.**

Dec. 18. **Thirteenth Amendment** goes into operation.

RECONSTRUCTION.

1866. *Feb. 22.* The Washington's Birthday speech of President Johnson makes evident a breach between Congress and himself.

March 17. Reciprocity with Canada is ended.

April 9. **Civil Rights Act** is passed over a veto; it is the congressional answer to the black-code enactments of the Southern States; confers upon all persons born in the United States the same civil rights and obligations that white citizens have. [authorized]

April 12. Gradual retirement of greenbacks[

June 13. **Fourteenth Amendment** is passed and sent to the States; practically includes the Civil Rights Bill and presents the congressional policy of Reconstruction. Negroes and all others born or naturalized in the United States to possess equal civil rights. Attempts to force Negro suffrage upon the South, by reducing the representation of a State which limits the suffrage. Cnts under the president's amnesty power by excluding Confederates from office. The clause guaranteeing life, liberty, and property against State action "without due process of law," has transferred to the Federal government and its courts final determination of many questions of labor and other matters of economic and social welfare. Southern States refused readmittance unless they ratify the amendment. All but Tennessee refuse, and so Congress imposes further and harsher requirements.

July. **Atlantic cable** is permanently opened.

July 13. Act reducing internal revenue; proposal to reduce the tariff prevented by high-tariff men in the Republican party.

July 23. Act for gradual reduction of justices of the Supreme Court; intended to reduce president's power of appointment to vacancies.

July 24. Tennessee is readmitted.

July 27. Atlantic and Pacific Railway is incorporated and given a land grant in connection with the Southern Pacific of California; now main western part of line of the Santa Fe, and part of the Southern Pacific in California.

Dec. 17. In *Ex parte* Milligan the Supreme Court refuses to support the policy of arbitrary arrests, by declaring illegal a military trial of a civilian where the Federal courts are open and unobstructed.

1867. *Jan. 14.* In *Ex parte* Garland the Supreme Court holds that the exclusion of an attorney from practice, if he cannot take the ironclad oath, is contrary to the constitutional provision against bills of attainder and *ex post facto* laws.

Jan. 28. In the License Tax Cases the Supreme Court declares that the requirement of a Federal license tax (on liquors, etc.) is not a regulation of commerce within a State; but does not authorize the taxed business against a State's use of police powers.

March 1. Nebraska admitted (37th State).

March 2. **Reconstruction Act** is passed over a veto. A military government in the unreadmitted States; constitutional conventions including Negro votes; Negro suffrage in the new constitutions; ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment by the new legislatures. Act discontinues all the State governments based on presidential Reconstruction.

Tenure-of-Office Act becomes law over a veto. Limits power of president to remove cabinet and other officers.

Peonage Act prohibits the holding of individuals in peonage system of service.

Further internal revenue reduction; and higher protection given to wool and woolens.

March 4. Fortieth Congress meets at this date instead of December under an act intended to prevent Johnson from taking independent action; 11 Democrats and 42 Republicans in the Senate; 49 Democrats and 143 Republicans in the House.

March 12. French troops finally leave Mexico (see MEXICO).

March 23. Supplementary Reconstruction Act.

March 30. Treaty signed with Russia covering purchase of **Alaska** for $7,200,000.

April 15. In Mississippi *v.* Johnson the Supreme Court refuses to take jurisdiction to restrain the president from putting the Reconstruction Acts into operation. [tion Act]

July 19. Further supplementary Reconstruc-[

Oct. 24. Treaty signed with Denmark for the purchase of the **Danish West Indies (Virgin Islands)**; Senate rejects it (March 24, 1870).

1868. *Feb. 4.* Congress stops the retirement of the greenbacks, responding to a popular movement for "cheap" money. Movement for the payment of bonds in greenbacks. These policies become part of the platform of the Greenback party, the first of a succession of minor parties trying to effect social and economic changes by political action.

Feb. 10. In Georgia *v.* Stanton the Supreme Court again declares the Reconstruction Acts to be a political question with which it should not interfere.

Feb. 24. **Johnson is impeached** by the House; main charge is removing Secretary Stanton contrary to the Tenure-of-Office Act; real offense is antagonism to the congressional policy of Reconstruction.

March 27. Congress, apprehensive of a decision by the Supreme Court that Reconstruction Acts are unconstitutional, passes an act over the veto which deprives the court of jurisdiction on the subject (*Ex parte* McCardle).

May 16. **Senate acquits Johnson** by vote of 35 to 19 (not two thirds). This frustrates the only political impeachment attempted since 1805.

June 22. Arkansas readmitted to the Union.

June 25. **Omnibus Act** authorizing the **readmission** of Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina, they having complied with the requirements of the Reconstruction Acts (proclamations July 11–20). Georgia temporarily restored. The governments of these reconstructed States for a short time in the hands of Northern settlers ("carpetbaggers") and Southern radicals ("scalawags") who control and manipulate the Negro voters and legislators. In national politics they are Republicans.

June 25. Act to establish eight-hour day for laborers for the Federal government.

July 20. Another reduction is made in internal-revenue taxation.

July 25. Wyoming Territory is established.

July 27. Act on expatriation, affirming the inherent right to change nationality.

July 28. **Fourteenth Amendment** is declared in force; three-fourths ratification obtained through Reconstruction scheme.

Treaty with China (Burlingame) allows freedom of immigration and movement in both countries.

Nov. 3. Twenty-first presidential election: Grant and Schuyler Colfax receive 214 Republican votes; Horatio Seymour and F. P. Blair, 80 Democratic.

1869. *Feb. 27.* **Fifteenth Amendment** is submitted to the States; it declares that suffrage shall not be denied or abridged because of race, color, or previous condition of servitude (Negro suffrage).

March 4. **Ulysses Simpson Grant** becomes eighteenth president; Fish is his secretary of state. Forty-first Congress meets: Senate has 10 Democrats and 56 Republicans; House, 60 Democrats and 149 Republicans.

March 18. Public Credit Act is passed declaring that all the obligations of the Federal government will be paid in specie or its equivalent.

April 10. Georgia, Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia are required to ratify the Fifteenth Amendment before being readmitted. Congress authorizes the appointment of circuit judges.

April 12. In **Texas** *v.* **White** the Supreme Court declares that the "Constitution . . . looks to an indestructible Union . . . of indestructible States" and supports the right of Congress, rather than of the president, to carry out peacetime Reconstruction.

May 10. Union-Central Pacific Railroad is opened throughout its length, giving **railroad transportation across the continent.**

June 15. Massachusetts act for a State railroad commission, first of its kind.

Sept. 24. Black Friday in Wall Street, due to an attempt to corner gold, broken by action of the Federal treasury.

Oct. 4. Conservatives (Democrats) regain control of Tennessee.

Nov. 29. Treaty is signed for the annexation of Santo Domingo; Senate rejects it (June 30, 1870).

Dec. 10. Wyoming Territory first community to adopt woman suffrage.

Dec. 13. In Veazie Bank *v.* Fenno the prohibitive Federal tax on State bank notes is upheld by the Supreme Court.

1870. Imports of merchandise, $435,958,408; exports of merchandise, $392,771,768; immigrants, 387,203. Gold, lowest price during the year, 110; highest, 123¼. [Ohio.]

Jan. 2. Standard Oil Company is chartered by[

Jan. 26. Virginia is readmitted. It is already in control of conservatives (Democrats).

Feb. 7. Supreme Court in Hepburn *v.* Griswold declares against the constitutionality of **greenbacks as legal tender**; Court stands 4 to 3.

Feb. 23. Mississippi is readmitted with the radicals in control.

March 30. **Fifteenth Amendment** declared in force.

Texas is readmitted; control soon passes to the conservatives.

May 31. **Enforcement Act**, intended to prevent obstruction in the South of the new constitutional amendments. Opposition to carpetbag and Negro rule there has in places assumed the form of intimidation and violence, as, especially, in the activities of the Ku-Klux Klan, a secret organization for terrorizing the Negroes. [371.]

June. Ninth U. S. census; population, 38,558,[

July 1. National net debt, $2,331,169,956.

July 14. Act including sweeping reductions in internal revenue; the tariff duties are decreased on revenue articles only, leaving protection practically undisturbed. During the fiscal years 1866–1873 the ordinary receipts are $470,000,000 in excess of the ordinary expenditures and interest payments, and government buys bonds in the open market. The national debt has been reduced $427,000,000.

July 14. A refunding act is passed.

July 15. Georgia is readmitted and **Reconstruction is completed**, though representation in Congress is not full until May 23, 1872. Radicals control Georgia.

Nov. 3. Democrats regain control of North Carolina legislature; the radical governor holds over until March 22, 1871.

1871. Tweed Ring is overthrown in New York City. The period is one of much private prosper-

1871 (*continued*).
ity and public corruption; the ring has controlled and systematically bled New York for years, and has embezzled about $100,000,000.

Jan. 23. In the case of the *Daniel Ball* the Supreme Court declares that a river entirely within a State may be a navigable water subject to congressional control over interstate commerce.

Feb. 15. Ironclad oath is repealed.

Feb. 28. Law is passed for the **Federal control of Federal elections,** hitherto left entirely to State regulations; intended to prevent interference with Negro vote in the South.

March 3. Act putting a stop to Indian treaties and inaugurating policy of governing the tribes through legislation and executive orders, making the **Indians national wards.** Beginning with an uprising in Minnesota in 1862, trouble with the Indians in the West has been almost continuous, an outcome of the pressure of the advancing frontier, railroad building, and mineral discoveries.

March 3. Texas Pacific Railway is incorporated by Congress and given a land grant, the last of the land grants; most of the land grant is eventually forfeited.

March 4. Forty-second Congress meets: Senate, 15 Democrats, 57 Republicans; House, 103 Democrats, 138 Republicans.

April 3. In Collector *v.* Day the Supreme Court decides that the United States may not tax the salary of a State official.

April 20. **Ku-Klux Act** is passed; purpose is to give additional protection to the civil and political rights of the Negroes. Under it Grant suspends habeas corpus in a few places, and many arrests are made.

May 1. In Knox *v.* Lee the Supreme Court reverses its earlier opinion (February 7, 1870) and declares that legal-tender greenbacks are constitutional. Court stands 5 to 4, two new judges having been appointed.

May 8. **Treaty of Washington** signed with Great Britain. Provides for the settlement of the claims growing out of the depredations by the *Alabama* and other English-built Confederate cruisers (Geneva Tribunal), and other claims; the American rights on the Canadian fishing grounds (Halifax Commission); and arbitration of the San Juan (Puget Sound) boundary dispute. British government agrees to three rules which are practically a confession of error and a presage of damages.

Oct. 8–10. **Great fire in Chicago;** loss, $200,000,000.

Nov. 1. Georgia legislature, with a conservative majority, meets; the radicals lose the executive department on January 12, 1872.

1872. *Crédit Mobilier* exposure, in connection with the building of the Union Pacific, involves tacit bribery of congressmen. [created.]

March 1. **Yellowstone National Park** is

May 1. Import duties on tea and coffee (most important revenue articles) removed; "free breakfast table."

May 22. **General Amnesty Act** under the Fourteenth Amendment; some 500 exceptions, later reduced by individual acts.

June 6. Tariff and Internal-Revenue Act makes a horizontal reduction of ten per cent in customs duties, and further decrease in internal revenue.

Sept. 14. **Geneva Tribunal,** sitting under the Treaty of Washington, awards the United States $15,500,000 damages in the **Alabama** claims against Great Britain. Claim of "indirect damages" withdrawn.

Oct. 21. German emperor awards San Juan Islands (between Vancouver Island and State of Washington) to the United States.

Nov. 5. Twenty-second presidential election: Grant and Henry Wilson receive 286 electoral votes; Democrats and "Liberal Republicans," who are tariff-reform men and object to the character of Grant's administration, secure 66 votes for Horace Greeley and B. G. Brown; Prohibition, Greenback, and Labor-Reform parties make nominations. [$70,000,000.]

Nov. 9–10. **Great fire in Boston;** loss of

1873. *Feb. 12.* Coinage Act is passed without opposition, involving the formal demonetization of the silver dollar; act later styled by silver men the **"crime of '73"** (see under CRIME, in the *Dict.*).

March 3. Timber Culture and Coal Land acts are preliminary movements in the direction of conservation; they limit the sale of coal-bearing public lands and provide for the patenting of treeless land. Supreme Court, in State Freight Tax Case, denies the right of a State to tax freight in interstate commerce. But on the same day, in State Tax on Railway Gross Receipts, it upholds a State tax, bearing in part on interstate commerce.

April 14. In the **Slaughterhouse Cases** the Supreme Court begins its interpretation of the Fourteenth Amendment as a protection of civil right from attacks by the States. It holds that the granting by the State of a monopoly to conduct a public slaughterhouse is a proper police regulation and not an infringement of the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States. The Fourteenth Amendment protects only the privileges and immunities of citizens which arise out of the nature and essential character of the national government.

April 15. In Bradwell *v.* Illinois the court declares that the right to practice law is not such a privilege as is guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment and a State is not required to admit a woman practitioner.

Sept. 18. Failure of Jay Cooke & Co. starts a great **panic,** which is followed by several years of industrial depression; caused chiefly by overbuilding of railroads in the West.

Oct. 31. Seizure on the high seas by Spain of the *Virginius,* which is illegally flying the American flag and carrying supplies for Cuban insurgents, and execution of its crew nearly cause a war with Spain.

Dec. 1. Forty-third Congress assembles: 19 Democrats, 49 Republicans, and 5 Liberal Republicans in the Senate, and 88 Democrats, 195 Republicans, and 4 Liberal Republicans in the House.

1874. Remington typewriter, pioneer machine, is placed on the market.

Jan. 21. Morrison R. Waite becomes chief justice of the Supreme Court.

March 4. Supreme Court declares in Bartemeyer *v.* Iowa that the right to sell liquor is not one of the privileges and immunities of the citizens of the United States which the Fourteenth Amendment or other portions of the Federal Constitution protect from State infringement.

April 22. Grant **vetoes the Inflation Bill** to raise the volume of greenbacks to $400,000,000.

Sept. 14. Successful rising of the White League in New Orleans against the State government; it is suppressed by Federal troops.

November. Congressional elections result in a "tidal wave" of Democratic success. About the same time conservative control is restored in Alabama and Arkansas.

1875. Imports of merchandise, $533,005,436; exports, $513,442,711; immigrants, 227,498.
Gold, lowest price, for the year, 111¾, highest, 117⅞.

Jan. 14. **Resumption Act:** provides for the gradual reduction in amount of outstanding greenbacks to $300,000,000 with a corresponding increase of national bank notes, and resumption of specie payments on January 1, 1879. [signed.]

Jan. 30. **Hawaiian Reciprocity Treaty** is

March 1. Civil Rights Act, to give Negroes equal privileges in travel and public recreation.

March 3. The ten per cent reduction in the tariff made in 1872 is repealed.

March 30. In Minor *v.* Happersett the Supreme Court decides that the Fourteenth Amendment does not require a State to grant woman suffrage.

July 1. National net debt, $2,090,041,170.

Dec. 6. Forty-fourth Congress begins: 29 Democrats and 44 Republicans in the Senate; 168 Democrats, 108 Republicans, and 14 Independents in the House; Democratic majority in the House for the first time since 1859. [107.]

1876. Gold, lowest price for the year, 102; highest,
Overthrow of the Molly Maguires, a secret society of Irishmen which has held the anthracite region of Pennsylvania in terror for years.

Jan. 4. Democrats resume control of the Mississippi legislature; the radical governor resigns on March 29.

Jan. 17. In Welton *v.* Missouri a State license tax on the sale of goods from other States not levied on the sale of Missouri products, is declared by the Supreme Court to be an infringement on Federal control over interstate commerce.

March 2. Scandals during Grant's administration cause the resignation of Secretary of War Belknap, to avoid conviction on impeachment. During the year a Whisky Ring to defraud the internal revenue is exposed.

March 7. **Telephone** is patented by Alexander Graham Bell.

March 27. Supreme Court in United States *v.* Resse holds that the Fifteenth Amendment confers no right of suffrage, but only forbids certain restrictions in it. On the same day the court, in the United States *v.* Cruiksbanks, holds that the Fourteenth Amendment protects from State action only, not from the acts of individuals; much of the Enforcement and Ku-Klux Acts is, therefore, unconstitutional.

April 24. In Walker *v.* Sauvinet the Supreme Court decides that trial by jury is not necessarily the "due process of law" required by the Fourteenth Amendment nor is it a privilege and immunity of citizens of the United States.

May–November. **Centennial Exposition** at Philadelphia; it has a great effect on many lines of business.

June 25. **Massacre of Custer's force** in Montana by the Sioux under Sitting Bull.

Aug. 1. Colorado admitted (38th State).

Nov. 7. **Twenty-third presidential election:** on the face of the returns S. J. Tilden and T. A. Hendricks, Democrats, have 196 electoral votes and Hayes and W. A. Wheeler, Republicans, 173 votes. Candidates of the Prohibition, Greenback, and American parties carry no States. State returning boards in Louisiana and Florida, controlled by carpetbaggers, count in the Republican electors of these States, which would give Hayes 185 votes and Tilden 184. Intense excitement prevails in the whole nation.

Nov. 28. Conservatives organize the legislature of South Carolina, but do not secure undisputed control for some months.

1877. Edison invents the **phonograph,** which, however, is not made practical until 1888.
Gold, lowest price for the year, 102¼; highest, 107⅞.

Jan. 1. Democrats organize the legislature of Louisiana, but opposition to it continues for some months. [in Florida.]

Jan. 2. Carpetbag government is overthrown

Jan. 29. **Electoral Count Law,** for settling the disputed presidential election, is enacted. An extraconstitutional commission of five senators, five representatives, and five Supreme Court justices considers disputed votes in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, and one in Oregon; and awards them all to Hayes by vote of 8 to 7. On March 2 Hayes is declared by Congress elected by 185 votes to Tilden's 184.

March 1. In Munn *v.* Illinois, and other Granger Cases, the Supreme Court holds that State laws passed to regulate warehouse charges and railroad intrastate rates, especially when Congress has not acted respecting them, are legal, even though they may indirectly operate upon commerce beyond the jurisdiction of the State.

March 3. Desert Land Act provides special conditions for patenting such land, subject to proper development and irrigation.

March 4. **Rutherford Birchard Hayes** takes the oath as nineteenth president. His cabinet is notable: William M. Evarts, secretary of state; John Sherman, secretary of the treasury; Carl Schurz, secretary of the interior.

April 10, 20. Hayes withdraws the Federal troops which have been supporting the radical governments in South Carolina and Louisiana. This marks the **overthrow** of the policy of **Reconstruction** so far as it is a means of securing the Republican party in the South, and begins the Democratic **"Solid South,"** which is based on the repression of Negro votes in all States where their number is sufficient to threaten white control. After 1890 the earlier methods of repression give way to constitutional, educational, and ancestral qualifications aiming at the same result.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT.

1877. *July.* **Railroad riots** throughout the East, especially in Pennsylvania, are caused by reduction of wages. Mob controls Pittsburgh July 19–23 and destroys much property. Both militia and regulars are employed in suppressing the riots there, at Baltimore, Chicago, and elsewhere.

Oct. 15. 45th Congress meets in extra session: Senate, 36 Democrats, 39 Republicans, 1 Independent; House, 153 Democrats, 140 Republicans.

Nov. 23. Halifax Commission orders the United States to pay Canada $5,500,000 for the privileges of inshore fishing (Halifax Award).

1878. The Brush **electric arc light** is developed.
Gold, lowest price for the year 100 (December 17); highest, 102¾.
A French company secures from Colombia a concession to build the **Panama Canal.** Hayes considers the grant as opposed to American rights and policy; a canal part of our "coast line."

Jan. 14. In Hall *v.* De Cuir, a State law requiring railroads to give equal accommodations to all passengers without respect to race or color is held by the Supreme Court to be unconstitutional because it affects interstate travel.

Feb. 28. **Bland-Allison Silver Law** is enacted over Hayes's veto; a compromise on the demand for unlimited coinage of silver dollars; a new form of the movement for cheap money. Law requires coinage each month of a certain number of legal-tender dollars at a ratio with gold of 16 to 1.

March 25. In Pensacola Telegraph Co. *v.* Western Union Telegraph Co. the Supreme Court declares that power to regulate interstate commerce embraces all the instrumentalities, including the telegraph.

May 31. Further retirement of greenbacks is stopped by Congress; the amount outstanding then (and thereafter) is $346,681,016. Efforts to repeal the Resumption Act are defeated.

June 3. Timber and Stone Lands Act provides a further especial means of securing public land.

Nov. 11. In Fertilizing Company *v.* Hyde Park the Supreme Court holds that the police power of a State to restrain a nuisance does not impair the obligation of a contract even though it prevents the carrying on of a chartered business.

1879. Edison develops the **incandescent electric light.**

1879 (*continued*).

Jan. 1. **Resumption of specie payments** successfully inaugurated, and thereafter maintained.

Jan. 25. Arrears-of-Pensions Act is passed: first great grab engineered by pension attorneys.

March 1. Hayes vetoes a **Chinese Exclusion Bill.** The demand of the Pacific Coast for the bill is on an economic rather than a social basis (" Chinese cheap labor "), but the problem is, on a smaller scale, somewhat similar to that of the South in regard to the Negro.

March 8. Forty-sixth Congress is convened by Hayes in special session to consider the appropriation bills. A Democratic control of both houses, for first time since 1859, having 42 in the Senate and 156 in the House; Republicans, 33 in the Senate and 135 in the House; Independents, 1 in the Senate; Nationals, 2 in the House.

April 9. The first of a series of vetoes by Hayes of appropriation bills bearing riders intended to nullify the Federal Election Law.

1880. Imports of merchandise, $667,954,746; exports of merchandise, $835,638,658 (beginning with 1876 the total exports regularly exceed the imports except during the years 1888, 1889, and 1893); immigrants, 457,257.

March 1. In Strauder *v.* West Virginia the Supreme Court pronounces unconstitutional an act excluding Negroes from juries, — a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment. [155,783.]

June 1. Tenth U. S. census; poulation, 50,-[

July 1. National net debt, $1,919,326,748.

Nov. 2. Twenty-fourth presidential election: Garfield and Arthur, Republicans, receive 214 electoral votes; W. S. Hancock and W. H. English, Democrats, 155 votes; Greenback, Prohibition, and American parties have candidates, but no electoral votes.

Nov. 4. Constitutional amendment in Kansas establishes prohibition.

Nov. 17. Chinese Exclusion Treaty is signed with China, removing Hayes's objections to an exclusion act.

1881. *Jan. 24.* In Springer *v.* United States the Supreme Court holds the Federal income tax of 1862 to be constitutional, not being a direct tax.

March 4. Inauguration of **James Abram Garfield** as twentieth president.

July 2. **Garfield is shot** by a disappointed office seeker. He dies September 19.

Sept. 20. Vice President **Chester Alan Arthur** becomes the twenty-first president.

Dec. 5. First meeting of the Forty-seventh Congress: Senate, 37 Democrats, 37 Republicans, 1 Independent, 1 Readjuster; House, 135 Democrats, 147 Republicans, 9 Greenbackers, 2 Readjusters.

1882. *March.* Disastrous overflow of the Mississippi River; some 85,000 people made destitute.

March 22. Antipolygamy Act directed against the Mormons.

April 3. In Telegraph Company *v.* Texas the Supreme Court holds that a State tax on telegrams is void so far as it is laid on interstate messages or on those sent by Federal officials.

May 6. First **Chinese Exclusion Act** suspends immigration of laborers for ten years. The act repeatedly renewed and strengthened, and the policy still in force in 1920.

Aug. 3. First act to restrict general immigration excludes defectives and convicts and imposes a head tax.

1883. Northern Pacific, Southern Pacific, and Santa Fe transcontinental lines are opened.

Jan. 16. **Civil Service Reform Act** authorizes a commission to prepare and superintend tests for entrance into the " classified service." Arthur classifies about 16,000 positions; the scope of the law later broadened by succeeding presidents until most of the possible positions are brought within it. Law also prohibits political assessments on employees and political activity by them.

March 3. **Tariff and Internal-Revenue Act** to reduce the surplus. Excise taxes removed from everything but liquor and tobacco; but on the tariff the recommendations of a special tariff commission which had carefully considered the matter are ignored. An unsymmetrical law framed which increases protection. Little effect made on the surplus.

Congress authorizes three cruisers and a dispatch boat; the beginning of the **new steel navy.**

May 24. **New York-Brooklyn** suspension **bridge** is opened. [**a half ounce.**

Oct. 1. **Letter postage** is reduced to **two cents**[

Oct. 15. In Civil Rights Cases the Supreme Court declares the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional, save as it relates to jury duty and interstate travel; the Fourteenth Amendment does not apply to individual infringements; and the denial of equal accommodations at inns, etc., is not a badge of slavery.

Nov. 23. New York City celebrates the centennial of British evacuation in 1783.

Dec. 3. Forty-eighth Congress begins: Senate, 36 Democrats, 38 Republicans, 2 Readjusters (Republicans); House, 196 Democrats, 118 Republicans, 1 Greenbacker, 5 Readjusters, 3 Independents. [City.

1884. Electric trolley street cars operate in Kansas[

June 27. Congress authorizes the Federal Bureau of Labor; enlarged to a department on June 13, 1888, to a cabinet office on Feb. 14, 1903.

Nov. 4. Twenty-fifth presidential election: Cleveland and Hendricks, Democrats, supported by many Republicans (" Mugwumps "), receive 219 electoral votes; J. G. Blaine and J. A. Logan, Republicans, 182 votes; candidates of Prohibition and Greenback parties get no electoral votes.

Dec. 16. Cotton Centennial Exhibition is opened at New Orleans.

1885. Imports of merchandise, $577,527,329; exports of merchandise, $742,189,755; immigrants, 395,346.

Feb. 21. **Washington Monument** is dedicated at Washington. (See *Washington Monument*, under Washington, in the *Dictionary.*)

Feb. 26. Congress forbids the immigration of contract laborers. [twenty-second president.

March 4. **Grover Cleveland** takes the oath as[

April 16. State park at Niagara Falls is created by New York legislature.

June 30. **Fisheries** reciprocity with Canada under Treaty of Washington is terminated by the United States; because of Canadian obstruction of what the United States claims as rights under the Treaty of 1818, **controversy** becomes **acute.**

July 1. National net debt, $1,375,352,444.

Letter postage reduced to **two cents an ounce;** second-class postage to one cent a pound, causing a continued deficit in the department.

Dec. 7. Forty-ninth Congress assembles: Senate, 34 Democrats, 42 Republicans; House, 183 Democrats, 140 Republicans, 2 Greenbackers.

1886. *Jan. 19.* **Presidential Succession Act,** making the members of the cabinet eligible in case of vacancy of president and vice president.

March–May. Great strike on the Gould system of railroads in Missouri and neighboring States, promoted by the Knights of Labor. It fails. The year is one of many labor disturbances; Knights of Labor endeavor to force a general eight-hour day. [ing a strike there.

May 4. **Anarchist riot in Chicago,** follow-[

May 10. In Yick Wo *v.* Hopkins the Supreme Court decides that a municipal ordinance designed to make arbitrary and unjust discriminations against Chinese laundries is contrary to the principles of the Fourteenth Amendment.

April 22. Cleveland sends a special message to Congress devoted to the labor question, the first of its kind and indicative of the growing importance of a matter considered originally as entirely outside the Federal purview.

Aug. 2. Congress places a tax on oleomargarine; an early pure-food law.

Aug. 31. Severe earthquake on the Atlantic seaboard, especially at Charleston.

Sept. 4. Surrender of Geronimo and his Apaches to General Miles in Arizona ends the last important Indian disturbance.

Oct. 12. Gales and floods in Texas and Louisiana destroy property and 247 lives.

Oct. 25. In Wabash, St. Louis, and Pacific Railway Co. *v.* Illinois, the Supreme Court construes a State long-and-short-haul act as being a regulation of interstate commerce. The court reconsiders the Granger Cases of 1877, arguing that the question of interstate commerce was there only incidental. This decision shows the need of Federal regulation of the railroads.

Oct. 28. Bartholdi's "Statue of Liberty" (Liberty Enlightening the World, see in the *Dictionary*) is unveiled in New York Harbor.

1887. *Jan. 29.* **Mexican War Pension Act** becomes law; age, dependency, or disabilities are pensionable.

Feb. 3. **Electoral Count Act** is passed to prevent a recurrence of the 1876 situation; decision of State machinery to be accepted.

Feb. 4. **Interstate Commerce Act** passes after an agitation of years. State regulation of railroads by legislation and commissions (Granger movement), though upheld by the Supreme Court, was not powerful enough or uniform and gave place to a demand for Federal regulation. Railroads very powerful and frequently affect or control State governments. Act creates an administrative commission with power to prevent abuses in interstate commerce (pooling, rebates, etc.); it soon proves that further legislation is needed to make the power an efficient one.

Feb. 8. **Indian Allotment Law** is enacted; under stipulated conditions Indians may be given land in severalty and become citizens. During this period the reservations are being rapidly reduced in size and number and the land opened to white settlement.

Feb. 11. Cleveland vetoes the Disability and Dependent Pension Bill for Civil War veterans. He relentlessly uses the veto power against private pension bills.

March 2. Hatch Act authorizes the establishment of agricultural experiment stations in connection with Morrill Act colleges (see **1862,** July 2), United States to contribute funds.

Tenure-of-Office Act, previously modified, is repealed.

A more drastic antipolygamy act is passed, which the Supreme Court in Mormon Church *v.* United States (May 19, 1890) upholds as not contrary to the right of religious freedom.

The president is authorized to retaliate on Canadian trade for the obstruction of the fishing rights; no action taken.

May 27. In Philadelphia and Southern Steamship Co. *v.* Pennsylvania, the Supreme Court holds a State tax upon the gross receipts of a steamship company derived from interstate and foreign commerce contrary to the exclusive power of Congress.

Sept. 5. **Labor Day** is first observed in New York as a legal holiday.

Sept. 15–17. Centenary of the framing of the Federal Constitution celebrated at Philadelphia.

Dec. 5. Fiftieth Congress begins: Senate, 37 Democrats, 45 Republicans; House, 169 Democrats, 152 Republicans, 2 Laborites, 2 Independents.

In Mugler *v.* Kansas the Supreme Court decides that a State prohibition act is not contrary to the Fourteenth Amendment, but a proper police regulation to protect the public health and morals.

Dec. 6. **Cleveland's annual message** is entirely devoted to the surplus and **tariff question,** making this the one issue of the next campaign. " A condition, not a theory."

1888. *Feb. 20.* **Treaty** signed with **Great Britain** to settle the **fisheries** dispute; the Senate rejects it (August 21). A *modus vivendi*, frequently renewed, prevents further trouble.

March 19. In Bowman *v.* Chicago and Northwestern Railway Co. a State law forbidding the importation of liquor is held void by the Supreme Court as a regulation of interstate commerce.

April 9. In Powell *v.* Pennsylvania the Supreme Court decides that a State law prohibiting the manufacture and sale of articles designed to take the place of butter or cheese is constitutional.

April 23. The Supreme Court begins in the Missouri Pacific Railway Company *v.* Mackey its series of important interpretations of the Fourteenth Amendment as applied to labor questions, holding that a State statute abolishing the fellow-servant doctrine in workmen's compensation for injuries is not contrary to the amendment.

July 20. Melville W. Fuller becomes chief justice of the Supreme Court.

Oct. 1. Congress authorizes the appointment of commissions of voluntary arbitration between interstate railroads and their laborers: beginning of policy of settlement of labor disputes by national authority.

Second Chinese Exclusion Act prohibits the return of laborers who have left the country.

Nov. 6. Twenty-sixth presidential election: Harrison and Levi P. Morton, Republicans, receive 233 electoral votes; Cleveland and Allen G. Thurman, 168 votes; Labor, Prohibition, and United Labor parties present platforms and candidates.

1889. Bankruptcy of the French **Panama Canal** Company; of importance to the United States, where the concession is deemed contrary to the nation's policy and welfare, if not to the Monroe Doctrine. Interest in an American canal is stimulated; an American company organizes for work through Nicaraguan isthmus.

Feb. 9. Department of Agriculture becomes an executive department and its secretary a cabinet officer.

March 4. **Benjamin Harrison** inaugurated as twenty-third president; James G. Blaine is secretary of state.

April 22. Part of Indian Territory (Oklahoma) is opened, and a wild rush to settle ensues.

April 29–May 1. Celebration in New York of the centennial of Washington's inauguration.

May 31. Breaking of the Conemaugh Dam **floods Johnstown,** Pa., and destroys 2,295 lives.

June 14. Tripartite agreement with Great Britain and Germany for the independence and joint control of Samoa.

Oct. 1. Constitution of North Dakota establishes prohibition.

Oct. 2. First **Pan-American Congress** meets at Washington. Delegates tour the country and hold sessions lasting until April 19, 1890. A bureau, later called the **Pan-American Union,** is organized with headquarters in Washington.

Nov. 2. North Dakota (39th State) and South Dakota (40th State) admitted.

Nov. 8. Montana (41st State) admitted.

Nov. 11. Washington (42d State) admitted.

Dec. 2. Fifty-first Congress: Senate, 37 Democrats, 45 Republicans; House, 161 Democrats, 169 Republicans. Republican majority later increased by contested-election decisions.

1890. Imports of merchandise, $789,310,409; exports of merchandise, $857,828,684; immigrants, 455,302.

Feb. 4. Centennial of the United States Supreme Court is celebrated at New York.

Feb. 14. "Reed rules" are established in the House of Representatives; provision for counting the quorum; powers of Speaker to refuse certain filibustering motions. The most important change in Congressional practice since the adoption of the previous question (see *previous question*, under PREVIOUS, in the *Dictionary*).

April 28. In Leisy *v.* Hardin the Supreme Court supplements an earlier decision by holding that State prohibition of the sale in the "original package" by the importer of liquor from another State is unconstitutional.

May 2. Oklahoma Territory (the last in the continental area) is established out of part of Indian Territory and later increased. [947,714.]

June. Eleventh U. S. census: population 62,-[

June 27. **Disability and Dependent Pension Act** for Civil War veterans and widows is signed. About doubles pension outgo and aids in reducing the surplus. Veterans incapable of manual labor and dependent widows and children are pensionable.

July 1. National net debt, $890,784,371.

July 2. House passes a **Force Bill** to protect Negro voters in the South, but the Senate shelves it, by combination of senators from silver-producing States.

July 2. **Sherman Antitrust Act** makes combinations in restraint of interstate or foreign commerce illegal. Applies general principle of interstate commerce to transportation and other corporations.

July 3. Idaho (43d State) admitted.

July 10. Wyoming (44th State) admitted.

July 14. Congress enacts the **Silver Purchase Act**, which supersedes the Bland-Allison Act of 1878. It is a further compromise with the demand for free silver and requires the purchase each month of 4,500,000 ounces of silver and the issue of legal-tender silver treasury notes equal to the purchase value.

Aug. 8. Original Package Act (see under ORIGINAL, in the *Dictionary*) passed to do away with the situation caused by the Leisy *v.* Hardin decision and give the States the right to prevent the importation and sale of liquor.

Aug. 30. Congress passes an act for the inspection of pork products intended for exportation; the outcome of controversies with foreign nations, especially Germany. President is given power to retaliate on unjust discriminations against American products.

Federal encouragement of agricultural education is increased by an act for an annual grant to the Morrill agricultural colleges (see **1862**, July 2, above).

Sept. 29. Act for the general forfeiture of unearned Federal land grants to railroads. This has been a popular demand for years, due to the conviction that the lands were unreasonably tied up. Previous acts have forfeited special grants.

Oct. 1. Act for **Weather Bureau.** Hitherto this work done by the Signal Corps of the army.

McKinley Tariff Act. Increases and systematizes protection; revenue is reduced by prohibitive duties and the placing of raw sugar on the free list, a sugar bounty being given the domestic producers as an offset. Limited reciprocity authorized, especially with Latin America. Under this section arrangements are proclaimed by Harrison with eleven countries, but the tariff act of 1894 annuls them. Prices of imported goods suddenly rise.

Nov. 1. Mississippi adopts a new constitution, the first to restrict Negro suffrage through the "understanding clause."

Nov. 6. Congressional election; effects of the McKinley Act cause defeat of Republican party.

1891. *March 2.* Congress returns to the States the amount paid as direct tax during the Civil War; a sort of surplus-revenue distribution.

March 3. A further Immigration and Contract Act is passed, and the office of Superintendent of Immigration created. **Great growth of immigration** and changes in character of immigrants. Decrease in immigration of Teutonic stocks and increase in Latin and Slavic ones. Organized labor favors restrictions. The problem receives serious study and various reports on it are presented to Congress.

International Copyright Law is enacted, to go into effect on July 1.

The preëmption and timber-culture acts are repealed, both having been prolific of fraud; and the president is authorized to make **forest reserves**, such reserves being withdrawn from settlement and used to conserve the lumber supply as well as to prevent floods. By 1920 the reserves cover about 273,000 square miles.

Circuit Courts of Appeal are created, relieving Supreme Court of some of the appellate jurisdiction.

Ocean Mail Subsidy Act is passed in order to foster the growth of the American merchant marine in foreign trade, which has fallen greatly since the Civil War and with the development of iron steamers. Act fails to accomplish much.

March 14. Lynching of eleven Italians in New Orleans causes a protest and demand for reparation by Italy, her minister at Washington being recalled. Eventually settled out of emergency fund of the State Department (April 12, 1892).

May 25. *In re* Rahrer the Supreme Court holds the Original Package Law to be constitutional; the protection given by the Fourteenth Amendment does not interfere with the power of the States to make the ordinary police regulations.

Oct. 16. Attack on American sailors by a mob at Valparaiso, Chile. War becomes imminent through Chile's delay to make amends.

Dec. 1. Fifty-second Congress meets: Senate, 39 Democrats, 47 Republicans, 2 Independents; House, 235 Democrats, 88 Republicans, 9 Farmers' Alliance men.

1892. *Jan. 21.* Ultimatum is presented to Chile, and on January 25 Harrison sends a war message to Congress; but Chile soon apologizes and pays an indemnity.

Feb. 29. Convention signed with Great Britain submitting to arbitration the right of the United States to prohibit pelagic hunting of the **fur seals in the Bering Sea.** The award of the arbitrators, signed and published Aug. 15, 1893, favored Great Britain and ended a long controversy during which various Canadian vessels had been seized for killing seals on the sea. (See BERING SEA CONTROVERSY, in the *Dictionary*.)

June–August. Country is affected by many strikes accompanied by much violence, especially in Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Wyoming, and Idaho. At the Homestead Steel Works protection of non-union laborers by private detectives ("Pinkertons") leads to a pitched battle. In Tennessee the trouble is an outcome of the employment of convict miners. Harrison issues proclamations (July 15, 30) against the striking miners in the West, and Federal troops are used in restoring order and to support injunctions of the Federal courts. These disturbances characterize a season of economic and social unrest.

Nov. 8. Twenty-seventh presidential election: Cleveland and Adlai E. Stevenson, Democrats, receive 277 electoral votes; Harrison and Whitelaw Reid, Republicans, 145 votes; People's or **Populist party**, which embodies the Farmers' Alliance, first minor party to cast electoral votes, gets 22 for J. B. Weaver and J. G. Field, its candidates. This party aims to remedy the conditions and complaints of the farming and laboring classes. Prohibition and Socialist Labor parties also have candidates.

1893. Edison develops the kinetoscope or **moving-picture** apparatus.

Feb. 14. Treaty of annexation with Hawaii is signed. This follows a revolt led by Americans, assisted by the American minister, and protected by American marines, by which the queen is deposed. Not ratified.

March 1. Congress authorizes the title of American "ambassador" to foreign courts. By 1920, 15 legations have been raised to that rank.

March 2. Safety Appliance Act of Congress regulates brakes and couplers on trains in interstate commerce.

March 3. Dawes Commission is authorized by Congress, to dissolve tribal government among the Five Civilized Tribes, preliminary to the incorporation of their lands into Oklahoma. Commission allots the land in severalty, and the Indians eventually become citizens of Oklahoma.

March 4. **Grover Cleveland** begins his second administration as president.

March 9. Cleveland withdraws the Hawaiian Annexation Treaty from the Senate. He appoints a special commissioner to consider the revolt. Offers to restore the queen on conditions which she declines. Hawaii remains independent.

May 1–Oct. 30. **World Columbian Exposition** at Chicago to commemorate the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America.

June 18. Great Northern Railroad is opened; the first transcontinental line to be constructed without a land grant.

June 27. Commercial **panic** is started, the result of complex causes of which the most apparent to the public is the fear of a silver standard. The redemption of notes in gold, which notes are reissued, makes an "endless chain" for **draining the gold reserve.** A continuous increase of silver notes and a rapid decline in the value of silver. Hard times continue for several years; and there is a treasury deficit of $156,000,000 during the fiscal years 1894–97.

Aug. 7. Fifty-third Congress meets in special session: Senate, 44 Democrats, 37 Republicans, 4 Independents; House, 218 Democrats, 127 Republicans, 11 Populists and Independents. There are silver men in both the chief parties, but mainly they are Democrats. Democratic party for the first time since 1859 controls both houses of Congress and the executive.

Aug. 15. Award in the Bering Sea Arbitration denies the right of the United States to prevent killing of the seals beyond the three-mile limit.

Aug. 24. Cyclone on the Atlantic coast does much damage and destroys many lives, especially about Charleston and Savannah.

Nov. 1. Congress **repeals** the purchase clause of the **Silver Act** (of 1890), but does not stop the drain of the gold reserve.

Nov. 7. Colorado adopts woman suffrage.

1894. *Jan. 1.* Midwinter Fair opens in San Francisco.

Jan. 17. Issue of $50,000,000 in bonds is offered to replenish the gold reserve, which by February 1 falls to $65,000,000, as $100,000,000 is considered the minimum safety point.

Feb. 8. Democrats being in control ("South in the saddle") the Federal Election Law of 1871 is repealed.

March 29. Cleveland vetoes a bill to coin the purchased silver bullion to the amount of the seigniorage. (See SEIGNIORAGE, *n.*, 2., in the *Dict.*).

April 29. Remnant of **"Coxey's Army** of the Commonwealth of Christ," a demonstration of the unemployed, reaches Washington with a demand for the issue of $500,000,000 paper money. Strikes and other labor movements emphasize the hard times, for which "cheap money and plenty of it," especially the free coinage of silver, is presented as a panacea.

June 26–July 14. **Strike of the American Railway Union** starts in Chicago with the refusal to handle Pullman cars because of a strike of laborers in the Pullman factory. Extends all over the West, accompanied by much rioting and completely stops transportation on 50,000 miles of railroads. Debs and other strike leaders are arrested on Federal injunctions for interference with interstate commerce and carriage of the mails. Local troops are called out in many places, and President Cleveland, without waiting for requests from State executives, employs Federal troops, especially at Chicago, to protect the railroads. Strike fails.

Aug. 8. **Hawaiian Republic** is officially **recognized** by the United States.

Aug. 18. Carey Act authorizes the granting of arid public lands to States, subject to irrigation and actual occupation by settlers. Act does not prove effective.

Aug. 28. **Wilson-Gorman Tariff Act** becomes law without the president's signature, as he does not deem it such a reform measure as that to which his party stands pledged. The act, aside from putting wool and lumber on the free list, makes but slight reduction in protection. Raw sugar restored to the dutiable list and the sugar bounty repealed. Act levies a second income tax.

September. Forest fires destroy 19 towns in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan, and 500 people are killed.

Nov. 5. A second bond issue of $50,000,000 is made to replenish the gold reserve.

1895. Imports of merchandise, $731,969,965; exports of merchandise, $807,538,165; immigrants, 279,948.

The **automobile** comes into practical use.

Jan. 21. In United States *v.* Knight (Sugar Trust Case) the Supreme Court limits the Sherman Antitrust Act by holding that it does not apply to monopolies in manufacturing.

Feb. 11. **Gold reserve** is reduced to about $41,-000,000. Cleveland (February 8) contracts with a syndicate to buy bonds which they immediately resell at a large premium. Much public criticism.

March 2. Bureau of Immigration created and superintendent is made a commissioner-general.

May 20. In Pollock *v.* Farmers' Law and Trust Co. the Supreme Court by 5 to 4 declares the income tax unconstitutional, being direct and not apportioned.

May 27. *In re* Debs the Supreme Court declares that an injunction to prevent strikers from interfering with interstate commerce or the movement of the mails is a legitimate means of exercising the power vested in the United States. Organized labor holds that this "government by injunction" is an unjust handicap in favor of capital.

July 1. National net debt, $901,672,976.

Sept. 18–Dec. 31. Cotton States and International Exposition is held at Atlanta. [suffrage.]

Nov. 5. Utah constitution calls for woman

Dec. 2. Fifty-fourth Congress begins its sessions: Senate, 39 Democrats, 42 Republicans, 6 Independents and Silverites; House, 104 Democrats, 248 Republicans, and 11 Populists and Independents.

Dec. 17. Cleveland's message on **Venezuela and British Guiana boundary controversy** holds that the right of the United States under the Monroe Doctrine is involved in Great Britain's refusal to arbitrate with Venezuela ("Olney Doctrine"). He recommends a commission to decide the rights of the controversy. Congress authorizes the commission (December 21).

1895 (*continued*).

Dec. 31. South Carolina adopts a new constitution which contains the "understanding clause" for the purpose of disfranchising the Negroes.

1896. **Rural free delivery** is begun in a small way, and develops quickly into a great system.

Jan. 4. Utah admitted (45th State); the constitution prohibits polygamy, which the Mormon Church has earlier formally renounced.

Feb. 5. A popular issue of $100,000,000 in bonds is quickly subscribed at a premium, and the gold reserve rises to a point of safety.

April 22. International Arbitration Congress meets at Washington.

May 18. In Plessy *v.* Ferguson the Supreme Court holds that a State law requiring railroads to give separate but equal accommodation to white and colored travelers is not a violation of the Thirteenth or Fourteenth amendments ("Jim Crow" cars).

July 30. President's proclamation warning citizens against violating the neutrality laws by aiding the **Insurrection in Cuba,** which has existed for over a year and has excited much interest and sympathy in the United States.

Nov. 3. **Twenty-eighth presidential election:** Republicans secure 271 electoral votes for McKinley and G. A. Hobart; Democrats, 176 votes for W. J. Bryan and 149 for Arthur Sewall for vice president. Silver Republicans and Populists support Bryan and cast 27 electoral votes for Thomas E. Watson for vice president. Though there is an attempt to force the tariff question to the front, the real issue is that of free silver. Republicans stand by gold standard; the Democrats insist on free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 (market value of silver about 30 to 1). Gold or National Democrats present separate candidates, as do the Prohibition, Socialist Labor, and National parties.

Idaho adopts woman suffrage.

UNITED STATES AS A WORLD POWER.

1896. *Nov. 12.* Great Britain and United States reach an agreement for the settlement of the British Guiana boundary by formal arbitration treaty between Great Britain and Venezuela (made February 2, 1897).

1897. *Jan. 11.* General arbitration treaty is signed with Great Britain; Senate rejects it (May 5).

March 2. Cleveland vetoes a bill for a **literacy test of immigrants.** [twenty-fourth president.]

March 4. **William McKinley** inaugurated as

March 15. Fifty-fifth Congress meets in extra session to revise the tariff: Senate, 34 Democrats, 47 Republicans, 3 Independents and Silverites, 5 Populists; House, 134 Democrats, 207 Republicans, 14 Populists, 2 Silverites. Entire government returns to Republican control.

March 22. In United States *v.* Trans-Missouri Freight Association the Supreme Court applies Sherman Antitrust Act to common carriers by railroad; a combination in restraint of interstate commerce is illegal without respect to whether the restraint is "reasonable."

May 5. **Greater New York** charter is signed by the governor; goes into effect January 1, 1898, and incorporates into one municipality an area of 326 square miles with a population of 3,400,000.

May 20. Senate passes a resolution recognizing Cuban belligerency.

July 24. **Dingley Tariff Act** augments the protection and furnishes additional revenue; it restores the duty on wool and lumber, and authorizes negotiation of reciprocity treaties. Seven such treaties are eventually ratified, but the policy is abandoned by the act of 1909.

1898. *Feb. 15.* U.S.S. **Maine blown up** in Havana harbor; more than 250 lives lost. No adequate explanation ever discovered, except that it is due to external cause.

Feb. 18. In Holden *v.* Hardy the Supreme Court holds that a State regulation for an eight-hour day for certain classes of mining employees, with emergency exceptions, is a proper police regulation for the protection and health of citizens and not contrary to the Fourteenth Amendment.

March 7. In Smyth *v.* Ames the Supreme Court decides that a corporation is a "person" within meaning of the Fourteenth Amendment, and inadequate intrastate railroad rates fixed by a State deprive the railroad of its property without due process of law. Courts have the right to decide whether the rates are reasonable.

March 10. Congress empowers the president to spend $50,000,000 for national defense. U.S.S. **Oregon** leaves San Francisco, March 19, on a voyage around Cape Horn to join the Atlantic fleet; reaches Florida on May 24. President sends to Congress on March 28 report of Court of Inquiry into *Maine* disaster, attributing it to external cause. On April 11 he suggests that he be empowered to use the army and navy to end disorders in Cuba, and places with Congress the responsibility for dealing decisively with "the intolerable condition of affairs which is at our doors." **Resolutions** are passed by Congress, April 20, **that the United States intervene in Cuba** to enforce her independence, but disclaiming the intention to annex the island ("Teller resolution"). Spanish minister leaves Washington on the same day. American fleet sails on April 21 from Key West to blockade Cuban ports. President on April 23 calls for 125,000 volunteers. April 25, **Congress declares that war with Spain** has existed since April 21. May 1, **Dewey** with Pacific fleet attacks and **destroys Spanish fleet** of ten ships **in Manila Bay.**

May 12. New constitution goes into effect in Louisiana disfranchising Negroes through the "grandfather clause." Limitations on suffrage not to apply to descendants of those who could vote in 1861.

May 25. President calls for 75,000 additional volunteers. 2,500 soldiers are sent from San Francisco to support Dewey in his operations against Manila.

May 28. In United States *v.* Wong Kim Ark the Supreme Court declares that native citizenship under the Fourteenth Amendment is without respect to race or color; a child born in the United States of resident Chinese parents is therefore a citizen and cannot be prevented by the Chinese Exclusion Act from reëntering the United States.

June 1. Exposition of the arts and industries of trans-Mississippi States is opened at Omaha. Erdman Act authorizes governmental mediation and voluntary arbitration of disputes between carriers engaged in interstate commerce and their employees, and forbids such carriers to discriminate against union laborers or to blacklist them.

June 2. The fleet, under **Sampson, blockades Santiago,** Cuba, preventing the exit of the Spanish fleet under Cervera. On June 3 Lt. Richmond P. **Hobson** sinks the *Merrimac* in the channel as an obstacle to the escape of the Spanish fleet.

June 6. Final Amnesty Act removes remainder of Civil War disabilities under Fourteenth Amendment.

June 10. Invasion of Cuba by the Americans begins with the landing of 600 marines at Guantánamo Bay, near Santiago. Fifth Army Corps, 16,000 men, under **Shafter,** sails from Tampa Bay for Santiago, June 12. They arrive June 20.

June 13. War Revenue Act provides for the raising of revenues by excise duties, tax on tea, and for a bond loan of $400,000,000, but only half the bonds are issued.

June 20. **Guam seized** by U.S.S. *Charleston.*

June 30. First **U. S. troops reach Manila.** The outer defenses of Santiago de Cuba are carried by **Shafter,** in battles of **El Caney** and **San Juan Hill. Roosevelt's "Rough Riders"** in the fight.

July 3. Cervera's fleet of six war vessels, escaping from Santiago harbor, completely destroyed by American fleet under **Sampson.** Question as to responsibility of Admiral Schley. [lution.]

July 7. **Annexation of Hawaii** by joint reso-

July 17. **Santiago** with all its forces (20,000) **is surrendered** to Shafter. General **Miles** lands with an army at Guanica, July 25, and begins the **conquest of Porto Rico.** On July 28 Ponce surrenders. Spain inquires, on July 23, on what terms the United States would cease hostilities. On August 12 a protocol is signed at Washington suspending hostilities. Manila surrenders, August 13, to General Merritt and Admiral Dewey

Aug. 23. The joint High Commission to adjust differences between the United States and Canada meets at Quebec. It accomplishes little

Sept. 30. **John Hay** becomes secretary of state. [Rico.]

Oct. 18. United States flag is raised over Porto

Dec. 10. **Treaty of Peace** is signed at **Paris;** Spain abandons Cuba, cedes Porto Rico, Guam, and Philippines to United States, and is paid $20,000,000.

1899. *Feb. 4.* Filipinos attempt to capture Manila, but are repulsed with heavy loss. This begins the **Philippine Insurrection.** During the year the warfare is largely desultory and in favor of the government.

Feb. 6. Peace treaty with Spain ratified by Senate; signed by the President, February 10.

April 11. **Treaty of Peace** is proclaimed.

May 18–July 29. **First Hague Conference.** Conventions for pacific settlement of international disputes and to ameliorate war. Delegates from the United States sign with a reservation of the Monroe Doctrine.

July 19 Sec. of War Alger resigns because of severe criticism of conduct of Spanish War.

Aug. 8. Hurricane in Porto Rico; 2,000 killed, $75,000,000 lost. [of Dewey.]

Naval and land parade at New York in honor

Sept. 6. Secretary Hay's **open-door** policy for China receives recognition by other powers (see CHINA). [preliminary report.]

Nov. 7. Philippine Commission submits a

Dec. 2. Joint treaty with Great Britain and Germany for the division of **Samoa.** United States receives Tutuila.

Dec. 4. In Addyston Pipe and Steel Co. *v.* United States the Supreme Court, diverging from the lines previously laid down, declares that an agreement for no competition, which operates directly not only on the manufacture but on the sale, transportation, or delivery of an article of interstate commerce, violates Sherman Antitrust Act.

Fifty-sixth Congress assembles: Senate, 26 Democrats, 51 Republicans, 4 Silverites, 5 Populists, 1 Independent; House, 160 Democrats, 186 Republicans, 25 Silverites, 7 Populists.

Dec. 16. Leonard Wood appointed military governor of Cuba.

1900. Imports of merchandise, $849,941,184; exports, $1,394,483,082; immigrants, 448,572.

Boxer trouble in China (see CHINA).

Jan. 12. Chicago drainage canal is opened.

Feb. 5. First Hay-Pauncefote treaty on Canal. Amended by Senate (Dec. 13) and fails.

March 5. Council of New York University accepts gift for a building, "The **Hall of Fame** for Great Americans," to be erected on University Heights, New York City. Dedicated May 30, 1901.

March 14. **Gold Standard Act** makes gold dollar standard unit of value.

March 16. **Philippine Civil Commission** is appointed by the president, pending action of Congress, to establish civil government in the islands. Members reach Manila in June.

April 9. In Petit *v.* Minnesota the Supreme Court holds that State regulations on Sunday closing are not contrary to Fourteenth Amendment.

April 12. Act provides civil government for Porto Rico and fixes tariff rates between island and United States. [established.]

April 30. Hawaiian territorial government

May 14. In Knowlton *v.* Moore the Supreme Court decides that the Federal inheritance tax in act of June 13, 1898, is a constitutional indirect tax. [994,575.]

June. Twelfth U. S. census; population 75,-

June 6. Alaska is given a civil government and code. [proclamation to Filipinos.]

June 21. General MacArthur issues amnesty

July 1. National net debt, $1,107,711,258.

Aug. 2. North Carolina constitutional suffrage amendment with "grandfather clause."

Sept. 8. **Galveston** and many Gulf towns are damaged by a terrible hurricane and **flood;** 6,000 lives lost, $30,000,000 of property destroyed.

Sept. 17–Oct. 25. Strike of 100,000 anthracite coal miners in Pennsylvania; settlement is favorable to strikers.

Oct. 29. First list of names chosen for **"Hall of Fame"** (see March 5, above):

Washington, Lincoln, Webster, Franklin, Grant, Marshall, Jefferson, Emerson, Longfellow, Fulton, Irving, Jonathan Edwards, S. F. B. Morse, Farragut, Clay, Hawthorne, George Peabody, R. E. Lee, Peter Cooper, Whitney, Audubon, Mann, Beecher, Kent, Story, John Adams, Channing, Gilbert Stuart, Asa Gray. Others to be added at intervals up to a total of 150 in year 2000.

Nov. 6 Twenty-ninth presidential election McKinley and Roosevelt, Republicans, 292 electoral votes; Bryan and Stevenson, Democrats, 155. **Free silver** and **imperialism** are the issues; Socialist, Prohibition, Socialist Labor, Populist, United Christian, and United Reform parties also appear in the campaign.

Nov. 12. Military department of Porto Rico is discontinued and the forces there reduced.

1901. *Feb. 2.* Army Reorganization Act. Provides for a minimum army of 58,000 men, with a maximum of 100,000.

Feb. 25. United States Steel Corporation ("billion-dollar trust") organized.

March 2. By the Spooner Amendment Congress authorizes the president to establish temporary civil **government in the Philippines,** thereby sanctioning his action under the war powers. By the **Platt Amendment** a virtual **protectorate** is established **over Cuba,** the conditions imposed being incorporated in the Cuban constitution on June 12 [at Buffalo.]

May 1–Nov. 2. **Pan-American Exposition**

May 3. Fire in Jacksonville, Fla., destroys $10,000,000 of property; 10,000 persons made homeless.

May 9. **Panic in Wall Street** over control of Northern Pacific Railroad, whose stock for a moment touches 1,000.

May 27. In the **Insular Cases** the Supreme Court holds that Porto Rico by the treaty ceased to be a foreign country within the meaning of the tariff laws, and a tariff put in force by the president after the treaty is ratified is unconstitutional; but the island is not yet a part of the United States in which all import duties must be "uniform," so that the act of April 12, 1900, is constitutional so long as Congress has not fully "incorporated" the territory.

July 15–Sept. 14. 150,000 steel workers strike for further recognition of their organizations. Strike fails.

July 25. Porto Rico fulfills conditions and is

1901 (*continued*).
proclaimed to be within the customs area of the United States, enjoying free trade with the States.

Aug. 16. **Wireless telegram** received at Siasconset, Nantucket, from Steamship *Lucania*.

Sept. 6. **McKinley shot** by an anarchist at Buffalo. He dies September 14.

Sept. 14. **Theodore Roosevelt** takes oath as twenty-fifth president. Announces intention to carry out McKinley's policies.

Oct. 22. Second Pan-American Congress opens in Mexico City.

Nov. 18. **Hay-Pauncefote Treaty** is signed; Clayton-Bulwer Treaty abrogated and British consent given to American sole control of the Isthmian Canal.

Nov. 28. Alabama's new constitution disfranchises the Negroes in a "grandfather clause."

Dec. 1. South Carolina Interstate and West Indian Exposition opens at Charleston.

Dec. 2. Fifty-seventh Congress begins: Senate, 36 Democrats, 52 Republicans, 1 Silverite; House, 150 Democrats, 197 Republicans, 9 Fusionists.

Dec. 13. Findings of Court of Inquiry as to Admiral Schley's conduct in Cuba indecisive; Roosevelt adds a memorandum (February 18, 1902) declaring that neither Sampson nor Schley was responsible for the victory at Santiago; it was a "captains' fight."

Condition of dependencies in 1901: Hawaiian Territorial Legislature meets February 20. The labor question is prominent. In November ex-Queen Liliuokalani asks indemnification for confiscation of crown lands. In the Philippines civil government is established in many provinces, and the military forces reduced. Emilio Aguinaldo, Philippine leader, is captured on March 23. By treaty with Spain (March 23), the islands of Cagayan Sulu and Sibutu, omitted from the treaty, are purchased. Civil government is established in Manila, May 3. July 4, W. H. Taft becomes civil governor of the Philippines. December 8, in Batangas, more severe enforcement of military law, with concentration of inhabitants.

1902. *Jan. 4.* Carnegie Institution of Washington, for research along many lines, is incorporated. Starts with an endowment of $10,000,000 from Andrew Carnegie.

Jan. 24. Second treaty is signed with Denmark for the purchase of the Virgin Islands; the Rigsdag rejects the treaty (October 22).

Feb. 23–March 11. Visit to United States of Prince Henry of Prussia, the kaiser's brother.

March 7. Permanent Census Bureau is authorized by Congress.

March 8. Act establishing tariff rates between the United States and the Philippines. Unrestricted trade not granted.

April 12. War taxes are repealed.

April 29. **Chinese Exclusion Act** continues the policy and extends it to the insular territories.

May 12–Oct. 21. **Strike of anthracite coal miners;** 145,000 miners stop work. Coal famine results. July 30, Pennsylvania militia ordered to the mines. Roosevelt calls a conference at Washington on October 3. October 13, operators accept the demand of the president for an extralegal commission appointed by him to make an award, by which both sides agree to abide, the miners meanwhile returning to work.

May 22. Military occupation of Cuba ends. Brief statement of the "Reformed Faith" is adopted by the Presbyterian General Assembly.

May 31. Army ordered reduced from 77,287 to 66,497. [Academy.

June 9–11. Centennial of West Point Military

June 17. **Newlands Reclamation Act** provides a fund out of public-land receipts to construct and maintain irrigation works in arid West.

June 28. **Isthmian Canal Act** authorizes the purchase of the rights of the French Canal Company for $40,000,000.

July 1. **Philippine Government Act** confirms the acts of the presidential commission and provides for an eventual insular legislature; commission meanwhile serves as the government. Sealing dispute with Russia, dating from 1891, is decided in favor of United States by arbitration.

July 4. General amnesty in Philippines, and insurrection is declared at an end.

July 10. Virginia's new constitution goes into operation without submission to the voters. Negro vote much reduced.

Sept. 17. Secretary Hay protests against the outrages committed on Jews in Roumania.

Oct. 1. International Mercantile Marine Company ("the shipping combine") is formed; capital, $120,000,000. It controls 114 steamers with a tonnage of 840,000.

Oct. 14. Hague Arbitration Court gives decision in the "Pious Fund" case of United States against Mexico. The "Pious Fund" was established by pious people of Mexico and Spain 200 years ago for support of missions in California and elsewhere; payment of income from fund refused by Mexico on cession of California to the U. S.

King Oscar of Sweden decides the Samoan controversy in favor of Germany.

Nov. 29. Hague Tribunal awards damage against Russia for seizure of American sealers.

December. Venezuela episode (see VENEZUELA).

Dec. 11. **Reciprocity treaty with Cuba** is signed, but Senate prevents operation for a year.

1903. *Jan. 1.* Hawaiian cable is completed.

Jan. 21. Dick Militia Law provides for the optional federalization of State troops.

Jan. 22. Hay-Herrán **Panama Canal Treaty** signed; but Colombian government rejects it on November 3, expecting to force better terms with the expiration of the French concession.

Jan. 24. Treaty signed with Great Britain for a commission to decide the Alaskan boundary question. Canada desires a port for the Klondike gold fields.

Feb. 11. Act to give precedence to antitrust and interstate-commerce cases in the courts.

Feb. 14. Department of Commerce and Labor is authorized; an executive department, its secretary a member of the cabinet.
General Staff of the army is authorized.

Feb. 19. Elkins Act; increases the control over interstate railroads, and forbids rebates.

March 3. **Immigration Act** increases the head tax to $2, and imposes further restrictions.

March 14. Anthracite Coal Commission reports nine-hour day, increase in wages with sliding scale for further increase, no discrimination against union men, board of conciliation.

April 27. Supreme Court in Giles *v.* Harris avoids, as it has done before, passing upon the constitutionality of Negro disfranchisement in Alabama. [its branches.

May–June. Great floods in the Mississippi and

May 4. In James *v.* Bowman the Supreme Court holds that the Fifteenth Amendment serves to prevent Federal and State, but not individual, action restricting Negro suffrage.

May 22. **Treaty with Cuba** is signed embodying the requirements of the protectorate.

July 4. American **Transpacific cable** is opened between United States and Philippines.

Aug. 15. Joseph Pulitzer founds a school of journalism at Columbia University, with endowment of $2,000,000. [its founding.

Sept. 28. Chicago celebrates the centennial of

Oct. 8. Commercial treaty with China is signed, giving further facilities for trade.

Oct. 10. Philippine Commission adopts the gold standard for the islands.

Oct. 20. Alaskan Joint Commission by vote of English representative decides that the boundary line does not reach the coast, which prevents any Canadian ports.

Nov. 3. **Panama revolts** from Colombia. Independence is recognized by the United States on November 6. United States troops land to protect the canal and fend off Colombian forces.

Nov. 9. Fifty-eighth Congress meets in special session: Senate, 33 Democrats, 57 Republicans; House, 178 Democrats, 207 Republicans.

Nov. 18. Hay-Bunau-Varilla **Panama Canal Treaty** signed with Panama. Independence of Panama guaranteed; United States to have monopoly of transit across the Isthmus, a **Canal Zone** 10 miles wide, police rights over cities of Panama and Colón, and power to protect the canal; Panama receives $10,000,000 and $250,000 a year after 1912.

December. Agreement between the papacy and the **Philippine** Commission for the purchase of the **Friars' lands** in the islands. [ation.

Dec. 17. Reciprocity with Cuba goes into oper-

1904. *Jan. 4.* In Gonzales *v.* Williams the Supreme Court decides that Porto Ricans are not aliens subject to the restrictions of the immigration laws. [ama policy.

Roosevelt's message defending his Canal and Pan-

Feb. 7–8. **Great fire in Baltimore** with loss of $80,000,000.

Feb. 8. United States invites the powers to suggest to Russia and Japan that their war in China be restricted to a small area and China neutralized.

Feb. 26. Panama Canal Treaty is proclaimed. February 29, Roosevelt appoints a commission of seven to construct the canal: J. F. Wallace appointed engineer in chief, on May 10.

March 14. In the **Northern Securities Case** the Supreme Court declares that a combination of competing railroads through a holding company is contrary to the Sherman Antitrust Act.

April 15. Andrew **Carnegie** establishes a **Hero Fund** of $5,000,000.

April 22. French Panama concession is transferred to United States.

April 28. Canal Zone Act authorizes possession and occupancy, and vests powers of temporary government in the president.

April 30–Dec. 1. **Louisiana Purchase Exposition** is held at St. Louis to commemorate the centennial of the annexation.

July 12–Sept. 8. Strike of meat-packing employees in Middle West. Also labor troubles in Colorado mines during the year.

July 25–Jan. 8, 1905. Strike of textile workers at Fall River, Mass. [subway is opened.

Oct. 27. Portion of New York's rapid transit

Oct. 30. Roosevelt issues a preliminary invitation to the powers to hold a second Hague Peace Congress.

Nov. 8. Thirtieth presidential election: Roosevelt and C. W. Fairbanks, Republican, receive 336 votes; A. B. Parker and H. G. Davis, Democrats, 140 votes. Silver is no longer an issue; trusts and Roosevelt's administration are the main questions. Four minor parties, Populists, Prohibitionists, Socialists, and Socialist Laborites, present candidates.

1905. Imports of merchandise, $1,117,513,071; exports, $1,518,561,666; immigrants, 1,026,499.

Jan. 30. In Swift Co. *v.* United States the Supreme Court declares contrary to the Antitrust Act a combination of a dominant proportion of dealers in fresh meat ("**Beef trust**") throughout the United States to regulate prices, restrict shipments, and get special rates in interstate transportation.

Feb. 7. Protocol is signed with **Santo Domingo,** by which the United States takes charge of the country's customs, adjusts foreign claims, and pays them out of the customs revenue; a virtual **protectorate** and intended to prevent European interference, similar to that in Venezuela. It goes into operation through a *modus vivendi* as Senate postpones ratification.

Feb. 20. In Jacobson *v.* Massachusetts the Supreme Court holds that compulsory vaccination does not violate the Fourteenth Amendment.

March 29. Panama Canal Commission resigns and new one is appointed on April 3. Wallace resigns; J. F. Stevens becomes chief engineer. Consulting engineers on Nov. 18 favor a sea-level canal.

April 17. In Lochner *v.* New York the Supreme Court annuls the New York law providing that no employee in a bakery shall be required *or permitted* to work beyond 10 hours a day or 60 hours a week." It is held to be contrary to the Fourteenth Amendment and the liberty of contract, baking not being an unhealthful business.

April 27. Andrew **Carnegie** gives $10,000,000 as a **pension fund for professors** in endowed colleges. Later increased to include professors of State universities.

May. Contest in Philadelphia between Mayor Weaver and the ring over the lease of the city gas works, in which the mayor is successful.

June 1–Oct. 14. **Lewis and Clark Exposition** is held at Portland, Oregon, to commemorate the centennial of their expedition.

June 8. **Roosevelt** offers his good offices to end the **Russo-Japanese War.** They are accepted and the **treaty of peace** is signed at **Portsmouth,** N. H., on September 5. (See JAPAN.)

June 30. John D. Rockefeller gives $10,000,000 to promote higher education in United States.

July 1. National net debt, $989,866,772

July 19. Elihu Root becomes secretary of state after death of Hay.

July 22. Yellow fever breaks out in New Orleans. On August 4 Federal authorities take charge of situation. Epidemic lasts into October with over 3,000 cases and about 400 deaths.

Sept. 6–Dec. 30. Investigation of **life insurance companies** by a legislative commission in New York (Armstrong Commission), conducted by Charles E. Hughes, shows many abuses and leads to widespread reform measures.

Oct. 9. J. Q. Adams, Lowell, Whittier, Sherman, Madison, Mary Lyon, Emma Willard, and Maria Mitchell are given places in **Hall of Fame.**

Nov. 7. Fall elections indicate revolt against hossism, especially in Ohio and Pennsylvania and cities of Cincinnati and Philadelphia.

Dec. 4. Fifty-ninth Congress assembles: Senate, 33 Democrats, 56 Republicans; House, 137 Democrats, 249 Republicans.

1906. *Jan. 17.* Bicentennial of birth of Franklin is widely celebrated.

Feb. 19. In Missouri *v.* Illinois the Supreme Court decides that the former State has not proved that the discharge of Chicago's sewage through the drainage canal deleteriously affects the water supply of St. Louis, taken from the Mississippi River.

March 5. Act granting Alaska a delegate in Congress.

April 2–May 6. Renewal of strike in Pennsylvania anthracite coal region; ends by agreement to renew award of commission of 1902. The bituminous coal miners also strike, but resume work July 13, without increase in wages.

April 18–20. **Earthquake** followed by a great **fire** destroys large portion of **San Francisco,** including the business section. Loss about $350,000,000. Congress appropriates $2,500,000 for relief and country-wide contributions are made.

June 11. Employers' Liability Act passes Congress, applicable to common carriers in interstate traffic.

June 16. Enabling Act for Oklahoma, including the balance of Indian Territory, and also for a

1906 (*continued*).
joint state for Arizona and New Mexico. Arizona refuses (November 6) to join with New Mexico.

June 26. Cable between Japan and United States is opened.

June 29. Act creating Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization with uniform rules for naturalization and a central record. [ama.

Congress votes to authorize a lock canal at Panama. **Hepburn Act** supplements the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887; it gives the commission control over pipe lines, express companies, sleeping-car companies, and private freight lines; the power to prescribe maximum rates; prohibits passes, and transportation of products (commodities clause, coal is chiefly meant) mined and produced by the transporting line.

June 30. **Meat Inspection and Pure Food laws.** Unsanitary conditions in the great meat-packing plants call for Federal inspection of meat intended for interstate and foreign transportation. The Pure Food Act (Federal Food and Drug Act) forbids the manufacture of misbranded or adulterated foods or drugs in the territories, or the interstate or foreign transportation of such articles. Does not forbid the manufacture and sale of such articles within a particular State, which must be regulated by State laws. In effect, Jan 1, 1907.

July 21–Aug. 26. American delegates attend the **third Pan-American Congress,** at Rio de Janeiro.

Sept. 19. President issues an order extending eight-hour labor law to all government work.

Sept. 22–24. Race riot in Atlanta; eighteen Negroes and three whites killed.

Sept. 29. Military control over Cuba is resumed because of disturbed conditions there.

Oct. 7–12. American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions celebrates at Williamstown the centennial of the "Haystack meeting," from which grew the foreign-mission movement in America.

Oct. 25. Japanese Ambassador Aoki protests against **exclusion of Japanese from** the public **schools in San Francisco.**

Nov. 2. Robert E. **Peary** reports that, on April 21, he reached **"farthest north"** at 87° 6′, or 203 miles from the pole.

Nov. 6. Roosevelt directs the dismissal of three companies of Negro regulars for disturbances at Brownsville, Texas, on August 13.

Nov. 8. The President sails on battleship *Louisiana* for Panama and Porto Rico, thus breaking the tradition that a president will not leave the territory of the United States.

Dec. 10. **Roosevelt** is **awarded** the **Nobel peace prize** for his services in bringing about the end of the Russo-Japanese War.

Dec. 12. **Algeciras Treaty** as to Morocco is ratified. United States has been the deciding factor in the Conference. Senate declares that it furnishes no precedent for interference of United States in European differences.

1907. *Jan. 24.* Act raising **salaries of senators and representatives** to $7,500 and of **vice president, Speaker** of House, and **members of cabinet** to $12,000.

United States enters suits in San Francisco to test the action of California school authorities in alleged contravention of treaty rights.

John D. **Rockefeller gives $32,000,000** to the General Education Board. [by corporations.

Jan. 26. Act prohibiting political contributions

Feb. 6. Graduated age pensions are granted to veterans of Mexican and Civil wars of 62 years of age or more; following an executive order making 62 years a pensionable disability.

Feb. 18. New convention is signed with Santo Domingo for control of customs. Ratified by the Senate, February 25. Under it political control is exercised by the United States.

Feb. 20. New Immigration Act increases the head tax to $4, and enlarges the restrictions. Also excludes aliens coming "to the detriment of labor conditions (Japanese)" who have not proper passports from their homeland. Controversy in California subsides; Japan by a "gentlemen's agreement" will refuse the issue of passports to "laborers" wishing to go to America.

Feb. 26. Engineer Corps of the army is put in charge of the construction of the **Panama Canal.** Major **Goethals** becomes **chief engineer.**

March 4. Act limiting the hours of consecutive labor by trainmen, dispatchers, and other employees on interstate railroads.

March 12. Mrs. Russell Sage endows with $10,000,000 the **"Sage Foundation"** for the investigation and improvement of social and living conditions.

March 16. President appoints a commission to examine plans for extending and improving internal commercial waterways.

April 13. At Chicago the Standard Oil Company of Indiana is found guilty on 1,462 counts of accepting rebates. On August 3 Judge K. M. Landis, in the District Court, fines the company $29,240,000. Set aside on appeal.

April 14. First national Arbitration and Peace Congress opens in New York.

April 26–Nov. 30. **Jamestown Tercentennial Exposition** is held.

May 13. In Kansas *v.* Colorado the Supreme Court decides that the right of a State to take water for irrigation to the detriment of another State lower on the river is one of equity between the two States and the United States is not concerned, unless the withdrawal of water affects the navigability of the stream.

May 22. New York legislature establishes a Public Utilities Commission to exercise control over public-service corporations; a policy also adopted by other States.

June 15–Oct. 18. **Second Hague Conference.** Further conventions on arbitration, amelioration of war, and employment of force to collect contract debts. Senate, March 1–April 17, ratifies the conventions, but reserves rights under the Monroe Doctrine and requirement of separate treaties.

Aug. 6. Georgia adopts prohibition.

Sept. 17. Oklahoma's constitution calls for prohibition.

October. Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterways Convention meets in Memphis. It asks for a national appropriation for a fourteen-foot channel from Chicago to the Gulf.

Oct. 16. First **Philippine** bicameral **legislature** meets, the lower house being composed of elected delegates. Three Filipinos have also been added to the Commission, which forms the upper house.

Oct. 18. **Stock panic** in New York begins; does not extend to a general national panic, though there is stringency and clearing-house certificates are issued in many places. Effect soon passes.

Nov. 16. Oklahoma (46th State) admitted.

Dec. 2. Sixtieth Congress convenes: Senate, 31 Democrats, 61 Republicans; House, 168 Democrats, 222 Republicans.

Dec. 16. **Around-the-world voyage** of the **American** fleet of 16 **battleships** with destroyers begins at Hampton Roads, under Admiral R. D. Evans, intended as a peaceful display of force, especially to influence Oriental conditions. San Francisco is reached on May 6, 1908, Australia on August 19, Japan on October 17; fleet returns by Suez to Hampton Roads on February 20, 1909.

1908. Wright brothers demonstrate the success of their heavier-than-air **flying machines.**

Alabama adopts prohibition; in 1911 local option is substituted.

Jan. 4. Subway **tunnel under East River** in New York City is **opened** to traffic.

Jan. 6. In Employers' Liability Cases the Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the act of June 11, 1906, because the law is not restricted to injuries incurred in interstate transportation.

Jan. 27. In Adair *v.* United States the section of the act of June 1, 1898 (Erdman Act), which prohibits employers engaged in interstate commerce from discriminating against union laborers, is held by the Supreme Court to be contrary to the Fourteenth Amendment. [effect Jan. 1, 1909.

February. Mississippi adopts prohibition: in

Feb. 3. In **Danbury Hatters' Case** (Loewe *v.* Lawlor) the Supreme Court holds that a **combination of labor organizations** to boycott the goods of a manufacturer and prevent their sale in other States is contrary to the Antitrust Act.

Feb. 10. **General arbitration treaty** is signed with France, the first of some 20 to be negotiated within two years, and approved by the Senate. They include all the important European nations except Russia and Germany.

Feb. 25. **First tunnel** under the **Hudson,** between Hoboken and New York, is opened.

March 31. Strike of some 250,000 coal miners; lasts about two weeks.

April 11. Two **treaties** are signed with **Great Britain,** providing for the marking of the **Canadian boundary** and for the regulation of **fishing** in the boundary waters.

April 22. Congress passes a new **Employers' Liability Act** limited as prescribed by the Supreme Court and taking away the employer's defense of "contributory negligence."

April 24. **Tornadoes on the Gulf Coast** destroy much property and some 1,500 lives.

May 11. Corner stone of the building of the Pan-American Union at Washington is laid.

May 13. Forty-four States are represented at the **Conference of Governors** called at the White House by the president for the **conservation of national resources.**

May 25. **Congress** passes a joint resolution **to remit to China** some $10,000,000 of the American share in the **Boxer indemnity;** China decides to devote the money (Boxer Fund) to the education of young Chinese in United States.

May 26. North Carolina adopts prohibition.

May 30. Act is passed for a flexible currency, an outcome of the stringency in 1907.

June 8. President appoints a national commission of 57 on the conservation of forests and other national resources.

July 22. Circuit Court of Appeals at Chicago reverses fine laid in 1907 on the Standard Oil Company.

Oct. 1. **Two-cent letter postage with Great Britain** goes into effect.

Nov. 3. Thirty-first presidential election: Taft and J. S. Sherman, Republicans, receive 321 electoral votes; Bryan and J. W. Kern, Democrats, 162 votes. Both parties promise tariff and trust reform; the real issue is the continuation of the Roosevelt régime in the person of his chosen successor. Populists, Prohibitionists, Socialist Laborites, Independents, and Socialists put forth platforms and candidates.

Nov. 19. American Federation of Labor rejects a proposition to disregard writs of injunction.

Nov. 30. Notes are exchanged between Secretary Root and Japanese Ambassador Takahira on the common policy of their countries for "free and peaceful development of their commerce on the Pacific Ocean," respect for each other's territorial possessions, and the integrity of China. Not submitted for action by Senate.

Dec. 23. Supreme Court of the District of Columbia sentences Gompers, Mitchell, and Morrison, officers of the American Federation of Labor, to imprisonment in contempt for violating an injunction against the boycott of the Bucks Stove Company. They appeal. [wide prohibition.

1909. *Jan. 20.* Tennessee adopts virtually State-

Jan. 27. **North Atlantic Coast Fisheries Treaty** is signed with Great Britain to end the long-standing dispute. This submits to Hague Tribunal the American rights under Treaty of 1818.

Jan. 28. Second military occupation of Cuba by United States troops terminates.

Feb. 4. California Assembly passes a bill to segregate Asiatic children in schools, but remonstrances by Roosevelt and general protest causes abandonment of measure.

Feb. 12. Centennial of birth of Lincoln is widely observed. Roosevelt lays the corner stone of a memorial building at Lincoln's birthplace, near Hodgenville, Ky.

Feb. 19. An enlarged Homestead Act permits entry on double the number of acres of grazing land not susceptible of irrigation.

Feb. 22. Roosevelt reviews the returned fleet.

March. Los Angeles invokes the **recall** against its mayor; he resigns before the election. **First prominent instance** of the use of the measure in the United States. [**$75,000 a year.**

March 3. **Act raising president's salary** to

March 4. **William Howard Taft** inaugurated as twenty-sixth president.

March 15. Sixty-first Congress meets in special session to revise the tariff: Senate, 33 Democrats, 59 Republicans; House, 172 Democrats, 219 Republicans.

March 21. In Georgia the system of leasing convicts, which has resulted in many abuses, is ended.

March 23. Roosevelt sails for Africa on a hunting trip.

April 6. **Peary reaches the North Pole.** News of the event is received on September 6.

May 3. In United States *v.* Delaware and Hudson Co., the Supreme Court upholds the constitutionality of the commodities clause of the Hepburn Act if limited to transportation of commodities in which the railroad has a real interest at time of transportation. [**position** at Seattle.

June 1–Oct. 16. **Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Ex-**

July 13. **Sixteenth Amendment,** permitting an unapportioned income tax is submitted by Congress to the States.

Aug. 5. **Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act.** Makes little change in protection except increases in cotton and silk schedules. Maximum and minimum rates in place of reciprocity. Lays an income tax on corporations. A **Tariff Board is authorized** to study the problem of the tariff.

Aug. 27. **National Conservation Congress** meets at Seattle.

Sept. 25–Oct. 9. Discovery of the Hudson River and the invention of the steamboat are commemorated in New York City and along the river (**Hudson-Fulton celebration**) on 300th anniversary of discovery of the Hudson (1609) and 100th, approximately, of invention of steamboat. During the year great frauds in customs, especially on sugar imported by the sugar trust, are discovered and punished, and fines and unpaid duties amounting to millions of dollars collected.

1910. Imports of merchandise, $1,556,947,430; exports of merchandise, $1,744,984,720; immigrants, 1,041,570; alien emigrants, 202,463.

Jan. 7. Taft removes Gifford Pinchot, chief forester, and two of his assistants for insubordination. This is an incident in the controversy arising from accusations by Pinchot and others that Ballinger, secretary of the interior, has favored a syndicate which is seeking through illegal land patents to control the coal lands of Alaska. President upholds Ballinger.

Jan. 9. **International Waterways Treaty** is signed with Great Britain, providing for use of

1910 (*continued*).
boundary waters between United States and Canada, and a joint commission to decide questions arising along the frontier.

Jan. 19. Joint resolution for a congressional investigation of the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy.

Feb. 4. A jury renders a verdict in the **Danbury Hatters' Case** of $74,000 damages against the boycotting union. The law allows collection of three times the damages.

Feb. 9. More than 4,000,000 acres of lands held in the forest reserves thrown open to settlement.

February. Cleveland, Ohio, by referendum grants a new street railway franchise with four cents as the maximum fare.

March 2. Bill is introduced in the Senate providing for the incorporation of a "Rockefeller Foundation." Does not pass.

March 17. Roosevelt leaves Khartum, Africa, on his return to America. During March and April he visits in Europe, and is everywhere received with notable enthusiasm.

March 19. Republican "insurgents" against Speaker Cannon in the House of Representatives, aided by the Democrats, order a reorganization of the committee on rules, leaving out the Speaker, thereby greatly reducing his power. After the beginning of the next Congress, the Speaker also is deprived of his power to appoint the standing committees.

April 10. The Interstate Commerce Commission announces a ruling fixing a less rate for upper berths than for lower in Pullman sleeping cars, and a reduced rate for all berths on some routes.

May 21. Treaty fixing the boundary in Passamaquoddy Bay is signed with Great Britain.

June. Thirteenth U. S. census; population 91,972,266.

June 20. Act of Congress enabling New Mexico and Arizona to form separate State constitutions.

June 18. **Mann-Elkins Act,** bringing telephone, telegraph, express, and sleeping-car companies under the control of the Interstate Commerce Commission. It provides for a new Commerce Court; prohibits greater charges for a short than for a long haul; and permits commission to suspend increases in rates pending investigation.
Roosevelt receives an enthusiastic welcome on his arrival in New York from his travels.

June 22. Act permitting surface location on coal lands, the mining rights being reserved for special location.

June 25. **Postal Savings Bank** Act provides that certain post offices may receive deposits of $1 to $500 and pay 2% interest or give government bonds bearing 2½% interest in exchange.
Act authorizing the president to withdraw from entry any public lands and reserve them for power sites, irrigation works, or other purposes.
Act requiring **publicity of political contributions** in election campaigns of representatives.
Mann "White-slave" Act prohibits transportation in interstate or foreign commerce of women or girls for immoral purposes. (See WHITE-SLAVE TRAFFIC ACT in the *Dict., Addenda*.)

June 29. Interstate Commerce Commission orders substantial reductions in freight rates on many western railroads.

July 1. National net debt, $1,046,449,185.

July 21–Aug. 30. American delegates attend fourth Pan-American Congress, at Buenos Aires.

Aug. 1. Pennsylvania Railroad's new station in New York City formally opened. Electric trains under Hudson River run regularly after Nov. 27.

Aug. 2. Oklahoma adopts a constitutional amendment disfranchising Negroes through the "grandfather clause."

Aug. 31. **Roosevelt** at Osawatomie, Kan., outlines **"New Nationalism"** as meaning government supervision of the capitalizing of interstate corporations and of combinations controlling the necessaries of life, graduated income and inheritance taxes, labor regulations, etc.

August. Forest fires cause great loss of life and property in the Northwest, especially in Montana and Idaho.

Sept. 7. Hague Tribunal announces its decision in the **North Atlantic Fisheries Arbitration;** on the whole favorable to the British contentions, though affirming privileges of Americans under Treaty of 1818.

Oct. 17. The Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research is formally opened at New York City.

October. The following names are added to the New York University **Hall of Fame** (see **1900,** March 5): Harriet Beecher Stowe, Holmes, Poe, Roger Williams, Cooper, Phillips Brooks, Bryant, Frances E. Willard, Andrew Jackson, George Bancroft, Motley.

Nov. 2. A fleet of sixteen American battleships sails, in two detachments, to pay visits at ports of England and France.

Nov. 8. State and congressional elections result in great gains for the Democrats, due largely to the Progressive insurgency, dissatisfaction with the unreforming tariff, and the effect of the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy. In Ohio, New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New Jersey, Democratic candidates for governor are successful. Washington adopts a constitutional amendment conferring the suffrage upon women.

Nov. 10. Taft sails for Panama on a tour of inspection.

Nov. 21. Post-Office Department raids many "get-rich-quick" investment companies and promoters, and estimates they have swindled the public out of more than $100,000,000 within a few years.

Dec. 3. Mary Baker Glover Eddy, the founder and head of the Christian Science Church, dies.

Dec. 7. Majority of congressional committee appointed to investigate the Ballinger controversy exonerates him from all charges.

Dec. 10. Edward D. White becomes chief justice of the Supreme Court. First promotion of a justice to the chief-justiceship.

General conditions and activities in 1910: Prosecution of many railroads, manufacturing corporations, and dealers in food or supplies alleging offenses against interstate-commerce laws or conspiracy in restraint of trade. Uncertainty as to the scope and interpretation of the Sherman Antitrust Law. A general demand from railroad employees for increased pay and easier hours is made early in the year and is met by arbitration. Great **progress in aviation** in the United States as well as in Europe.

1911. Imports of merchandise, $1,527,226,105; exports of merchandise, $2,049,320,199; immigrants, 878,587; alien emigrants, 295,666.

Jan. 3. Supreme Court, in Noble State Bank *v.* Haskell and other cases, sustains the constitutionality of State laws guaranteeing bank deposits. In Bailey *v.* Alabama the court holds unconstitutional the Alabama contract labor law, which violates the Thirteenth Amendment by establishing peonage, which is involuntary servitude.

Jan. 10. Pennsylvania recovers $1,300,000 and warrants aggregating $200,000, from the contractors for the new State capitol. Further criminal prosecutions are dropped, after several convictions.

Jan. 20. Andrew Carnegie gives $10,000,000 more to the **Carnegie Institution.**

Jan. 23. National Progressive Republican League is organized. It aims at greater control by the people, adequate corrupt-practices acts, and public regulation of all great financial interests.

Feb. 20. In Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy R. R. Co. *v.* McGuire, the Supreme Court affirms a State workmen's compensation act, which denies the validity of a contract of insurance relief as a bar to action under the law.

Feb. 28. Interstate Commerce Commission refuses to sanction an increase in freight rates on railroads of the East and Middle West.

March 1. Act authorizing purchase of forest reserves in the Eastern States in order to protect the watersheds of navigable rivers.

March 7. In consequence of revolution in Mexico, the president orders 20,000 troops to San Antonio and along the Mexican frontier, for division maneuvers and to check filibustering and border fighting on the American side. The troops are recalled June 24.

March 29. New York State capitol is partially destroyed by fire; many valuable historical documents lost.

April 4. Sixty-second Congress meets in special session to consider Canadian reciprocity: Senate, 42 Democrats, 49 Republicans; House, 228 Democrats, 163 Republicans, 1 Socialist.

May 8. Direct telephone communication between New York and Denver is opened.

May 15. Supreme Court sustains the decree **dissolving the Standard Oil Company** of New Jersey for violation of the Sherman Antitrust Law. The court holds that the law must be interpreted "in the light of reason" and that only "undue" restraint on trade is prohibited.

May 29. The Supreme Court also orders the disintegration of the American Tobacco Company for violating the Sherman Law.

June 8. Convention with Nicaragua is signed, which amounts to a commercial protectorate. It goes into practical operation, though not confirmed by the Senate.

June 26. Cunningham coal-land claims in Alaska, the subject of the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy, are declared invalid.

July 1. National net debt, $1,015,784,338.
Interstate Commerce Commission begins an elaborate investigation of the express companies.

July 7. Treaty is signed at Washington between the United States, Japan, Great Britain, and Russia, prohibiting pelagic sealing and proportioning the legitimate catch.

July 26. Act for reciprocity with Canada passes Congress, but fails in the end because Canadians elect a parliament (September 21) which will not pass the necessary complementary statute.

1911 (*continued*).
Aug. 17. Taft vetoes a bill reducing the tariff on wool, demanding the report of the Tariff Board be awaited.

Aug. 19. Amendatory act is passed on **publicity of contributions** in congressional **elections.** Applies to House and Senate, to primary and regular elections, to contributions, expenses, or promises of appointments. Limits amount candidates may personally spend.

Oct. 11. California adopts a constitutional amendment giving the full vote to women. It also adopts amendments providing for the initiative and referendum and the recall of all elective officials, including judges.

Nov. 9. The Lincoln Memorial is dedicated at Hodgenville, Ky., his birthplace. It preserves the log cabin in which, it is supposed, he was born.

Nov. 10. Andrew Carnegie announces the gift of $25,000,000 to establish and maintain the **Carnegie Corporation for the Promotion of Education.**

Dec. 5. J. J. McNamara, secretary-treasurer of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, is convicted of being a party to dynamiting the Los Angeles *Times* building on October 1, 1910, when 21 were killed.

Dec. 8. Board of army and navy officers appointed to inspect the wreck of the *Maine* reports that ship was blown up by an exterior explosion.

Dec. 18. The president informs the Senate that he has notified **Russia** of the **abrogation of the treaty** between the two countries, because of Russia's refusal to recognize American passports in the hands of Jews, clergymen of certain evangelical denominations, and others.

General conditions and activities in 1911: The most notable general features of the year are the slow and cautious revival of business and the unusual political and social unrest. The system of **direct nomination** for all elective State offices obtains in more than two thirds of the States. Some States adopt the "Oregon Plan" of pledging candidates to vote for the people's choice for Federal senators as indicated at the general election. Direct legislation in some form exists in twelve States.

1912. Imports of merchandise, $1,653,264,934; exports of merchandise, $2,204,322,409; immigrants, 838,172; alien emigrants, 333,262.

Jan. 6. New Mexico admitted (47th State).

Jan. 12. At Lawrence, Mass., the textile mill workers go out on strike because of reduction in wages following the introduction of the new 54-hour law. The strike lasts for over two months, and is marked by many scenes of violence and by the influence of the Industrial Workers of the World ("I. W. W.").

Jan. 15. In second Employers' Liability Cases the Supreme Court upholds the amended act of April 22, 1908, as a proper regulation of interstate commerce and not contrary to the protection of the Fifth Amendment.

Jan. 22. First passenger train is run from Key West to the mainland over the extension of the Florida East Coast Railroad.
Supreme Court, in Louisville and Nashville R. R. *v.* Cook Brewing Co., holds that a State may not prevent an interstate shipment of liquor to a local option region; Original Package Law does not restrict until package is in hands of consignee.

Feb. 14. Arizona (48th State) admitted, after the judicial-recall provision has been eliminated from the constitution as required by Taft. It is restored on November 5.

Feb. 19. In Pacific States Telephone and Telegraph Co. *v.* Oregon, the Supreme Court holds that the question whether the initiative and referendum destroys the republican form of government is a matter for Congress and not the courts to decide.

Feb. 24. House of Representatives orders an investigation (Pujo Committee) of the "money trust," with a view to legislation for the control of combinations.

Feb. 25. Roosevelt expresses his willingness to accept the nomination for president if offered ("Hat in the ring").

March 2. President Taft directs a strict compliance with the neutrality laws in all matters affecting Mexico, and warns citizens to keep out of Mexico till peace is restored.

March 7. Senate advises ratification of general arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France, signed on August 3, 1911, after adoption of amendment barring from arbitration questions affecting the Monroe Doctrine, admission of aliens, and State debts. Thus changed, Taft refuses to accept them.

March 11. Supreme Court in Henry *v.* Dick Co. (Mimeograph Case) holds that the owner of a patent operation has a right to impose a license restriction on the use of the patented machine, may fix its price, and prescribe its use.

March 14. Taft prohibits the export of arms or war supplies to Mexico.

March 19. The first State-wide presidential preference primary is held in North Dakota.

1912 (*continued*).

April. **Floods in the Mississippi valley** devastate 200 square miles and render 30,000 people homeless; loss $50,000,000.

April 1. Supreme Court, in Standard Oil Co. *v.* Missouri, upholds the antitrust laws of Missouri under which the Standard Oil Company of Indiana and the Republic Oil Company of New York are ousted, except as to interstate commerce.

April 9. **Esch Match Act** imposes a tax of two cents a hundred on interstate trade in matches made of poisonous white phosphorus; causes reform.

April 15. Steamship **Titanic**, largest boat ever built, **sunk** by ice on maiden voyage; 1,300 perish.

May 1. Federal steamship inspection service requires all ocean steamships to carry sufficient lifeboats to accommodate all persons on board.

May 8. Tercentenary of Champlain is celebrated at Crown Point.

May 11. Graduated Service Pension Act gives to all veterans of the Mexican War of 60 days' service $30 a month ("dollar a day"), and gives all Civil War veterans over 62 years of age pensions graduated to age and service, with $30 maximum.

May 15. **Seventeenth Amendment** for popular election of senators is submitted to the States by Congress.

June 5. Minimum Wage Act in Massachusetts provides for wage boards which shall recommend a scale in any industry in which women are inadequately paid.

June 19. Congress passes act for 8-hour day on all work done for Federal government by contract.

June 18–24. Republican National Convention in session; renominates Taft and Sherman. Supporters of Roosevelt bolt, claiming that the will of the people has been fraudulently defeated. Roosevelt leads in forming the **Progressive party** which nominates him on August 7, with Hiram W. Johnson as vice-presidential candidate.

June 25. Democratic National Convention convenes; on the 28th, after an all-night session, first ballot at 7 A.M. gives Clark 440½ votes, Wilson 324; July 2, Wilson nominated for president on 46th ballot (afterward made unanimous); July 3, convention adjourns after nominating Marshall for vice president by acclamation.

July 1. National debt, less money in the treasury, $1,027,574,697.

July 13. The seat of Senator William Lorimer of Illinois is declared vacant because of corrupt methods of election.

July 16. Herman Rosenthal, a gambler, who had given evidence regarding the illegal relations of the police in New York City, is assassinated. Police lieutenant Becker is convicted of instigating the crime and executed July 30, 1915. The four murderers of Rosenthal executed April 13, 1914.

Aug. 16. Radio-communication Act forbids private wireless installations near certain government stations.

Aug. 22. Under Tariff Act of 1909 countervailing duty is imposed on importations of wheat and rye flour and split peas from Germany, because of a bounty provided by German government.

Aug. 23. Act prohibiting false assertions on labels of drugs.

Aug. 24. **Army** Appropriation Act provides for a **reserve**, consolidates the three supply departments, and restricts detached duty.

Act for **operating the Panama Canal.** It exempts American coastwise shipping from toll. Great Britain protests against exemption as contrary to Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

Law is passed authorizing surface location on oil and gas lands, reserving mineral rights for separate location.

An act for a legislative assembly and woman suffrage in Alaska.

Act authorizing experimental **parcel post**; also the Federal regulation of newspapers and periodicals, including a sworn statement giving names of editors, publishers, managers, and owners.

September. American marines are landed in Nicaragua, at request of local government for time being, and aid in suppressing a revolution. Chief of revolutionists surrenders to American admiral on Sept. 26, and marines are withdrawn after Nicaraguan presidential election on Nov. 2.

Oct. 1. A fifty-four hour a week law becomes effective in the industries of New York State.

Oct. 10. Roosevelt is shot by a fanatic at Milwaukee, but proceeds to a mass meeting and speaks, and recovers in a short time.

Oct. 30. Vice President Sherman dies.

Nov. 5. Thirty-second presidential election: Wilson and Marshall, Democrats, receive 6,293,000 popular and 435 electoral votes; Roosevelt and Johnson, Progressives, 4,169,000 popular and 88 electoral votes; Taft and Sherman, Republicans, 3,442,000 popular and 8 electoral votes. Prohibitionists, Socialists, and Socialist Laborites present candidates; Socialists poll more than 900,000 votes.

Nov. 14. Supreme Court of Missouri fines the International Harvester Company $50,000, forbidding it to do business in the State.

1912 (*continued*).

Nov. 18. In Standard Sanitary Manufacturing Co. *v.* United States, the Supreme Court, in ordering the dissolution of the "bathtub trust," holds that there can be no monopoly in the unpatented product of a patented machine.

Nov. 20. Andrew Carnegie, through **Carnegie Corporation**, gives future ex-presidents and their widows (if they do not remarry) $25,000 a year.

Dec. 2. In United States *v.* Union Pacific R. R. Co. the dissolution of the Harriman merger of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific railroads is ordered by the Supreme Court.

Dec. 7. 20,000 skilled laborers in United States navy yards are placed in the civil service.

Dec. 16. Governor Donaghey of Arkansas pardons 360 convicts as a protest against the State's system of leasing prisoners. December 24, Governor Blease of South Carolina frees 79 convicts on similar grounds.

Dec. 28. President of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers and 37 of his colleagues are convicted at Indianapolis of complicity in a series of dynamite outrages during the past six years.

General conditions and activities in 1912: Democrats are returned to power after 12 years of Republican rule. Of 35 State governors elected, 21 are Democrats. A prominent part is taken by women in the election, particularly on the side of the Progressives. The total number of States with systems of direct nominations is now 36; in 12 States the system of presidential preference primaries is established; the initiative and referendum are extended; and the recall amendment is further adopted in 5 States.

Various strikes pushed by the Industrial Workers of the World ("I. W. W."), an organization including unskilled workers which aims at the general strike rather than political measures, and is antagonistic to capital, ordinary trade-unions, and the existing government.

Various actions are brought and decisions given under the Sherman Antitrust Law. Total number of cases brought under that law (1890–1912), 128, viz., under Harrison, 7; Cleveland, 8; McKinley, 3; Roosevelt, 44; Taft, 66. The "money trust" investigation gathers a mass of information regarding banking and monetary conditions.

1913. Imports of merchandise, $1,813,008,234; exports of merchandise, $2,455,884,149; immigrants, 1,197,892; alien emigrants, 308,190.

January. In the garment workers' strike in New York City more than 150,000 workers are affected. In February the strike spreads to Boston. The strike ends in New York City on March 12, and in Boston on April 21, the employers making concessions of increased wages, reduced hours, and recognition of the union.

Jan. 1. **Parcel post begins to operate.**

Jan. 6. Supreme Court, in United States *v.* Patten, holds that an attempt to corner cotton or other commodity constitutes a criminal offense under the Sherman Antitrust Law.

Jan. 7. Investigation is begun of the "shipping trust," alleged to control 90% of the over-sea traffic of the United States.

Jan. 18. Judge Archbald of the Commerce Court is convicted in the impeachment trial before the Senate and disqualified to hold any office under the United States.

February. Silk weavers' strike at Paterson, N. J., directed by the Industrial Workers of the World, is marked by violence. After five months the strike is abandoned (July 23).

Feb. 2. New Grand Central Terminal building in New York City is officially opened.

Feb. 4. Congress incorporates the National Institute of Arts and Letters, a preëxisting association whose interior organization, the American Academy of Arts and Letters, consists of a selected fifty of the members of the Institute.

Feb. 10. Four United States warships sent to Mexican waters to safeguard American interests.

Feb. 13. Twenty-nine officials of the National Cash Register Company are convicted by Federal Court at Cincinnati of criminal conspiracy under the Sherman Antitrust Law. [second such veto.] Taft vetoes a **literacy test for immigrants;**

Feb. 24. United States Supreme Court in Hoke *v.* United States sustains the constitutionality of the Mann Act prohibiting the transportation in interstate or foreign commerce of women for immoral purposes.

Feb. 25. **Sixteenth Amendment,** permitting an unapportioned **income tax,** goes into force, having been ratified by necessary three fourths of the States.

Feb. 28. Democratic majority of Pujo Committee of House of Representatives, to investigate alleged money trust, reports the existence of "a great and rapidly growing concentration of the control of money and credit in the hands of a few men," and recommends drastic measures.

March 1. **Webb Liquor Shipment Act,** forbidding the interstate shipment of liquors intended

1913 (*continued*).

for unlawful use in prohibition States, is passed over a veto. It reverses the principle of the Supreme Court's decision of January 22, 1912.

Act for the **physical valuation** by the Interstate Commerce Commission of the property of **common carriers.**

March 4. **Woodrow Wilson** is inaugurated as twenty-seventh president.

Department of Labor is created by Act of Congress (approved March 4); its secretary, a member of the cabinet, shall have power to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners to conciliation in labor disputes. First secretary of labor, William Bauchop Wilson, takes oath of office March 5.

March 18. Wilson disapproves of Taft's policy of participation in the Joint Powers Loan to China, and American bankers withdraw

March 22. A complete **wireless message** is sent from Arlington, Md., to Eiffel Tower, Paris.

March 25–26. Rivers of Ohio and Indiana inundate large tracts of country, causing great loss of life and enormous damage. Dayton and other cities suffer severely.

April 7. Sixty-third Congress meets in special session: Senate, 50 Democrats and 44 Republicans; House, 292 Democratic, 141 Republican, 1 Independent. Several members are elected as being Progressives as well as Democrats or Republicans.

April 8. President **Wilson,** reverting to Washington's and Adams's practice, **delivers his message orally** to both houses of Congress.

April 18. Connecticut Supreme Court of Errors decides that "the **closed shop is contrary to public policy** where the agreement embraces an entire industry of any considerable proportions in the community."

April 24. William Jennings **Bryan,** secretary of state, presents to the diplomats at Washington a **plan for world peace** which provides that all controversies shall be submitted to an international commission before war is declared or hostilities begun.

May. Charges that **slavery exists in the Philippine Islands** and that the Assembly has neglected to pass the necessary laws for its suppression, are made by Commissioner Worcester and subsequently sustained by the auditor of the islands.

May 16. Arizona statute prohibits the ownership of land by aliens who have not declared their intention of becoming citizens.

May 19. **California antialien landownership act;** passed in spite of Japanese protest and Federal disapproval.

May 26. **Wilson publicly denounces lobbying** at Washington, and charges particularly that attempts are thereby made against the tariff bill. On June 2 a special committee of the Senate begins an investigation.

Supreme Court, in Bauer *v.* O'Donnell ("Sanatogen Case"), holds that a patentee, in selling his patented article, cannot fix the price at which it shall be resold.

May 30. National monument to the battleship *Maine* is dedicated in New York City.

May 31. **Seventeenth Amendment,** for **popular election of senators,** is proclaimed, having received the necessary ratification of three fourths of the States.

Roosevelt wins a libel suit against Newett, an editor of Michigan, and, on defendant's retraction of charges, asks for only nominal damages.

June. In the Philippine Islands rebellious Moros, led by the Sultan of Jolo, refuse to surrender their arms; subdued after several days' fighting.

June 9, 16. Supreme Court, in Minnesota and Missouri Rate Cases upholds the right of a State, pending action by Congress, to regulate intrastate railroad rates, providing they are not confiscatory, even though they affect interstate business.

June 10. The Supreme Court in Lewis Publishing Co. *v.* Morgan affirms the constitutionality of the newspaper publicity law of August 24, 1912.

June 26. **Woman-suffrage law in Illinois** provides that women of legal age may vote for presidential electors and for local and some State officers.

July 1. National net debt, $1,028,564,055.

July 1–3. Fiftieth anniversary of the battle of Gettysburg is commemorated by 50,000 Union and Confederate veterans on the battlefield.

July 12. Pennsylvania Primary Act abolishes State conventions. Many similar acts in other States.

July 21. Copper miners at Calumet, Michigan, strike to enforce an eight-hour day and recognition of their union; serious rioting necessitates the calling out of the entire National Guard of the State; Federal arbitration is proffered but refused.

July 26. Act creating a public service commission in Pennsylvania, and reducing the working hours of women from 60 to 54 hours a week.

Aug. 2. Law to enforce the "health marriage" system, with a view mainly to prevent

1913 (*continued*).
transmission of disease, goes into effect in Pennsylvania. In this year, also, similar laws are enacted in Wisconsin and North Dakota.

Aug. 4. Express companies are ordered by the Interstate Commerce Commission to adopt for two years from October 15, 1913, a new schedule of rates providing for an average reduction of 16 per cent.

Aug. 7. "Advancement of Peace" **Treaty** is signed with **Salvador,** the **first under** Secretary **Bryan's plan.** In all, some 30 such treaties are signed by October 13, 1914, but none with Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Germany, Japan, Mexico, or Turkey.

Aug. 13. Governor William Sulzer is impeached by the legislature of New York State for alleged perjury, bribery, and false statement of campaign contributions.

Aug. 26. Japan submits another note in protest against California antialien landownership law. The world's **largest power dam,** crossing the Mississippi River from Keokuk, Iowa, to Hamilton, Illinois, is dedicated.

Aug. 27. **Wilson proclaims** the strictest **neutrality** between the United States and the contending factions **in Mexico,** and urges Americans to quit that country.

Sept. 10. Centennial of Perry's victory on Lake Erie is celebrated at Put-in-Bay, Ohio.

Oct. 2. Unprecedented **floods** in southern **Texas** cause loss of life and more than $50,000,000 damage.

Oct. 3. **Underwood Tariff Act** makes reductions and extends free list of raw materials, foodstuffs, and some manufactures. **Income tax** exemption is fixed at $4,000 for married persons and $3,000 for others. Net incomes over this amount will be taxed 1% per annum on such excess, with an additional sliding scale of rates from 1% on $20,000 to 6% on $500,000. Free sugar is postponed and later repealed.

Oct. 4. Roosevelt sails for South America, to lecture in the larger cities and explore the interior.

Oct. 10. Gamboa dike, separating Gatun Lake from Culebra Cut, and the **last barrier** to interoceanic navigation **through the Panama Canal,** is blown up by Wilson's pressing an electric button at the White House.

Oct. 17. New York Senate acting as Court of Impeachment removes William Sulzer as governor; he is not disqualified from again holding office.

Oct. 18. Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst, leader of the English militant suffragettes, is ordered deported by a special board of inquiry at Ellis Island; but on October 20, following an appeal to Washington, she is granted permission to enter the United States to fill her lecture engagements.

Oct. 22. Act is passed abolishing the Commerce Court, but retaining the justices as additional Circuit Court judges.

Nov. 3. Supreme Court, in Baltic Mining Co. *v.* Massachusetts, sustains the Massachusetts law taxing foreign corporations as an excise on the right to do local business within the State.

Nov. 4. Tammany is defeated in New York City elections by the Fusion ticket, headed by Mitchel for mayor.

Nov. 9–10. Severe storm sweeps over the Middle West and the Great Lakes, causing great loss of life and property.

Nov. 10. United States **corn crop** for 1912 is the largest on record. [lature.]

Nov. 22. Antislavery act by Philippine legis-

Dec. 1. In Straus *v.* American Publishers' Association (Macy Case) the Supreme Court declares that a combination of publishers of copyrighted books for the purpose of refusing to sell to cut-rate retailers is contrary to the Antitrust Law.

Dec. 10. Nobel Peace Prize is awarded to Elihu Root in consideration of his work for world peace as secretary of war and, later, as secretary of state.

Dec. 19. Hetch Hetchy Act grants to San Francisco an extensive tract in Yosemite National Park for the creation of a new water supply.

Dec. 23. **Owen-Glass Federal Reserve Act** creates a system of (12) districts, each with a reserve bank, which national banks must join and other banks may; and a new elastic system of currency, with the gradual displacement of national bank notes.

General conditions and activities of 1913: The movement for providing allowances for widowed mothers, in order that their children may be suitably cared for at home, receives wide indorsement, "widowed mothers' pension" laws being now enacted in thirteen States.

Labor disputes are frequent and numerous strikes are recorded; other threatened strikes are averted by arbitration, notably in the case of railroad employees. The I. W. W. are associated with the more violent strikes of the year.

1914. Imports of merchandise, $1,893,925,657; exports of merchandise, $2,364,579,148; immigrants, 1,218,480; alien emigrants, 303,338. [increased.]

Jan. 1. The weight limit of the parcel post is

1914 (*continued*).
Jan. 2. The firm of J. P. Morgan & Co. severs its directorial connection with twenty-seven corporations, on account of changed public attitude toward "interlocking directorates."

Jan. 3. Direct wireless communication is established between United States and Germany.

Jan. 5. Ford Motor Company of Detroit announces a profit-sharing plan, $10,000,000 to be distributed among the employees.

Jan. 21. Wilson, by executive order, establishes a permanent government in the Canal Zone; Chief Engineer **Goethals** is made civil governor.

Feb. 3. Wilson **lifts the embargo** placed **on** the exportation of **arms** and munitions of war from the United States into **Mexico.**

Feb. 24. Supreme Court, in United States *v.* Lexington Mill Co., holds that the Pure Food and Drug Act does not prohibit the use of injurious substances, unless in such quantities as may affect the health of the consumer.

March 12. Act for construction of a railroad in Alaska by the government.

March 13. United States Express Company decides to retire from business after sixty years of existence, mainly because of parcel-post competition.

March 30. Wilson authorizes a statement denying that his support of the repeal of the Panama Canal Act discriminatory clause is the result of an agreement with England.

April 7. **Treaty with Colombia** is signed by which Colombia recognizes Panama; Colombia is to receive $25,000,000 as indemnity, and is to enjoy free use of the Canal in perpetuity; the United States "expresses regret" for its relation to the Panama Revolution. Up to 1920 it has not been ratified by the Senate.

April 9. United States sailors are arrested at Tampico. President **Huerta** subsequently **refuses** a demand for **a salute to the American flag.** (See Mexico.)

April 20. In German Alliance Insurance Co. *v.* Lewis the Supreme Court upholds the right of a State to regulate insurance rates, if reasonable.

Industrial war in the mining districts of south-central **Colorado** which began on September 23, 1913, culminates in a pitched battle between armed strikers and State militia. On April 28 there is further conflict in the southern Colorado coal fields. Wilson orders Federal troops to the strike district to replace the State militia and to disarm the strikers and mine guards. The controversy remains unsettled till November 29, when the operators accept Wilson's plan of settlement. On December 8 the strike is formally called off by the United Mine Workers.

April 21. Water is let into the **Cape Cod Canal,** which shortens the Boston-New York water route by 70 miles.

American naval forces occupy Vera Cruz, Mexico, because of the Tampico incident.

April 22. Congress authorizes the use of force against Mexico.

April 23. Wilson restores the embargo on war supplies into Mexico.

April 25. Mediation proposal of the "ABC powers"—Argentina, Brazil, and Chile—toward the settlement of the Mexican dispute is accepted. A virtual armistice goes into effect.

Volunteer Army Act authorizes enlistment of volunteers for four years, or during need, in time of actual or threatened war.

April 28. Roosevelt emerges from Brazilian wilderness, having traversed and traced the course of a hitherto unknown river, subsequently named Rio Teodoro.

April 30. United States army under Funston assumes control at Vera Cruz, and the naval forces are withdrawn to their ships.

May 9. Wilson issues proclamation asking that the second Sunday in May, 1914, be observed as **Mother's Day.** See Mother's Day, in the *Dict.*

May 11. In Gompers *v.* United States, after various appeals and rehearings confirming the sentence, the Supreme Court avoids passing on the constitutionality of the punishment of the labor leaders for contempt by deciding that the statute of limitation has become a bar to further proceedings. [barge traffic.]

May 18. Panama Canal is opened for regular

June 8. In International Harvester Co. *v.* Missouri and Same *v.* Kentucky the Supreme Court holds that State antitrust laws are not contrary to the Fourteenth Amendment nor made so because they include venders of commodities and exclude venders of labor and service (unions); but the standard of what is to be considered an undue restraint of trade must be a knowable one.

In Houston, East and West Texas Ry. Co. *v.* United States the Supreme Court decides that a legal order by the Interstate Commerce Commission on interstate rates releases the company from inconsistent State requirements on intrastate rates.

June 14. Lassen Peak in California becomes eruptive, only live volcano in continental U. S.

1914 (*continued*).
June 15. Tolls-exemption clause of Panama Canal Act is repealed, but the right to renew the exemption is reserved.

June 22. In Pipe Line Cases the Supreme Court upholds the constitutionality of the Hepburn Act making pipe lines common carriers which must carry products of competitors at rates subject to regulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

June 25. Fire destroys a large part of the city of Salem, Mass., including several thousand homes and large industrial plants.

July 1. National net debt, $1,027,257,010. Order prohibiting alcoholic liquors in the navy goes into effect.

July 3. Secretary of Treasury announces yield from income tax to be $28,306,336, of which $12,523,000 is from New York.

July 11. Interstate Commerce Commission pronounces the financial transactions of the New York, New Haven, & Hartford R. R. a glaring instance of maladministration. Criminal and civil prosecutions are begun by the government, July 23.

July 18. Congress creates the aviation section of the Signal Corps of the army.

July 31. **Stock exchanges close** because of threatening war conditions abroad.

WORLD-WAR PERIOD.

1914. *Aug. 4.* President issues **neutrality proclamation** on outbreak of war in Europe (see World-War Period).

Aug. 5. He offers his good offices to the warring nations in an effort to promote peace.

Treaty with Nicaragua is signed. $3,000,000 is paid for the control of her canal route, two strategic islands (Little Corn and Great Corn), and a naval station site.

Congress appropriates $2,500,000 for relief of Americans in Europe.

Aug. 8. U.S.S. *Tennessee* leaves New York with $5,500,000 in gold for the use of Americans stranded in Europe.

Aug. 12. International Harvester Company is pronounced by the Circuit Court of Appeals a monopoly in restraint of trade; its dissolution is ordered.

Aug. 15. **Panama Canal is formally opened** to commerce by the passage of the steamship *Ancón* from Atlantic to Pacific in ten hours.

Aug. 18. Emergency Ship Act admits foreign-built ships to American registry.

Cotton Futures Act lays a tax on all dealings for future delivery not according to the regulations laid down in the act. [Park in Montana.]

Aug. 22. Congress erects the Glacier National

Sept. 2. Treaty is signed with Panama modifying the Zone boundary and treating of the control of the harbors, certain islands, and a battery site.

Bureau of War Risk Insurance is authorized as part of the Treasury Department.

Sept. 14. United States Red Cross steamship *Red Cross* sails for Europe.

Sept. 26. **Federal Trade Commission Act** provides for a commission which takes over the work of the Bureau of Corporations, and supervises competition in interstate and foreign commerce not connected with carriers or banks.

Oct. 14. **Clayton Antitrust Act** prohibits discriminating prices and trade agreements, interlocking directorates of banks and large competing corporations, and the holding by one corporation of the stock of another where the effect is "to substantially lessen competition." It **limits injunctions** and contempt proceedings in labor disputes, and **exempts labor and agricultural organizations** from antitrust laws.

Oct. 15. **Panama Canal** is temporarily **closed** because of earth slide in Culebra Cut. It is closed for a second time on October 31.

Oct. 17. United States District Court signs decree dissolving the New York, New Haven, and Hartford R. R. system, compelling the giving up of its holdings in the Boston and Maine, Boston and Albany, and in various trolley and steamship lines. [Alaska.]

Oct. 20. Act is signed for leasing coal lands in

Oct. 22. War Tax Act to meet the deficits caused by the decrease under Underwood Act of tariff proceeds by an increase in internal revenue.

November. Rockefeller Foundation donates $1,000,000 for Belgian relief, and undertakes to defray the cost of handling and transporting all relief supplies. November 3, the first relief ship sails for Rotterdam. By January, 1915, no fewer than 35 ships are engaged in carrying supplies from America to the Belgians. (See Belgium.)

Nov. 2. Federal quarantine is proclaimed to prevent the spread of foot-and-mouth disease among cattle in many States.

Nov. 3. Amendments for State woman suffrage are adopted in Nevada and Montana, and rejected in Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, North Dakota, and South Dakota. Constitutional amendments pro-

1914 (*continued*).
hibiting traffic in liquor are rejected in California and Ohio, but adopted in Washington, Oregon, Arizona, and Colorado. Republican governors are elected in 14 States and Democrats in 15, a gain of 3 for the Republicans.

Nov. 6. Chicago stockyards are closed, for the first time, to permit thorough disinfection on account of the spread of foot-and-mouth disease.

Nov. 14. U. S. collier *Jason* ("Christmas Ship") sails from New York for Europe with $3,000,000 worth of presents for the children of the belligerents.

Nov. 16. **Federal Reserve Bank system** goes into effect. The country is divided into twelve districts, with their respective Federal reserve cities as follows: Boston; New York; Philadelphia; Cleveland; Richmond; Atlanta; Chicago; St. Louis; Minneapolis; Kansas City; Dallas; San Francisco.

Launch from U.S.S. *Tennessee* is fired on from Turkish ports at Smyrna. Turkey explains, November 21.

Cotton Exchanges at New York and New Orleans resume trading after fifteen weeks' suspension.

Nov. 23. Troops are withdrawn from Vera Cruz.

Dec. 12. New York Stock Exchange reopens for trading after having been closed since July 31.

Dec. 17. Harrison Act regulates the sale of opium and coca leaves and their derivatives.

Dec. 18. A flat increase of five per cent in eastern freight rates, with certain exceptions, is granted by Interstate Commerce Commission to all railroads operating between the Mississippi and Atlantic seaboard, north of the Potomac and Ohio rivers. Additional revenue approximating $30,000,000 is expected.

Dec. 26. United States government sends note to **Great Britain** protesting against unwarrantable interference with American commerce due to **seizures and detention of American cargoes** destined to neutral European ports.

General conditions and activities of 1914: The World War brings out the interdependence of international trade. Immediate effects are seen in the closing of the New York Stock Exchange, the vast shipments to Europe, the shutting down of the New England cotton mills, the cessation or curtailment of exports and imports, the hampering of various industries through lack of raw material. The confusion gives place to more promising conditions toward the end of December. The direct benefits to United States trade are seen in the increased foreign demand resulting from the war. The completion of the Panama Canal opens the gateway to the Pacific.

1915. Imports of merchandise, $1,674,169,740; exports of merchandise, $2,768,589,340; immigrants, 326,700; alien emigrants, 204,074.

Jan. 1. **Panama-California Exposition** opens at San Diego.

Jan. 5. In the **Danbury Hatters' Case** the Supreme Court affirms the $252,000 judgment awarded against the union.

Jan. 8. Wilson makes an address at Indianapolis in defense of his administration and his Mexican policy of **"watchful waiting."**

Jan. 10. Great Britain's preliminary reply to the United States note concedes the principle of the American government's contentions, and promises not to interfere in *bona fide* trade between neutral countries, but only "with trade in contraband destined for the enemy's country."

Jan. 12. **House rejects** by 204 to 174, proposed constitutional amendment establishing **woman suffrage.**

Jan. 15. **Wheat** at Chicago reaches $1.45 a bushel, the **highest price since 1898.**

Jan. 21. Replying to a German note, United States recognizes the nonpolitical status of consuls in Belgian territory occupied by Germany.

Jan. 22. State-wide **prohibition** is adopted in Alabama, to take effect July 1, 1916. It is to go into effect in Arkansas February 5; Idaho, March 1; Iowa, March 6; South Carolina, September 14. It is already in force in Arizona, Colorado, Georgia, Kansas, Maine, Mississippi, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Tennessee, Virginia, Washington, and West Virginia.

Jan. 25. Wilson inaugurates the **first transcontinental telephone system.**

Supreme Court in Coppage *v.* Kansas declares unconstitutional a State statute which prohibits an employer from requiring that an employee should not be a member of a labor union as repugnant to the Fourteenth Amendment.

Jan. 26. Congress establishes the **Rocky Mountain National Park** in Colorado.

Jan. 28. American ship *William P. Frye*, bound for Queenstown, is sunk by a German cruiser in the South Atlantic on the ground that her cargo of wheat is contraband. Germany admits liability, but no agreement is reached.

Jan. 30. **Death penalty** is repealed in South Dakota. It is abolished in Oregon February 3; in North Dakota, March 5; in Alaska, April 21.

1915 (*continued*).
Feb. 2. Unsuccessful attempt to blow up with dynamite the railroad bridge over the St. Croix River between Vanceboro, Me., and New Brunswick is made by a German named Horn, claiming to act under German authority.

Great Britain announces that foodstuffs sent to Germany will be considered conditional contraband.

Feb. 5. Extensive passport frauds are brought to light, a conspiracy for obtaining fraudulently passports for German reservists and volunteers. Eight are found guilty in March and later.

Feb. 7. Wireless communication between moving trains is successfully established.

Feb. 8. A compromise Ship Purchase Bill providing for government ownership and operation of merchant ships. The administration bill is killed in the Senate by Republican filibuster.

Feb. 10. Note is sent to Germany warning her that "strict accountability" will be demanded of her by this government in regard to the "war zone" decree to go into effect February 18.

Great Britain makes a second and more complete reply to protest of Dec. 26; desire to be as lenient as possible with neutral shipping is asserted.

Alabama legislature passes a bill prohibiting the advertising of liquor and forbidding the publication or circulation within the State of newspapers carrying liquor advertisements.

Feb. 11. Great Britain seizes as contraband cargo of American ship *Wilhelmina*, bound for a German port with wheat, intending to make a test case, but later orders in council anticipate decision. April 8, British government agrees to purchase cargo and compensate owners for detention of ship and other loss.

Feb. 13. Interstate Commerce Commission, interpreting the Panama Canal Act, denies to the Southern Pacific Railroad Co. permission to retain possession of the Pacific Mail Steamship Co., so long as the latter has service through the Panama Canal. May 15, commission further decides that railways cannot own steamship lines on the Great Lakes.

Feb. 16. Note is received from Germany, denying responsibility in regard to "war zone," but offering to recede from decree if United States will induce Great Britain to permit foodstuffs to enter Germany.

Feb. 20–Dec. 4. **Panama Pacific International Exposition** is held at San Francisco; participated in by over 40 foreign nations; the official national and international celebration of the opening of the Panama Canal.

Government suggests to Germany and Great Britain modified form of putting into practice "war zone" decree.

Feb. 21–22. Conflicts between outlaw Piutes and United States marshals near Bluff, Utah, result in the death of five Indians and two white men. Indians escape into the desert. The difficulty ends March 20.

Feb. 28. American steamship *Dacia* is seized at sea and condemned in a French prize court on the ground that transfer of ownership from German to American citizens during hostilities is contrary to international law. Cargo is subsequently brought to France.

March. During the first six months of operation the **Panama Canal** has handled 496 vessels aggregating 2,367,244 tons and paying tolls of $2,138,442. Cost of maintenance slightly exceeds the income.

March 1. Officials of the Hamburg-American Line are indicted for conspiring to obtain false clearance papers for supply ships engaged in coaling and provisioning German warships. On December 2 Buenz and three other officials are sentenced to imprisonment.

March 2. In reply to note of February 20, Germany asks modification of Great Britain's sea policy as contained in orders in council.

March 3. Naval Appropriation Act provides for 2 battleships, 6 destroyers, 18 submarines, an oil-fuel ship, and for the development of airplane service.

March 4. Congress passes a resolution designed to strengthen the powers of the president in the enforcement of neutrality laws and especially to prevent American territory from being used as a base for supplying belligerent ships of war.

La Follette Seamen's Act, a measure designed to improve the condition of American seamen in the merchant marine of the United States; arrest and imprisonment for desertion is abolished, and provision is made against Asiatic crews.

Sixty-third Congress ends after two years of almost continuous session.

March 5. Identic **note** is sent **to Great Britain and France protesting** against their declared intention, on March 1, to detain all ships carrying goods of "presumed enemy destination, ownership, or origin," paying for ships or goods not otherwise liable to condemnation. French decree of March 13 and British order in council of March 15 being issued according to intention, further protest is made on March 30, because there is no blockade, though trade between neutral ports is included.

1915 (*continued*).
March 7. Rockefeller Foundation announces that it will undertake to improve medical and hospital conditions in China.

March 8. Supreme Court, in Northern Pacific Ry. Co. *v.* North Dakota and Norfolk and Western Ry. Co. *v.* West Virginia, holds that State regulation of intrastate rates must be reasonable, else they violate Fourteenth Amendment.

March 10. German converted cruiser *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* enters Hampton Roads after a commerce-destroying voyage. She is interned.

March 28. An American citizen loses his life when the *Falaba* is torpedoed by a German submarine.

April 3. American Red Cross sanitary commission to fight typhus in Serbia sails from New York. Proves successful.

April 10. Wilson announces that the Federal railroad to be built in Alaska will extend from Seward on Resurrection Bay through Susitna valley and Broad Pass to Tanana River.

April 11. Von Bernstorff, German Ambassador, makes public a memorandum, charging the United States with violating the true spirit of neutrality by permitting war munitions to be shipped to the Allies.

German converted cruiser *Kronprinz Wilhelm* seeks refuge in Newport News. She is interned.

April 21. The government regrets that von Bernstorff seems to impugn the good faith of the United States; the exportation of arms to belligerents cannot be prohibited.

April 28. German airmen drop two bombs on the American steamer *Cushing*, whose flag and name are plainly visible. No damage is done, and on July 15 Germany offers indemnity.

April 30. Unrelayed wireless communication is established between Arlington, Va., and the Canal Zone, a distance of 2000 miles.

May 1. Gulflight, a United States freight steamer, is sunk by a German submarine. Three Americans lose their lives.

May 7. Many Americans (114 men, women, and children) lose their lives when the Cunarder **Lusitania** bound for Liverpool is **torpedoed without warning** by a German submarine off the south coast of Ireland. The total loss of life is 1198.

May 10. In a speech at Philadelphia **Wilson** says: "There is such a thing as a man being **too proud to fight.** There is such a thing as a nation being so right that it does not need to convince others by force that it is right."

May 13. **First note sent to Germany** in regard to **sinking of Lusitania** and other submarine outrages. Use of submarine against merchant marine impossible without violation of sacred principles of justice and humanity, freedom of the seas and rights of Americans to travel thereon (this point of view afterward abandoned).

May 15. Government warns China and Japan that the United States will not recognize any agreement which impairs the American rights in China or endangers the "open-door" policy. National Polish Relief Association is being organized in the United States

May 18. United States fleet, on exhibition in the Hudson River, passes out to sea in review.

May 20. England invites American surgeons to man her newest and largest field hospital. Medical schools of Harvard, Columbia, and Johns Hopkins respond.

May 22. A jury at Syracuse, N. Y., returns a verdict for Roosevelt in the libel suit brought by William Barnes, Jr., the Republican leader.

May 23. Important delegates from Central and South American republics meet in a Pan-American financial conference at Washington to discuss means for promoting closer business relations.

May 24. Wilson issues a proclamation of neutrality covering the entry of Italy into the war.

American freight steamer *Nebraska* is seriously damaged by a torpedo fired by a German submarine. July 15, Germany sends note of apology and offers to pay damages.

May 28. Germany replies to *Lusitania* note, holding actions of British government sufficient cause.

June 3. United States Steel Corporation is held to be a lawful combination by the Circuit Court of Appeals. [pedoing of the *Gulflight*.]

June 4. Germany expresses regret for the tor-

June 8. **Bryan resigns** the office of secretary of state, being out of agreement with Wilson's demand on Germany to alter her submarine warfare. Lansing his successor.

June 9. Second *Lusitania* note to Germany, denying the German statement of facts and contending for "nothing less high and sacred than the rights of humanity."

June 14. Supreme Court decides that West Virginia must assume a share of the public debt

1915 (*continued*).

of Virginia, from which it separated in 1863. Amount involved is $12,393,929.50, two thirds being accrued interest.

June 21. In Guinn and Beal *v.* United States the Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the "grandfather clause" in the Oklahoma constitution, which disfranchises a large percentage of Negroes. [staff of the navy.]

June 24. Secretary Daniels creates a general

June 28. About twenty Americans lose their lives when a German submarine destroys the *Armenian*, a British steamer.

June 29. Austria-Hungary makes formal protest against the sale of munitions to the Allies. Lansing replies on August 12, affirming the right.

June 30. Income tax collections for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1915, $80,190,693, of which $39,144,531 is in corporation and $41,046,162 in individual tax.

Emergency revenue tax of October 22, 1914, realizes $52,069,126 to date. Taxes on wine and spirits amount to $144,619,699, a decrease of $14,478,478.

Automobile exports for the fiscal year amount to $74,476,422, an increase of more than 100% over the previous year. Production of petroleum greatest on record, aggregate being 290,312,535 barrels. California first, with Oklahoma second. Explosives exported during the fiscal year amount to $41,476,188, as compared with $6,272,197. Under the new law admitting foreign-built vessels to American register, 149 ships of 527,071 tons are transferred to the American flag.

Cost of living is higher than ever before in the history of the country: in September, 1914, seven per cent higher than the average price for 1913.

July 1. National net debt, $1,090,148,006.

July 2. Senate reception room in the Capitol at Washington is wrecked by a bomb placed there by Erich Muenter. On the following day J. Pierpont Morgan is shot, but not fatally, by the same man. Muenter kills himself in jail, July 6.

July 5–25. Exposition in commemoration of the achievements of the Negro race during the last 50 years is held at Richmond.

July 8. United States government assumes control of the German-owned wireless plant at Sayville, L. I., in order to preserve its neutrality.

July 10. Germany replies regarding the *Lusitania*, upholding the submarine warfare without notice as proper retaliation for illegal warfare of enemies.

July 14. Formal notice is given to Great Britain that the United States holds that the rights of Americans who have cases before British courts rest upon international law and not upon British orders in council.

July 16. Panama Canal is used for the first time by United States battleships.

July 21. Third *Lusitania* note, declaring that a repetition of such acts will be considered as "distinctly unfriendly."

July 24. Great Britain replies to the United States with a legal argument to show that Great Britain is adhering to international law, as modified by modern conditions.

July 25. American steamship *Leelanaw* is sunk by a German submarine after warning; the crew is towed to safety.

July 27. First direct wireless communication between United States and Japan.

July 29. **American Red Cross** during the first year of its war activities in Europe has spent $1,460,306.

July 31. Two Americans are killed when the British steamship *Iberian* is sunk by a German submarine.

Aug. 5–6. Representatives from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala meet the American secretary of state to discuss means of ending **chaotic condition of Mexico.**

Aug. 11. Interstate Commerce Commission permits increases in carload freight rates on 41 railroads in the Middle West; next day it orders reductions in the freight rates on anthracite coal.

Aug. 13. Pacific Mail Steamship Company sells five of its transpacific steamships, claiming that the provision against Asiatic crews in the La Follette Act makes it unable to compete with Japanese lines.

Aug. 15. *New York World* begins series of articles, backed by documents, charging **German** officials with a vigorous **propaganda in United States,** directed not only against the Allies, but against the government.

Aug. 16. **Armed Mexicans cross the Rio Grande** into Texas and attack a United States outpost, killing a corporal.

Aug. 19. Two Americans lose their lives when the British liner *Arabic* is torpedoed by a German submarine.

Aug. 24. Eastman Kodak Company is declared to be an illegal combination in restraint of trade and is ordered dissolved by the District Court at Buffalo.

1915 (*continued*).

Sept. 1. German declaration by the informal note of von Bernstorff that hereafter liners will not be sunk by German submarines without a warning, but resistance or attempt to escape will provoke immediate destruction.

Sept. 2. Marauding bands of Mexicans continue to harass communities in Texas and Arizona near the border.

Sept. 4. One American is lost as a result of the torpedoing without warning of the British liner *Hesperian.* [*Arabic* case.]

Sept. 7. Germany suggests arbitration in

Sept. 9. Recall of Austro-Hungarian Ambassador Dumba demanded, because of his effort to cripple American industries and his employment of an American citizen to carry official dispatches. Dumba leaves on October 5.

Sept. 16. Treaty signed with **Haiti,** virtually establishing a **protectorate.** Senate ratifies, February 28, 1916.

Seizure of American meat products on various American steamers justified by a British prize court, because, though consigned to a Danish port, they are intended for ultimate consumption by German forces.

Austro-Hungarians living in Pennsylvania are warned by their consul not to engage in the manufacture of munitions of war for the Allies under penalty of imprisonment or death in the event of their return to Austria-Hungary.

Sept. 18. Panama Canal is closed indefinitely on account of slides in Gaillard (Culebra) Cut.

Germany sends a new note in regard to *Frye* case, declaring that hereafter American ships carrying only conditional contraband will not be destroyed.

Sept. 20. Lord Bryce, former British Ambassador to the United States, urges America to try to stop the further slaughter of Armenians. The Committee on Armenian atrocities discloses a propaganda of extermination of non-Moslems.

Sept. 29. Wireless telephone messsages from Arlington, Va., are received at Honolulu and later (October 12) at the Eiffel Tower, Paris.

Veterans of the Grand Army of the Republic, 20,000 strong, march through Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, in commemoration of the grand review after the Civil War.

Oct. 1. Largest self-supporting steel arch in the world (span 1,016 ft. 10 in.), in railroad bridge spanning Hell Gate, New York City, is completed.

Oct. 5. German government disavows *Arabic* sinking.

Oct. 6. The following are selected for the **Hall of Fame:** Francis Parkman, Mark Hopkins, Elias Howe, Joseph Henry, Charlotte Cushman, Rufus Choate, Daniel Boone, Alexander Hamilton, Louis Agassiz.

Oct. 9. Lansing reports the unanimous decision of the Pan-American countries to recognize **Carranza as de facto president in Mexico.** Carranza is formally acknowledged, October 19.

Oct. 13. Directors of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford R R Co. are on trial in the District Court at New York charged with violating the Sherman Antitrust Law.

Oct. 15. Anglo-French $500,000,000 external loan for five years at 5 per cent is concluded.

Oct. 19. Woman suffrage is defeated in New Jersey, and, November 2, in Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts.

Oct. 20. **Embargo on arms to Mexico** is declared by the president except to the part of the country under Carranza's control.

Oct. 21. Note to Great Britain protests the conduct of the blockade and the seizure of American ships, and affirms that the United States cannot submit to any curtailment of its neutral rights.

Nov. 1. Supreme Court declares in Truax *v.* Raich that the Arizona antialien law, which provides that 80% of the employees of any concern must be of American nationality, is unconstitutional.

Nov. 2. Elections are held in 8 States. Democratic governors are chosen in Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi; Republican, in Massachusetts. Revised constitution for New York State is rejected by a majority of 470,000 (about 2 to 1).

Nov. 9. Nine Americans are killed when the Italian liner *Ancona* is sunk in the Mediterranean by an Austrian submarine.

Nov. 11. Teutonic activities in United States are exposed by Joseph Goricar, former Austrian consul-general, who states that the consulates are centers of propaganda against munition factories.

Nov. 17. First **strike in U. S. postal service** ties up the mail of Fairmont, W. Va.

Nov. 21. Bureau of Mines announces a new process of extracting radium which will reduce the cost by more than two thirds.

Nov. 24. U.S.S. *San Diego* is sent to the west coast of Mexico to protect American interests, in consequence of repeated Indian outrages.

Nov. 29. Supreme Court in Heim *v.* McCall sustains the validity of the New York law against the employment of aliens on public works.

1915 (*continued*).

Dec. 1. Total tonnage of American vessels is 8,444,256; number of ships, 26,888. Largest gross tonnage in the country's history. Altogether, 171 foreign vessels take American registry under Shipping Act of August, 1914, while 98 American vessels are transferred to foreign registry.

Recall of German attachés Boy-Ed and von Papen is **requested** by Wilson on account of "improper activities in military and naval matters." They are recalled on December 10.

Dec. 4. Henry Ford's peace expedition sails for Europe, hoping that a peace conference may be held among neutrals abroad which shall be instrumental in stopping the war. The expedition proves abortive. [Hungary on the *Ancona* case.]

Dec. 6. Government sends firm note to Austria-

Sixty-fourth Congress convenes: Senate, 56 Democrats and 40 Republicans; House, 228 Democrats, 199 Republicans, 4 Progressives, 1 Independent, 1 Socialist, 1 Prohibitionist.

Dec. 7. The main points of Wilson's message to Congress are: Pan-Americanism; a reaffirmation of the Monroe Doctrine; national defense; a government-owned merchant marine; and the punishment of disloyal naturalized citizens.

Dec. 17. Three German agents are arrested for attempting to blow up the Welland Canal, through which pass grain ships laden for Europe.

Dec. 18. **President Wilson marries** Mrs. Edith Bolling Galt in Washington.

Corn crop for 1915 is officially estimated at 3,054,535,000 bushels, 70,000,000 bushels below the record of 1912; its value ($1,755,859,000) constitutes a record. The wheat crop, 1,011,505,000 bushels, is the largest in the history of the country. Oats crop, 1,540,362,000 bushels, is a record both in quantity and value.

Dec. 27. Second Pan-American Scientific Congress (first was held in Santiago in 1908) opens at Washington. A concrete development is the formation of the American Institute of International Law, composed of 105 leading publicists from 21 countries.

Dec. 28. Eight alleged German agents, including a congressman, a former congressman, and a former attorney-general of Ohio, are indicted at New York by a federal grand jury for conspiring to foment strikes in American munition factories.

Dec. 29. E. M. House of Texas, not in official United States service, sails for Europe as President Wilson's personal investigator and messenger.

Dec. 30. British steamship *Persia* is torpedoed in the Mediterranean by an Austrian submarine. Some 336 lives are lost, including that of Robert N. McNeely, American consul at Aden.

General conditions and activities of 1915: All records in foreign trade are broken. United States becomes an arsenal and the chief storehouse of the Allies. Munitions of war, foodstuffs, military equipment and apparel, copper and brass, horses and mules, automobiles, and flying machines are exported in large quantities. All previous tonnage of steel and iron is eclipsed. Cotton manufacturers recover from the depression of a year before. Imports from Europe show a marked decrease. Exports to South American and Asiatic markets are greater. A **huge harvest** yields good prices. Explosions and fires in munition plants are numerous, and alleged to be the work of alien propagandists. Bank clearings establish a phenomenal record.

Widowed Mothers' Pension bills, enabling mothers to provide for dependent children in their own homes, are passed in 15 States, making in all 28 States having such laws. Workmen's compensation laws are introduced in many States.

1916. Imports of merchandise, $2,197,883,510; exports of merchandise, $4,333,483,885; immigrants, 298,826; alien emigrants, 129,765.

Jan. 1. Minimum-wage law in Massachusetts for girls employed in retail stores goes into effect. Those who have been employed one year and are over 18 shall receive at least $8.50 a week.

Jan. 4. United States protests to **Great Britain** against **mail seizures:** also denies "the right of British authorities to seize neutral vessels plying directly between American and neutral European ports without touching at British ports."

Jan. 11. Five explosions in two days occur in one of the Du Pont powder plants near Wilmington, Delaware.

Jan. 13. Retrial of five former officials of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford R R Co. under indictment for conspiracy to violate Sherman Antitrust Law, is ordered by attorney-general. Cases against six other defendants are dismissed.

Jan. 17. In the Federal court at New York four German-Americans plead guilty to conspiracy to smuggle crude rubber to Germany.

Jan. 18. Secretary of State Lansing, in a note addressed to the Entente powers, informally suggests that, if submarines adhere to recognized rules of search and seizure, merchant vessels be not armed, adding that the U. S. may class armed merchantmen as auxiliary cruisers.

1916 (*continued*).

Jan. 24. Income tax is declared constitutional by the Supreme Court in a unanimous decision in Brushaber *v.* Union Pacific R. R. Co., giving the broadest interpretation to Sixteenth Amendment.

Feb. 1. British steamer *Appam* is brought into Hampton Roads, Va., by a German prize crew. Government wins fight against National Cash Register Co., under civil section of the Sherman Antitrust Law. The criminal case is dismissed.

Feb. 10. **Garrison resigns** as secretary of war, because the president will not stand by the national army plan instead of militia.

Feb. 17. Reviewing the **Mexican situation,** Lansing enumerates the violent deaths of 112 Americans in the years of the Wilson administration; 76 of these occurred in Mexican territory and 36 on the American side of the border.

Feb. 18. U. S. formally protests to Turkey against the continuation of Armenian atrocities. Treaty with Nicaragua concerning **Corn Islands** ratified by Senate. (See Aug. 5, 1914.)

March 8. Agreement is reached between the bituminous operators and 200,000 workers. In the Pittsburgh district 50,000 men repudiate the agreement and go on strike toward the end of May.

March 9. Mexican brigands under Villa attack the town of Columbus, N. M., and the camp of the Thirteenth United States Cavalry, killing nine civilians and eight troopers; the raiders are pursued into Mexico and more than 100 are killed.

March 13. United States agrees to allow Carranza's forces to enter American territory when necessary, in pursuit of bandits, in return for the unopposed entrance of American troops into Mexico in pursuit of Villa.

March 15. **Military expedition** to punish Villa **enters Mexico,** under Pershing. (See Mexico.)

March 17. Joint resolution authorizing the president to recruit the army to the maximum strength in case of emergency.

March 22. U.S.S. *Kentucky* is ordered to Tampico to protect American oil interests.

March 23. British Ambassador's reply to Lansing's note of Jan. 18 declines proposal.

March 24. German submarine torpedoes the unarmed French Channel steamer *Sussex*, Americans being among those killed.

March 30. Representatives of the 400,000 employees of 452 railroads of the United States present demands for an eight-hour day and time and a half for overtime.

April 3. **Reply** of France and England to United States **protests against mail seizures** is presented, upholding the general right, but offering some improvement.

April 11. Contract for a loan of $20,000,000 to China for industrial development is signed by Boston bankers.

April 13. Carranza protests against the "unpermitted" invasion of Mexico by American troops, and asks that the further pursuit of Villa be left wholly to *Carranzistas*.

April 15. Wilson notifies Carranza that the United States is willing to limit the punitive operations, and to withdraw, "within a reasonable time," if Villa is not captured.
Panama Canal is reopened after being closed for seven months by landslides.

April 18. United States sends **another note to Germany regarding submarine warfare,** with special reference to the *Sussex*, declaring that unless present methods are abandoned diplomatic relations will be severed.
Carranza repeats his wish that the punitive force now in Mexico be withdrawn.

April 24. British reply to the United States protest of October 21 upholds the legality of the system of trade restrictions.

May 1. General strikes in New York City bring to 1,000,000 the total of workers voluntarily out of work or locked out.
A wage increase and an eight-hour day are granted to 176,000 miners in the anthracite coal field, and the price of coal is raised.

May 4. **Germany replies** to the American note of April 18 saying that naval commanders have been ordered **not to sink** merchant ships **without warning** and without saving life, unless the ship attempts to escape or offers resistance; in return Germany expects the United States to oppose British blockade methods. May 8, United States replies, accepting the assurance, but denying the right to impose conditions.

May 5. Bandit followers of Villa make a second **raid across the border,** killing three American soldiers and two civilians.

May 9. **Wilson calls out 4,000 militia** of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona and orders that 4,500 additional regulars be sent to the border.

May 13. Elephant Butte Dam, across the Rio Grande 120 miles north of El Paso, is completed, forming the greatest storage reservoir in the world. More than 130,000 persons take part in a citizen's preparedness parade in New York City. Similar parades are held elsewhere during the summer.

1916 (*continued*).

May 24. Second protest of United States in regard to mail seizures by the Allies.

May 26. Rockefeller Foundation appropriates $1,000,000 for the relief of war sufferers in Poland, Serbia, Montenegro, and Albania.

May 30. Wilson issues a proclamation calling upon the people to celebrate Flag Day, June 14, with patriotic exercises.

June 1. Nomination of Louis D. Brandeis as an associate justice of United States Supreme Court confirmed by the Senate, ending a bitter contest.

June 3. **Army Reorganization Act** provides for a regular army on a peace footing of about 11,000 officers and 175,000 men, the term of enlistment being seven years, three with the colors and four in reserve. A reserve officers' training corps is provided. **National Guard is federalized** and its strength increased to about 17,000 officers and 440,000 men; annual training period is increased and term of enlistment is made six years, half in the reserve. Military training camps for students are first held in the summer of 1913, but the movement becomes prominent with the establishment by the War Department of camps for students and business men at Plattsburg in 1915.

June 10. Republican National Convention at Chicago nominates C. E. Hughes and C. W. Fairbanks. Under a new plan of apportionment the Southern delegation is materially reduced.
Progressive National Convention, also at Chicago, failing to reach an agreement with the Republicans, nominates Roosevelt and John Parker.

June 15. Democratic National Convention at St. Louis renominates Wilson and Marshall.
Mexican raiders cross the border at San Ygnacio, Texas, and attack American cavalry troops.

June 18. United States warships are ordered to Mexican waters. Wilson orders the **National Guard to mobilize** for service on the Mexican border. Order is carried out with much difficulty and inefficiency.

June 20. Reply to Carranza flatly rejects demand to withdraw the American troops.

June 21. United States protests to Austria-Hungary against the submarine attack on the American steamer *Petrolite*.

June 22. Lansing sends an identic note to the South and Central American republics, stating that the United States has had for its object the defense of American territory and not intervention in Mexican affairs.

June 25. United States demands the release of prisoners taken by Mexican troops at Carrizal. War Department orders militia organizations to be dispatched at once to the border without further concentration or training in mobilization camps.

June 26. Roosevelt declines the Progressive nomination, and the National Progressive Committee adopts his recommendation to indorse Charles E. Hughes.

June 30. Income tax collections for the fiscal year reach the record figure of $124,916,314, of which $56,972,720 is in corporation and $67,943,594 in individual tax. Automobile exports for the year reach the record figure of $125,636,787.

July 1. National net debt, $1,006,281,572.
Joint resolution authorizing the president to draft the National Guard into the Federal service; intended for Mexico.

July 9. German commercial submarine *Deutschland* arrives at Baltimore from Bremen with a cargo of chemicals and dyestuffs.

July 11. Mexican government proposes a joint commission to discuss matters of difference between the two governments. Wilson accepts, July 28.
Good Roads Act authorizes the expenditure of $85,000,000 in five years by the Federal government, on condition that the States expend amounts equal to those apportioned to them.

July 17. **Rural Credits Act** provides for the establishment of a system of Federal loan banks to facilitate the capitalizing of farms by long-time mortgage loans.

July 18. **British** government places 82 American firms and individuals on a **blacklist** with which residents of the United Kingdom are forbidden to trade. United States protests, July 26, to Great Britain against the blacklisting.

August. Epidemic of infantile paralysis, which broke out in June, reaches alarming proportions in New York City and elsewhere.

Aug. 1. German merchant submarine *Deutschland* departs from Baltimore on her return voyage to Bremen with a cargo of crude nickel and rubber. Arrives safely, August 23.

Aug. 3. Some Progressive leaders meet at Indianapolis and decide not to nominate a candidate in place of Roosevelt, but to place State tickets in the field wherever possible.

Aug. 4. Treaty with Denmark is signed, providing for the **purchase** of the **Danish West Indies** for $25,000,000; ratified by the Senate, September 7, and in Denmark, by a plebiscite on December 14 and by the government on December 22. The islands purchased, now officially known as the **Virgin Islands of the United States,** will be used as a naval base and coaling stations for the United States fleet.

1916 (*continued*).

Aug. 11. Agricultural Appropriations Act includes a new Cotton Futures Act; a Warehouse Act to establish a form of receipt which shall be negotiable; and a Grain Standards Act to facilitate uniform grades in handling grain.

Aug. 27. Order sent out for a great nation-wide railroad strike by the four great railroad brotherhoods to force an eight-hour day. They refuse to arbitrate. Wilson urges favorable legislation on Congress, August 29.

Aug. 29. **Philippines Government Act** grants larger measure of self-government to Filipinos; independence is promised when the Filipinos shall prove their ability to maintain a stable government; the Clarke Amendment, promising independence in 2 or 4 years, is dropped.
Naval Appropriation Act establishes a three-year building program of 10 battleships, 6 battle cruisers, 10 scout cruisers, 50 destroyers, 18 submarines, 3 fuel ships, 1 hospital ship, 2 ammunition ships, and 7 other vessels, an armor-plate plant, a projectile factory, and provision for the Naval Flying Corps.
Army Appropriation Act provides for a Council of National Defense, and revises the Articles of War.

Sept. 1. **Child Labor Act** excludes from interstate commerce the products of factories in which children under specified ages are employed, or in which older children are employed beyond a specified number of hours.
New York bankers offer to the public a $250,000,000 two-year five per cent loan to Great Britain, secured by bonds and stocks.

Sept. 3. **Adamson Act** establishes a basic eight-hour day for railroad operators, with *pro rata* payment for overtime. Strike is called off on September 4. President Wilson takes responsibility for the statute.

Sept. 4. Mexican-American joint commission [holds its first meeting.]

Sept. 7. **Shipping Act** creates a government-controlled $50,000,000 corporation to build, buy, or lease merchant ships.
Workmen's Compensation Act provides for a general system of payment to Federal employees.

Sept. 8. **Emergency Revenue Act** increases the income and inheritance tax, puts taxes on the manufacture of munitions, protective tariff on dyestuffs, protection of American firms against "dumping," and authorizes drastic retaliatory steps against foreign interference with United States trade.

Oct. 5. **Militia** organizations still in State mobilization camps (about 8,000 men) are **ordered to the Mexican border.** 104,000 National Guardsmen are on the border.

Oct. 7. German war submarine *U-53* enters Newport harbor and leaves after a three hours' stay. The following day six foreign merchant ships are sunk by a German submarine off the island of Nantucket. Considered a notice of ability of Germans to destroy American commerce in case of war.

Oct. 10. Great Britain upholds the blacklist (see July 18, above), but promises relief to American firms unjustly injured.

Oct. 12. Replying to the second protest regarding mail seizures, the British and French governments state that "they are sincerely striving to avoid an encroachment," but that they have a right to "impede any transportation intended to aid their enemy."

Oct. 20. Wheat for December delivery reaches $1.71⅜ on the Chicago Board of Trade, the highest price in gold since the Civil War.

Oct. 28. Six Americans lose their lives when the British steamer *Marino* is torpedoed by Germans.

Nov. 1. German merchant submarine *Deutschland* arrives at New London, Conn., on her second voyage. (See July 9, above.)
Stock of gold in the United States is $2,700,136,976, largest any country has ever possessed; world's stock is $8,239,500,000.

Nov. 7. Thirty-third presidential election: Main campaign issue Wilson's record; "He kept us out of war"; Wilson and Marshall, Democrats, receive 9,129,606 popular votes and 276 electoral votes; Hughes and Fairbanks, 8,538,221 popular votes and 255 electoral votes. Socialist candidates poll nearly 600,000 popular votes; Prohibition and Socialist Labor candidates also run.
Governors are elected in 35 States, 18 Republicans being returned and 17 Democrats, a gain of 1 for the Republicans.
American steamer *Columbian* is sunk by a German submarine off coast of Spain; the crew is rescued.

Nov. 24. Protocol is signed by the Mexican and American joint commissioners, providing for the withdrawal of the Pershing expedition from Mexico and for border protection by the armies of the two countries, acting independently until co-operation is necessary. On December 18 Carranza declines to accept the protocol.

1916 (*continued*).

Nov. 27. Federal Reserve Board warns Federal Reserve banks and American investors to proceed with caution in participating in foreign war loans and foreign treasury bills.

Nov. 28. American steamship *Chemung* is sunk by a submarine off the coast of Spain; no lives are reported lost.

Nov. 29. United States enters a vigorous protest to the German government against the wholesale deportation of Belgians for forced labor in Germany, as in contravention of precedents and international law and fatal to Belgian relief work.

Dec. 1. Nation-wide inquiry into the high cost of living is begun by the United States Department of Justice.

Dec. 12–16. Sharp fall of prices on the New York Stock Exchange is caused by Germany's peace proposals.

Dec. 15. Value of crops estimated by Department of Agriculture at the record figure of $7,641,609,000, although smallest yield in twelve years.

Dec. 18. **Wilson appeals** to the belligerent powers to discuss terms of **peace.** He suggests that "an early occasion be sought to call out from all the nations now at war . . . an avowal of their respective views as to the terms upon which the war might be concluded."

Dec. 26. Reply of the Central Powers to the note gives no suggestion of the terms on which peace may be based, but states that "an immediate exchange of views seems to be the most appropriate road in order to reach the desired result" and begs to propose "an immediate meeting of delegates of the belligerent states at a neutral place."

General conditions and activities in 1916: Economic progress of the United States is unprecedented despite labor troubles, small harvest, and rise of prices. Consumption more than keeps pace with production. Iron and steel reach the highest price since the Civil War. Copper sells for 32 cents a pound, as compared with less than 12 cents in 1914. Cotton passes the 20-cent mark, more than three times its price in 1914. Paper soars. Flour reaches $12 a barrel, nearly double its normal figure. Potatoes cost $2.40 per bushel. Coal in New York reaches $15 a ton, more than double the average price of the past five years. The serious shortage of freight cars is in part responsible for the abnormal rise in prices. The indebtedness of foreign countries to people of U. S. amounts to nearly $2,000,000,000 since the war began. In the Philippines and Porto Rico the export trade shows a remarkable development.

1917. For the WORLD WAR, see that title.

Imports of merchandise, $2,659,355,185; exports of merchandise, $6,290,108,394; immigrants, 295,403; alien emigrants, 66,277.

Jan. 10. In the U. S. court at San Francisco, Franz Bopp, German consul-general, von Brineken, and other members of his staff, are found guilty of plotting to blow up Allied munition shipments, and other unneutral acts.

Allies reply to Wilson's note of Dec. 18, 1916, outlining their war objects. (See WORLD WAR.)

Jan. 15. In Cusack Co. *v.* Chicago the Supreme Court upholds a municipal ordinance prohibiting the erection of billboards in residential districts.

Jan. 22. **Wilson** states the following conditions under which he would urge the United States to enter a **world federation** after the war to guarantee and enforce **future peace:**

1. The peace must provide not only for a balance of power, but a community of power; "not organized rivalries, but an organized common peace."
2. It must be a "peace without victory," leaving no sting or resentment; "only a peace between equals can last."
3. It must make no distinction between the rights of big nations and of small ones. "Right must be based upon the common strength, not upon the individual strength, of the nations upon whose concert peace will depend."
4. It must accept "the principle that governments derive all their just powers from the consent of the governed."
5. There should be a "united, independent, and autonomous Poland."
6. "Inviolable security of life, of worship, and of industrial and social development should be guaranteed to all peoples who have lived hitherto under the power of governments devoted to a faith and purpose hostile to their own."
7. Every great people "should be assured a direct outlet to the great highways of the sea," if not by cession of territory, then by neutralization of direct rights of way.
8. "The paths of the sea must alike in law and in fact be free," giving free, constant, unthreatened intercourse in practically all circumstances.
9. There must be a limitation of both land and naval armaments, to make them a power for order only.
10. "The nations should with one accord adopt the doctrine of President Monroe as the doctrine

1917 (*continued*).

of the world: that no nation should seek to extend its polity over any other nation or people, but that every people should be left free to determine its own polity, its own way of development, unhindered, unthreatened, unafraid, the little along with the great and powerful."

Supreme Court in the Blue Sky Cases upholds the right of the States to guard against questionable stock and bond dealers and fraudulent securities.

Jan. 23. Equal suffrage in North Dakota.

Jan. 31. **Germany** returns to submarine policy and gives notice that she will wage **unrestricted submarine warfare** upon all commerce within certain defined zones off the coasts of Great Britain, France, and Italy. Germany will permit one east-bound and one west-bound American passenger steamer each week.

AMERICA IN WORLD WAR.

1917. *Feb. 3.* **Diplomatic relations with Germany are broken off** by United States. Ambassador von Bernstorff is handed his passports, and Ambassador Gerard with his staff and all consuls are recalled from Germany. In an address before Congress, Wilson warns Germany that war will follow an overt act. [marine after warning.] American steamer *Housatonic* is sunk by a sub-

Feb. 4. Department of State announces that it has instructed its representatives in neutral countries that the president invites all neutrals to break with Germany.

Feb. 5. **Immigration Act** is passed over a veto. It includes a literacy test; increases head tax to $8; and **excludes Asiatic laborers,** natives of regions within certain degrees of latitude and longitude (Malays and Hindus chiefly), unless protected by treaties. Attempt to exclude Japanese is dropped on protest. Chinese exclusion is not affected.

Troops are withdrawn from Mexico.

Feb. 7. Senate, by a vote of 78 to 5, indorses the president's course in severing diplomatic relations with Germany.

Feb. 9. Indiana passes a Prohibition Act.

Feb. 12. American schooner *Lyman M. Law* is sunk by a submarine.

Feb. 14. Franchise is extended to women in Ohio for the choice of presidential electors.

Congress establishes prohibition in Alaska.

Feb. 17. French steamer *Athos* is torpedoed; one American killed.

Feb. 26. Wilson recommends to Congress the establishment of an armed neutrality in dealing with Germany's unrestricted submarine warfare.

Feb. 27. British liner *Laconia* is torpedoed without warning; two Americans are lost.

Feb. 28. Government makes public a note signed by **Zimmermann,** the German foreign secretary, proposing that **Mexico** should make an **alliance with Germany,** receiving in return financial aid and recovering the adjacent States of Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. Japan is to be invited to join the alliance.

Suffrage of women in Indiana is extended to presidential elections.

March 1. House by a vote of 403 to 13 empowers the president to arm merchant ships, but refuses to sanction the more general authority for which he asked. Bill is killed by filibuster in the Senate, and Wilson, on March 4, declares that a "little group of willful men, representing no opinion but their own, have rendered the great government of the United States helpless and contemptible."

March 2. Congress admits residents of **Porto Rico** collectively to **American citizenship,** establishes universal male suffrage, and reorganizes the framework of government, including an elected Senate. Act imposes prohibition, which is confirmed by referendum on July 16, 1917.

March 3. Congress appropriates $25,000,000 for the purchase of the Danish West Indian Islands, now known as the **Virgin Islands of the United States.** Provision is also made for the temporary government of the islands and commercial relations with the United States.

Manufacture and sale of liquor in the District of Columbia is prohibited. Liquor may be imported for personal use only. Takes effect November 1. The carriage of liquor advertisements by mail into prohibition States is prohibited, and also the shipment of liquor into such States.

Special Preparedness Fund Act provides for an increase of fifty per cent in inheritance taxes and for an eight per cent excess-profits tax laid on corporations and joint-stock companies.

March 4. Woodrow Wilson takes oath for his second term as president.

March 6. In the *Appam* Case the Supreme Court returns the German prize to its British owners, it being a violation of neutrality for Germany to attempt to keep the ship indefinitely in the United States.

March 8. **Senate** in special session changes its rules of procedure so as to permit the majority to

1917 (*continued*).

check debate. **Closure** may be applied after two days' notice, by a two-thirds vote. Each senator may be allowed to speak for one hour afterwards.

March 12. American steamer *Algonquin* is sunk without warning by a submarine.

March 15. Railroad brotherhoods call a nation-wide strike to begin on March 17, because of delay in decision of Supreme Court on the Adamson Law; but on March 16 agree to postpone it.

March 16–18. American steamers *Vigilancia, City of Memphis,* and *Illinois* are sunk by submarines; American lives lost.

March 18. Trainmen gain eight-hour day at the existing scale of wages.

March 19. **Supreme Court** (with four of the nine judges dissenting) in Wilson *v.* New declares the **Adamson Law** to be **constitutional,** considering it in effect compulsory arbitration in an emergency by Congress.

March 23. American steamer *Healdton* is sunk by a submarine; 22 lives are lost.

March 31. Wilson places more than 10,000 presidential postmasters in the classified civil service, but such first-class postmasters appointed through competitive method must still be confirmed by the Senate.

April 2. **Sixty-fifth Congress** meets in **special session,** called by Wilson on March 9 and 21 "to receive a communication concerning grave matters of national politics": Senate, 52 Democrats, 44 Republicans; House, 216 Democrats, 210 Republicans, 2 Progressives, 1 Prohibitionist, 1 Socialist, 2 Independents. Champ Clark, Democrat, is elected speaker. Miss Jeannette Rankin, Republican, of Montana, is **first woman member of the House.**

April 6. Joint resolution **declaring war against Germany** passes the House (373 to 50) and the Senate (82 to 6). President **formally proclaims declaration of war** as of that date. Government takes over 90 interned German vessels. [**relations** with the United State

April 8. **Austria-Hungary severs diplomat**

April 9. Government takes over 14 vessels of Austrian registry.

Supreme Court in Bunting *v.* Oregon declares constitutional a State law establishing a 10-hour day in factories, with time and a half for overtime, as a regulation of hours and not of wages, the overtime rate being a penalty to deter employers from exceeding the 10-hour limit.

April 14. Wilson creates a Committee on Public Information.

April 20. **Turkey severs diplomatic relations** with the United States.

April 21. British mission, headed by Foreign Secretary A. J. Balfour, arrives in United States.

April 24. French mission, headed by Marshal Joffre and René Viviani, minister of justice, arrives in the United States.

First Bond Issue Act provides for the borrowing of five billions and the lending of three billions of this to governments at war with Germany.

May 4. American destroyer flotilla, to be commanded by Admiral Sims, reaches the war zone.

May 10. Italian mission, headed by Prince Udine, reaches New York.

May 18. **War Army Act** passes the House by 397 to 24 and the Senate by 81 to 8; provides that the Regular Army and the National Guard shall be brought to full war strength; the guard shall be called into Federal service; and 500,000 men (with 500,000 more at the discretion of the president) shall be raised by **selective draft** from age 21 to age 30, inclusive. Measure passes in the face of strong opposition on the part of Democratic leaders, including Speaker Clark. [States.]

June 5. Belgian mission reaches the United

Registration of males for the selective draft shows nearly 10,000,000 available.

June 11. In Adams *v.* Tanner the Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the Employment Agency Law of Washington (State), which forbids agencies to receive fees from workers for furnishing employment or information leading to it.

June 13. Gen. Pershing and staff arrive in France

June 15. **First Liberty Loan** ($2,000,000,000 at three and a half per cent) has been oversubscribed by more than a billion; four million individuals participate.

First War Appropriation Act carries over three and a quarter billions for the army and navy.

Espionage Act provides elaborately for the punishment of espionage and interference with the foreign relations, neutrality, or foreign commerce of the United States, permits the president to lay an embargo, and gives the postmaster-general authority to exclude seditions and treasonable matter from the mails.

June 20. Interstate Commerce Commission rejects the plea of the railroads for an increase of 15 per cent in freight rates. [**France.**]

June 26. **First American troops arrive in**

July 1. National net debt $1,908,635,224.

July 2. Race riots in East St. Louis, Ill., result

1917 (*continued*).
in the death of more than thirty Negroes; order is restored by the militia.

July 12. Citizens of Bisbee, Arizona, contrary to law deport 1,200 striking miners and others who sympathize with them, suspected of being connected with the I. W. W.

July 24. Congress appropriates $640,000,000 for the **development of aviation.**
Denman resigns as chairman of the Shipping Board and General Goethals as manager of construction work, this being the outcome of a controversy as to the respective merits of wooden and steel ships. Their places are filled respectively by Hurley and Admiral Capps.

July 27. Second contingent of American troops lands in France.

Aug. 1. Frank Little, a member of the executive board of the I. W. W., is lynched by a band of masked men at Butte, Montana.

Aug. 5. National Guard, about 300,000 strong, goes into Federal service.

Aug. 10. **Food Control Act** gives the president very wide powers in fixing the prices and regulating the distribution of foodstuffs and fuels; no foodstuffs shall be used in the production of distilled spirits for beverage purposes. Hoover is appointed food administrator on same day.

Aug. 18. Armed forces of the United States now total 943,141, of which 233,117 are in the naval service.

Aug. 19. Local officials of the I. W. W. are arrested by military order at Spokane, Wash., on the charge of fomenting strikes and preaching sedition among employees in the fruit and lumber industries.

Aug. 20. Japanese mission, headed by Viscount Ishii, reaches the United States.

Aug. 21. President fixes the price for bituminous coal at the mines.

Aug. 23. Race riot at Houston, Tex., in which colored soldiers take part, results in the death of seventeen persons.
Garfield becomes fuel administrator; president fixes tentative prices for anthracite coal.

Aug. 25. Plans for an adjustment of labor disputes in shipyards are formulated at a conference between government officials and labor leaders.

Aug. 27. Wilson places under the control of an Export Council all articles of commerce destined for neutral countries, which must guarantee that such exports will not reach Germany.
Wilson's reply to the pope's peace message. (See WORLD WAR.)

Aug. 30. Food administration fixes a basic price for **wheat at $2.20 a bushel** which will be paid by the United States and the Allied governments.

Sept. 4. **Drafted recruits** for the new National Army **assemble** at training camps.

Sept. 5. Agents of the Department of Justice raid offices of the Industrial Workers of the World who have been active in opposing the war.

Sept. 8. Disclosure that Count von Luxburg, the German diplomatic agent at Buenos Aires, has been communicating with his government secretly through the Swedish legation and has recommended that certain Argentine vessels be "sunk without a trace" (*spurlos versenkt*).

Sept. 10. Maine rejects woman suffrage by a large majority.

Sept. 21. Disclosure of a secret message of Ambassador von Bernstorff which asked for authority to use $50,000, "as on former occasions to influence congressmen."

Sept. 22. Governor Ferguson of Texas is convicted on impeachment for misuse of State funds and abuse of authority.

Sept. 24. **Second Bond Issue Act** authorizes the borrowing of $7,500,000,000 and the lending of $4,000,000,000 to Allied governments.
War Industries Board effects an agreement with steel producers whereby the prices of pig iron and steel are reduced.

Oct. 3. **War Revenue Act** is expected to yield $2,535,000,000 annually. It provides for increases in the income tax, excess-profits tax, inheritance taxes, taxes upon intoxicants and tobacco, and postal rates. It also imposes many new taxes, and prohibits importation of distilled spirits.

Oct. 6. **Military and Naval Insurance Act** provides for governmental allowances to the families of soldiers, compensation for death or disability resulting from service, and additional insurance at low cost. [500,000,000.]
Second War Appropriation Act carries over $7,-
Senator La Follette, who has been accused of disloyal utterances, defends his conduct. Senate committee eventually fails to find proofs of action and stops the prosecution.

Oct. 10. By executive proclamation all large dealers in specified foodstuffs (such as meats, cereals, and fruits) are placed under a license act.

Oct. 15. Shipping Board requisitions for government service all American ocean-going vessels of more than 2,500 tons.
Constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of liquor is rejected by Iowa.

1917 (*continued*).
Oct. 16. Fuel Administrator Garfield warns miners and operators in the Southwest that contemplated strikes in coal fields must not take place.

Oct. 19. Government plans an embargo on trade with Holland and Scandinavian countries until assurance is given that imports will not reach Germany.

Oct. 20. Drastic changes in the machinery of the selective draft are announced, the remaining enrolled men to be divided into five classes.

Oct. 26. Supreme Court of Indiana declares the State woman suffrage law unconstitutional.

Oct. 27. **Second Liberty Loan** ($3,000,000,000 authorized) at 4% aggregates $4,617,532,300, with 9,400,000 persons participating.

Nov. 2. Lansing-Ishii notes exchanged by which the United States recognizes that Japan has "special interests in China," but the "territorial integrity remains unimpaired — a kind of Asiatic Monroe Doctrine."

Nov. 3. In the first encounters by American troops at the front, 3 are killed, 11 wounded, and 7 taken prisoners.

Nov. 5. Supreme Court in Buchanan *v.* Warley holds that a city ordinance segregating Negroes is contrary to Fourteenth Amendment.

Nov. 6. Constitutional amendments providing for woman suffrage are adopted in New York by 90,000 majority, and defeated in Ohio by 136,000. State-wide prohibition is adopted in New Mexico by a majority of 15,000 and defeated in Ohio by 1,700. Hylan (Dem.) is elected Mayor of New York by a very large plurality, defeating Mayor Mitchel who made his campaign on the war issue. Socialist vote is five times that of 1913.

Nov. 7. American War Commission, headed by E. M. House, reaches England on its way to attend the Allied War Conference at Paris.

Nov. 15. Admiral Capps resigns as manager of the construction work of the Shipping Board; succeeded by Charles Piez.

Nov. 24. To relieve congestion of traffic, government orders railroads east of Chicago to pool all available facilities for movement of freight.

Nov. 25. Government announces that, aside from 426 vessels requisitioned while under construction, contracts have been let for 884 new vessels of 4,724,300 tons.

Dec. 1. In view of recent increases in wages, the president permits an advance of 35 cents a ton in the price of anthracite coal at the mines.

Dec. 3. Wilson in an address before Congress advises war on Austria-Hungary.

Dec. 5. Reporting to Congress, the Interstate Commerce Commission recommends that the operation of railroads be unified for the period of the war, or, failing such an arrangement, brought under the control of the president.

Dec. 7. Congress, with only one dissenting vote, declares **war on Austria-Hungary.**
Government directs railroads to give preference to shipments of fuel, foodstuffs, and military supplies.

Dec. 10. Supreme Court in Hitchman Coal and Coke Co. *v.* Mitchell decides that an attempt to unionize a mine and cause a strike, knowing that employees are under a contract with the owners, by which they lose their jobs if they join a union, is illegal, and owner is entitled to an injunction.

Dec. 11. Thirteen Negro soldiers are convicted by court martial and hanged for complicity in the Houston, Tex., race riot.

Dec. 12. Senate Committee on Military Affairs begins to investigate alleged shortcomings of the War Department.

Dec. 18. **Eighteenth Amendment** providing for **national prohibition** is submitted to the States for ratification. It passes, with the proviso that to become effective it must be ratified within seven years, by 47 to 8 in the Senate and 282 to 128 in the House. Senate had previously voted, Aug. 2, 65 to 20, to adopt prohibition amendment.

Dec. 26. By proclamation of the president, the **railroad systems** of the country pass **under Federal control;** Secretary of the Treasury **McAdoo** becomes **director-general of railroads.**
General conditions and activities in 1917: The ascendancy of the executive in legislation is very marked. Congress passes no bill of importance (excepting the Immigration Act), which the president has not recommended, and rejects no bill which he supports; it, however, refuses to intrust him with a censorship over the press. The country stands squarely behind the president and the war. The two installments of the **Liberty Loan** are oversubscribed by two and a half billions. The fears entertained at first that German-Americans may hamper war preparations prove, on the whole, unfounded.
Effects of participation in the war are already felt: The first war taxes give intimation of a growing burden; sugar becomes scarce; "war bread" makes its appearance; the transportation system is brought under government control, but nearly breaks down. The country especially realizes the war in the enlistment and drafting of young men into the new National Army, and by reports of the first casualties on the western front.

1918. Imports of merchandise, $2,945,655,403; exports of merchandise, $5,919,711,371; immigrants, 110,618; alien emigrants, 94,585.

Jan. 7. Supreme Court in Selective Draft Law Cases upholds the constitutionality of the Army Act providing for compulsory military service.

Jan. 8. In the course of an address made before Congress, Wilson names **fourteen points** essential in considering peace, as follows:
"1. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at; after which there shall be **no private international understandings** of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.
"2. Absolute **freedom of** navigation upon **the seas,** outside territorial waters, alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.
"3. The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an **equality of trade conditions** among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.
"4. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national **armaments** will be **reduced** to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.
"5. A free, open-minded, and absolutely **impartial adjustment of all colonial claims,** based on a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined.
"6. Evacuation of all Russian territory, and such a **settlement of all questions affecting Russia** as will secure the best and freest coöperation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy, and assure her of a sincere welcome into the society of free nations under institutions of her own choosing; and, more than a welcome, assistance also of every kind she may need and may herself desire. The treatment accorded Russia by her sister nations in the months to come will be the acid test of their good will, of their comprehension of her needs as distinguished from their own interests, and of their intelligent and unselfish sympathy.
"7. **Belgium,** the whole world will agree, **must be evacuated and restored** without any attempt to limit the sovereignty which she enjoys in common with all other free nations. No other single act will serve as this will serve to restore confidence among the nations in the laws which they have themselves set and determined for the government of their relations with one another. Without this healing act, the whole structure and validity of international law is forever impaired.
"8. **All French territory** should be **freed** and invaded portions restored; and the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, which has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years, should be righted, in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interest of all.
"9. A readjustment of the **frontiers of Italy** should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.
"10. The peoples of **Austria-Hungary,** whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the freest opportunity of autonomous development.
"11. Roumania, Serbia, and Montenegro should be evacuated; occupied territories restored; Serbia accorded free and secure access to the sea; and the relations of the several **Balkan states** to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality; and international guarantees of the political and economic independence and territorial integrity of the several Balkan states should be entered into.
"12. The Turkish portions of the present **Ottoman Empire** should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.
"13. An independent **Polish state** should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant.
"14. A general **association of nations** must be formed, under specific covenants, for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike."

1918 (*continued*).

Jan. 10. House of Representatives initiates by vote of 274 to 136 (just over the required two thirds) a constitutional **amendment** providing for **woman suffrage.**

Chairman Hurley of the Shipping Board states that new construction for the year will approximate 5,000,000 tons.

Jan. 17. In view of the serious shortage of coal, Fuel Administrator Garfield issues a drastic order affecting States east of the Mississippi; no manufacturing industry is allowed to operate from January 18 to 22, and all use of fuel except by consumers classed as absolutely necessary is forbidden for ten Mondays.

Jan. 19. Senator Chamberlain of Oregon, member of Senate Military Committee, asserts that the military establishment of America has fallen down, and that there is inefficiency in every bureau and department.

Jan. 21. Wilson issues a statement attacking Senator Chamberlain and defending Secretary of War Baker.

Jan. 26. Food Administrator Hoover fixes two "wheatless," two "porkless," and one "meatless" day a week, and in addition one "wheatless" and one "meatless" meal each day.

Secretary of War Baker defends the work of his department, asserting that the mistakes are of small consequence in comparison with the great results achieved.

Jan. 30. Interstate Commerce Commission grants an increase of approximately 15% in railroad-commodity rates to the Pacific coast.

Feb. 1. In the first year of unrestricted submarine warfare, the Germans have sunk 69 American ships with a gross tonnage of 171,000. [staff]

Feb. 5. General March is appointed chief of [staff] The **transport Tuscania,** carrying more than 2,000 American troops, is **torpedoed** off the coast of Ireland; 209 lives are lost; only transport sunk with American troops during the war.

Feb. 11. President appears before Congress and in replying to the speeches of German statesmen formulates again his peace principles. These recognize especially the rights of small nations and the aspirations of subject populations.

Feb. 13. The Fuel Administrator suspends the general operation of his order for "heatless" Mondays.

Feb. 15. By presidential proclamations all foreign trade becomes subject to government control under a licensing system. This step releases ships for transportation of troops and supplies to Europe.

Feb. 18. Shipyard carpenters return to work after Wilson rebukes them for giving aid and comfort to the enemy. Their grievances, he says, should be submitted to the official wage-adjustment board.

Feb. 21. Economic agreement is signed at Madrid, Spain, under which General Pershing will receive army supplies from Spain.

Feb. 22. Wilson, under act of Congress, fixes a guaranteed **minimum price for 1918 wheat at $2.20,** with a scale of differentials for different markets. [where he arrives March 10]

Feb. 27. Secretary Baker sails for France, [where he arrives March 10]

March 1. Motion for a new trial is denied Mooney, a radical labor leader, who was convicted of murder in connection with a bomb explosion in San Francisco during a preparedness parade.

March 10. **American troops** are reported to be operating **on four sectors of the Western front:** in Lorraine, Champagne, and Alsace, and near the Chemin des Dames.

March 14. Texas adopts prohibition, but the act is declared unconstitutional on October 24.

March 19. **Daylight-saving Act** provides for advancing clocks one hour in period between last Sunday in March and last Sunday in October.

March 21. Railroad Control Act permits government control of the railroads in the country for a maximum period of twenty-one months after the close of the war.

March 29. Wilson asks the governor of California to extend clemency in the case of Mooney.

April 5. War Finance Corporation Act creates a Federal corporation of $500,000,000 capital and power to finance private enterprises needed for war.

April 10. The **Webb Act** permits combinations otherwise contrary to the Antitrust Act, for the purposes of foreign trade.

April 12. Charles M. Schwab becomes director-general of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

April 19. Bentall, candidate for governor of Minnesota, and Peterson, candidate for senator, are convicted of violating the Espionage Act.

April 20. **Sabotage Act** imposes heavy penalties upon those who willfully destroy war materials or war premises or utilities used in connection with the war.

Navy Department takes control of the Philadelphia police, suspending the chief, and appointing a head to protect soldiers and sailors from vice.

May 1. Michigan goes dry by constitutional amendment and New Hampshire by repeal of old local-option law.

1918 (*continued*).

May 4. **Third Liberty Loan** (4%), with 17,000,000 subscribers, amounts to $4,170,000,000.

May 13. Governor Whitman of New York signs a "work-or-fight" bill, which requires all able-bodied men between the ages of 18 and 50 not serving with military forces to be regularly engaged in a useful occupation during the war period.

May 15. Hughes is appointed by the president to conduct an investigation into charges made by Gutzon Borglum, on April 25, that inefficiency, waste, and corruption have led to a breakdown in the aircraft production.

May 16. **Sedition Act** imposes heavy penalties on those who hinder the prosecution of the war by circulating false statements, obstructing enlistment, inciting disloyalty among the armed forces, or assisting enemy countries in other ways.

May 18. An explosion of T. N. T. (trinitrotoluene) destroys the plant of the Ætna Co., near Pittsburgh; nearly 200 are killed; the property loss is $1,500,000.

May 19. Director-General of Railroads McAdoo authorizes expenditures of $938,000,000 on equipment and improvements for fiscal year 1919.

May 20. **Overman Act** (an administration measure) permits a readjustment of the existing executive departments, and substitution of new arrangements to meet the exigencies of war.

Air service, now separated from Signal Corps, is reorganized, a director of aircraft production being placed in charge of construction and a director of military aëronautics in charge of operation.

May 23. Congress prohibits the manufacture, sale, and importation of liquors in Hawaii, subject to a referendum.

May 24. Provost marshal general issues a "work-or-fight" order directed against all men within draft age not engaged in a useful occupation. Slight attempt made to enforce it.

May 27. Director-general of railroads orders a 25% increase in freight rates and fixes passenger rates at three cents a mile.

President, appearing before Congress, urges passage of a new revenue bill during present session

May 28. **American troops** in front line **attack Germans at Cantigny** (see WORLD WAR).

June 1. Rose Pastor Stokes, a Socialist of New York, is sentenced to ten years' imprisonment for violations of the Espionage Act. She appeals.

June 3. Supreme Court in Hammer *v.* Dagenhart declares the **Federal Child Labor Law** of 1916, forbidding the interstate shipment of child labor products, unconstitutional.

Treaty with Great Britain for reciproeal military service; citizens of either country resident in the other liable to conscription, but allowed 60 days to enlist in army of own country. Similar treaties with Italy (August 24), Greece (August 30), and France (September 3).

June 6. Americans and French attack Germans at **Belleau Wood** (see WORLD WAR).

June 22. Director-general of railroads turns back to private management most of the short-line roads.

July 10. Army Appropriation Act, which carries over $12,000,000,000, bases the draft quota on the number of men in Class 1 instead of on State populations, and authorizes the president to increase size of the army indefinitely by successive calls under the draft law.

July 12. Wilson vetoes the Agricultural Appropriation Bill because it fixes a minimum price of $2.40 for wheat.

July 15. Strikes occur in several large industrial plants in widely separated parts of the country.

July 15–18. Americans hold position **on river near Château-Thierry** against renewed German attack. July 21, Germans again driven out of Château-Thierry and retire. (See WORLD WAR.)

July 16. Joint resolution of Congress empowers the president during the continuance of war to assume control of the telegraph, telephone, cable, and radio systems as deemed necessary.

By proclamation Wilson puts all **telegraph and telephone** wires under government control, with the postmaster-general in charge.

Twenty-one indictments are returned for army contract frauds.

United States Food Administration reduces the sugar allowance for August to two pounds per capita.

Aug. 2. Edward A. Rumely is indicted for perjury in disguising the true ownership of the *New York Evening Mail*, purchased by German agents.

Aug. 4. Government suit against the International Harvester Company, which began in 1912, ends in an agreement under which the company will adopt certain dissolution measures within a year after the close of the war.

Aug. 11. **Man-power Act** requires the registration of all men between the ages of 18 and 45, inclusive.

Aug. 17. General March, chief of staff, announces that 1,450,000 American soldiers are in Europe, 1,550,000 in training camps at home.

Aug. 22. Seventeen dealers in New York are found guilty of violating the food rules, stores are closed, fines imposed, and sugar licenses revoked.

1918 (*continued*).

Aug. 27. An engagement between Americans and Mexicans at Nogales, Ariz., over the international line, results in the death of two Americans.

Aug. 30. Federal court at Chicago sentences to twenty years' imprisonment William D. Haywood and fourteen other leaders of the Industrial Workers of the World, convicted of disloyal conduct during the war, and imposes less severe sentences on eighty others.

September. Epidemic of so-called "Spanish" **influenza spreads** through the country. On October 4 it is reported that only five States remain immune and that there are 127,000 cases in army camps.

Sept. 2. By proclamation of the president the **guaranteed price of wheat** ($2.20 per bushel in the extreme West to $2.39½ at New York City) will remain in force **for 1919.**

Sept. 6. Food Administration, with the approval of the president, orders the closing of all breweries after November 30.

Sept. 12. **Congress** passes a joint resolution which **authorizes the president** to fix zones of any size around coal mines, munition plants, shipyards, and other plants engaged in war work and **to prohibit** therein the **sale of intoxicating liquors.** Under the Man-power Act, 12,966,594 men register for the draft.

Sept. 12–13. American troops under Pershing smash the German defenses on the **Saint-Mihiel** salient and drive Germans out of district. (See WORLD WAR.)

Sept. 14. Federal court at Cleveland sentences **Eugene V. Debs,** four times Socialist candidate for the presidency, to ten years' imprisonment for disloyal conduct and obstruction to recruiting.

Sept. 16. Wilson by proclamation under Food Control Act of August 10, 1917, prohibits the use of foodstuffs in the manufacture of malt liquors.

Sept. 17. Bridgeport, Conn., munition workers return to work when warned by the president that their failure to respect the decision of the War Labor Board will subject them to military service.

Sept. 21. Announcement made that 1,750,000 American soldiers are in Europe.

Sept. 26–Nov. 11. American troops fight the **Meuse-Argonne campaign** ending in the approach to Sedan and the breaking of the enemy's line. (See WORLD WAR.)

Sept. 27. President declares that peace cannot be made with the Central Powers by way of a bargain or compromise, but that impartial justice must rule at the peace conference even in dealing with those whose honor cannot be trusted.

Sept. 30. Wilson addresses the Senate and urges **woman suffrage** as "a vitally necessary war measure." Senate (October 1) fails to comply, lacking two votes of the necessary two thirds.

October. It is estimated that the increase in the number of women workers since 1915 is 1,000,000, of whom 400,000 are engaged in manufacture and 500,000 in clerical work. It is estimated that 10,000,000 women are employed, of whom perhaps a fifth are factory workers.

Oct. 4–5. At South Amboy, N. J., the largest shell-loading plant in the world is destroyed by successive explosions of tons of T. N. T. Ninety lives lost; damage $25,000,000.

Oct. 12–13. Nearly 1,000 persons lose their lives and some twenty towns are destroyed by a forest fire in northern Minnesota.

Oct. 25. **Wilson appeals** to the voters **to maintain Democratic control** in both Senate and House in the approaching election, as a Republican victory would be interpreted as a rebuff to himself.

Oct. 31. Hughes reports that the chief causes **of trouble in the air service** are defective organization in the Signal Corps, the necessity of undertaking a vast program without previous experience, and changes in design and specifications.

Nov. 1. **Fourth Liberty Loan,** with 21,000,000 subscribers, amounts to $6,866,416,300.

Nov. 5. Equal suffrage is adopted in Michigan and South Dakota, rejected in Louisiana. Prohibition amendments are adopted in Ohio, Florida, Nevada, and Wyoming; rejected in California, Minnesota, and Missouri.

Nov. 11. **Armistice** between Allied powers and Germany; result of complete defeat of Germans, who give up territory occupied by them, agree to Allied occupation of German territory, and surrender the fleet. (See WORLD WAR.)

Nov. 16. Health commissioner of New York City reports 150,000 influenza and pneumonia cases in the city, with 20,000 deaths.

Government assumes control of the cable lines, intrusting them to the management of the postmaster-general.

Nov. 18. Demobilization of American army begins at home and abroad.

Supreme Court declines to review the case of Thomas J. Mooney.

1918 (*continued*).

Nov. 21. **Food Stimulation Act** provides that after May 1, 1919, no foodstuffs may be used in the manufacture of beer or wine and that after June 30 until the end of the war and demobilization no distilled spirits, beer, or wine shall be sold for beverage purposes.

Nov. 28. Mooney's sentence is commuted to life imprisonment by governor of California.

Dec. 1. British transport *Mauretania* reaches New York with the first returning troops.

Dec. 2. Congress reassembles.

President announces purpose to attend the Peace Conference in France, urges the passage of the woman-suffrage amendment, and says that the railroads must be surrendered, "unless there should appear some clear prospect in the meantime of a legislative solution."

Florida passes a "bone-dry" prohibition act.

Dec. 3. **Wilson starts from Washington for the Peace Conference.** Lansing, House, White, and Gen. Bliss appointed (without confirmation by the Senate) as co-commissioners. All decisions are made by the President.

Dec. 5. Carter Glass succeeds McAdoo as secretary of the treasury.

General Pershing reports that at armistice Nov. 11, the United States had 2,053,347 men in Europe.

Dec. 9. Senate committee begins investigation of German propaganda, with officials of the Department of Justice as chief witnesses. Many documents hitherto unpublished come to light.

Dec. 18. Federal court at Philadelphia sentences pro-German editors Louis Werner and Martin Darkow to five years' imprisonment for their disloyal connection with the Philadelphia *Tageblatt*.

Dec. 19. State Department announces that the German propaganda is still active, and that it is now directed toward separating the United States from the associated nations.

Dec. 20. A credit of $250,000,000 is extended to Great Britain, making a total advance of $4,195,000,000 to that country and $8,464,547,702 to all the associated nations.

Dec. 29. At the home camps, where 1,700,000 men were in training when the armistice was signed, demobilization averages 15,000 daily.

Dec. 31. With the granting of a new credit to Italy that country's indebtedness to the American government totals $1,300,000,000.

General conditions and activities in 1918: The most striking characteristic of the year is the **reorganization of the life of the people under war commissions;** begun in 1917, but carried out mainly in 1918. The Council for National Defense continues in general oversight. **Food** supply is of primary importance, and a careful agricultural program is framed to secure the greatest results, but crop conditions are not so favorable as during the year before. The people submit cheerfully to restrictions on quantity and quality of food, in order to assist in supplying the needs of the armies and Allied populations. Farm labor is scarce; various measures are taken to supply the deficiency. Prices of food are regulated and profiteering punished. Activities of the Food Administration are far-reaching and efficacious.

Manufacturing is under government supervision and nonwar industry is curtailed. A War Industries Board has charge, determining priorities in demand for material, transportation, and fuel, supervising war purchases and purchases for Allies, and promoting efficiency. The War Credits Board makes advances to contractors for war supplies. Property of alien enemies is taken over and operated by the Alien Property Custodian. **Fuel** is an important problem. During the summer a large saving of gasoline results from a general cessation of Sunday automobile driving east of the Mississippi, in response to an appeal of the Fuel Administrator. Transportation is under the Director-General of Railroads, and the government operates express, telegraph, telephone, and cables.

Labor shows continued improvement in hours and conditions. Government supervision, through Secretary of Labor Wilson as War Labor Administrator, with an advisory council, the National Labor Policies Board, and the National War Labor or Arbitration (Taft-Walsh) Board, reduces strikes and lockouts. Recruitment and distribution of labor is featured. "Work-or-fight" policy is announced, but not seriously enforced.

The Shipping Board and its Emergency Fleet Corporation through requisition and purchase puts the merchant marine into war service; but the shipbuilding program does not get into full operation during the year. In this, as in other respects, the period is still one of war preparations rather than accomplishments. A War Trade Board has charge of foreign trade.

Finance is mobilized through the Capital Issues Committee of the Federal Reserve Board, which passes upon the issues of new industrial securities, and through the War Finance Corporation. **Science** also is mobilized for war purposes, with a research council and a naval consulting board.

1918 (*continued*).

A National Board for Historical Service works in connection with the Committee on Public Information. This Committee keeps up the knowledge and interest through pamphlets, daily bulletins, "movie" pictures, and speakers (four-minute men). The people are thoroughly alive and united in support of the war, and respond enthusiastically to the demands of the Liberty Loans and War Savings, and also to the appeals of the Red Cross, Y.M.C.A., and other war-work organizations. The War Chest, a general fund out of which to meet the demands on a community during the year, is featured. With the beginning of the academic year most of the colleges become training schools for military and naval officers.

Although politics is not adjourned, the interest, aside from the congressional elections, is mainly in the voting by the State legislatures on the prohibition amendment.

1919. Imports of merchandise, $3,095,876,582; exports $7,074,011,529; immigrants, 141,132.

Jan. 3. Hoover has been appointed to direct food relief in newly liberated neutral and enemy territories in Europe.

Jan. 6. Ex-President **Roosevelt dies** suddenly.

Jan. 7. Interstate Commerce Commission opposes Director-General McAdoo's proposal that Federal control of the railroads be extended to a period of five years.

Jan. 8. Congressman elect Victor Berger of Milwaukee and four other Socialists are found guilty in the Federal Court of Chicago of conspiracy to violate the Espionage Act.

Jan. 9. **New York Harbor** traffic is paralyzed when 16,000 harbor workers go on **strike** to enforce their demands for an increase in pay and an eight-hour day.

Jan. 11. Wilson cables the War Labor Board to resume jurisdiction in the strike. The men decide to return to work.

Walker D. Hines, a practical railroad man, succeeds McAdoo as Director-General of Railroads.

Jan. 16. Nebraska legislature ratifies the **Eighteenth Amendment** (prohibition), thus giving three fourths of the States necessary to ratification.

Jan. 17. A general strike is set for July 4, next, by a labor conference in Chicago, if Mooney is not freed sooner. Neither strike nor release happens. Sentences ranging from one to ten years' imprisonment are imposed on 43 members of the Industrial Workers of the World at Sacramento.

Jan. 18. First meeting of the **Conference of Paris.** Wilson soon becomes member of small **council of 4** (or 3) — Wilson, Lloyd George, Clemenceau, and (usually) Orlando (or later Giolitti). (See WORLD WAR.)

Jan. 29. Department of Agriculture estimates the **aggregate value of** United States **farm crops** for 1918 at $14,090,769,000. This is $500,000,000 more than the total for 1917, best previous year.

Frank L. Polk, acting secretary of state, formally proclaims ratification of the Eighteenth (prohibition) Amendment which will become effective in a year, date of effect not mentioned, but subsequently made January 17, 1920.

Feb. 3. Forty-eight-hour weekly schedule for textile workers goes into effect in New Bedford and Fall River.

Feb. 6. **A general strike ties up Seattle,** Wash; movement seems an attempt to begin an industrial revolution, but is promptly checked by vigorous action of the mayor, Ole Hanson. Strike is called off on February 10.

Feb. 9. **Roosevelt Memorial Day** is observed throughout the United States and in some European capitals and by American troops abroad.

Feb. 10. The Woman Suffrage amendment is again defeated by the Senate, one vote being lacking to the necessary two thirds.

A general **movement** is begun by the Federal government **to deport criminal aliens** and others who are regarded as a menace to the nation.

Feb. 15. Wilson sails for America. He sends a message requesting members of the Senate and House foreign relations committees to defer debate on the proposed League of Nations.

Feb. 18. **Opposition** appears **to the League of Nations** as at present planned.

Feb. 24. Wilson reaches Boston, where his speech is received with great applause.

War Revenue Act is signed. Though the prospective revenue is reduced by the cessation of hostilities, it is expected to yield $6,000,000,000.

According to the estimates of the Treasury Department, it will cost the American people about $1,200,000,000 a year for the next 25 years to pay off the **war debt.**

Feb. 25. Act is passed appropriating $100,000,000 for European relief outside of Germany and her allies, following Wilson's cabled appeal for it.

Feb. 26. Grand Cañon National Park created.

Feb. 27. Wilson gives a dinner at the White House to members of the two foreign relations committees, at which he explains the details of the proposed constitution for the League of Nations.

1919 (*continued*).

March 2. Senate passes the Victory Loan measure in an all-night session.

Hoover appointed director-general of the **American Relief Administration** created along with appropriation of Congress to feed hungry Europe.

March 3. Conference of governors and mayors at White House on business and labor problems.

March 4. Second general strike of 16,000 harbor workers at New York City goes into effect.

Congress appropriates $1,000,000,000 to enable the president to carry out guaranty of price of wheat for crops of 1918 and 1919.

The last regular session of the Sixty-fifth Congress ends at noon, leaving a large amount of unfinished business, among which is the appropriation for railroads, army, navy, and sundry civil expenses. Wilson charges that neglect to pass important bills is due to filibuster of Republican senators.

Wilson and Taft in speeches at New York City plead for the League of Nations.

Palmer succeeds Gregory as attorney-general.

March 5. Wilson again sails for France.

March 8. United States **credit to 11 Allies** amounts to $8,841,657,000.

March 19. American and Canadian soldiers in London riot with the police.

First of several proclamations canceling the need of Federal license of food products, part of the process of terminating the Food Administration.

March 25. Parade in New York City of the returned Twenty-seventh Division (New York National Guards). April 25, Twenty-sixth Division (New England National Guards) parades in Boston. May 6, Seventy-seventh Division (Metropolitan National Army troops) parades in New York City.

April 4. Delegation of Filipinos arrives at Washington to present a memorial for independence.

April 6. Increase in wages, third since the Adamson Act of 1916, granted railroad crews.

April 14. Return to New York Harbor of the Atlantic fleet from the war zone.

April 21. Nation-wide conspiracy for mailing bombs to prominent Americans discovered. Many bombs traced in the mail.

April 28. Decision by Federal district court (United Mine Workers *v.* Coronado Coal Co.) that United Mine Workers must pay $600,000 to a company whose property its members had damaged.

Adoption by Paris Conference of provisional **Covenant of League of Nations,** for which Wilson is responsible.

May. The *NC-4*, one of three hydroplanes which made the attempt, **crosses the Atlantic** from Newfoundland to Lisbon by way of the Azores, thence to England.

May 1. Cost to the government of operating the railroads during 16 months is $486,000,000 more than receipts.

May 2. Marine cables returned to owners.

May 10. War Department announces that $5,600,000,000 outstanding war contracts of November 9 have been reduced by termination and delivery to $512,000,000.

May 12. **Fifth (Victory) Loan** for $4,500,000,000 closed; 12,000,000 persons participate, subscriptions amount to $5,249,908,000, of which some $4,498,000,000 allotted.

May 19. Special session of **Sixty-sixth Congress:** Senate, 47 Democrats, 49 Republicans; House, 185 Democrats, 242 Republicans, 2 Independents, 1 Prohibitionist, 8 vacancies. **Gillett,** Republican of Massachusetts, **elected speaker** of House. Berger, convicted Socialist, not permitted to take his seat. **Wilson's message,** cabled from Paris, read next day: measures for return to a peace basis, including return of railroads, telegraphs, and telephones; repeal of war-time prohibition: woman suffrage; shipping; reduction of taxation; rights of labor. Special session necessary because a filibuster at end of last Congress prevented passage of great appropriation bills with purpose to force Wilson to call such a session of the new Republican Congress.

May 30. Memorial Day has additional meaning both at home and abroad; observed in France and Great Britain wherever American soldiers and sailors are buried.

June. Investigation by the Senate of the peace-treaty leak, the text having been brought privately to this country.

June 2. **Bomb outrages** in eight cities: victims are officials who have been active against Bolshevism; Attorney-General Palmer's house partly wrecked.

June 4. **Woman Suffrage amendment,** which passed the House on May 21 by 304 to 89, passes Senate by 56 to 25 and is submitted to the States.

June 14. **American troops cross the border** at El Paso and disperse a band of *Villistas.* President Carranza registers a *pro forma* protest.

June 15. All the drafted and National Guard troops sent abroad have been returned; some 65 per cent of war army has been demobilized; 694,745 still in France and Germany on June 3.

1919 (*continued*).

June 20. Pessoa, president elect of Brazil, visits United States.

June 24. By proclamation under the Wheat Stabilization Act, Wilson prohibits importation or exportation of wheat or wheat flour. Canceled November 21.

June 28. **Peace treaty** of Allies with Germany **signed at Versailles.** (See WORLD WAR.)

Anglo-Franco-American Treaty of Alliance signed; United States and Great Britain to go immediately to assistance of France in case of an unprovoked attack on her by Germany. **Not ratified by Senate.**

June 30. **Pacific Fleet** formed, equal in importance to Atlantic Fleet; indicative of growing importance of Pacific in nation's external relations.

July–August. For Mexican relations, see MEXICO.

July 1. **National debt,** $24,479,302,000. **War-time prohibition** goes into effect under act of November 21, 1918.

July 6. Arrival at Long Island of the *R-34*, a British dirigible which left Scotland July 2; first Atlantic flight of a lighter-than-air machine. Return to England made July 9–13.

July 8. President **Wilson returns** from the Peace Conference. July 10, he presents the **Treaty of Versailles** (including the **League of Nations**) to the Senate, and debate begins on July 14. Strong **opposition** develops; demands for rejection of League, also for amendments or reservations.

Secretary of the Treasury Glass estimates **cost of the war to United States,** including loans to Allies, at $32,427,469,054.

July 19–22. Race riots in Washington.

July 20. Ex-President Taft presents a list of **"mild" reservations** to the League of Nations; they modify right of withdrawal; reserve Monroe Doctrine; deny British dominions separate vote in League Council; modify **Article X.** so as to leave each nation free to decide question of war in its own way; withdraw domestic questions, such as immigration and tariff, from jurisdiction of the League. July 28, Hughes also suggests reservations on right of withdrawal, domestic questions, Monroe Doctrine, and Article X.

July 23. Naval cable censorship ceases.

July 27–31. Race riots in Chicago.

Aug. 1. **Strike** of shopmen **on railways.** August 2, the four brotherhoods of railway trainmen demand increase in wages, threatening a nation-wide strike in September if not granted. At same time **Plumb plan** for **nationalization of railroads** presented to Congress. In Brooklyn and New York violent strike of street-railroad men during the month. **Actors** in New York, Chicago, and elsewhere **walk out** for a month. General **industrial unrest** due to high cost of living and belief in profiteering.

Telegraph and telephone systems returned to owners, following act passed July 11.

Aug. 6. Federal Trade Commission reports that methods of meat control show a "clear violation of the antitrust laws."

Aug. 7. Wilson orders Director-General Hines to take up question of striking railway shopmen, but only on condition that the men return to work, which they do generally. An unauthorized strike of trainmen of the Far Western railroads ties up traffic until **Wilson orders** Director-General **Hines to operate roads by military force,** if necessary.

Aug. 8. **Wilson** sends a special **message** to Congress **on the high cost of living,** declaring that improper practices are responsible for the excessive prices.

Second (regular) Division parades at New York, on return from overseas.

Aug. 12. Senator **Lodge,** Republican head of the committee on foreign relations, presents his five **reservations** on the League of Nations, similar to those of Hughes.

Aug. 16. Department of Labor reports that general **cost of living** rose 80% between December, 1914, and June, 1919, while advance in clothing and food is much greater.

Aug. 19. Wilson holds a public conference with Senate committee on foreign relations.

Aug. 20. Daylight-saving Act repealed for future years over two vetoes; farmers' opposition. All the **American Army** of Occupation, except the permanent force, is **out of Germany.** France agrees to pay $400,000,000 in bonds for the property of the American Expeditionary Force in France, estimated to be worth $749,000,000 and costing $1,300,000,000. $360,000,000 paid by other nations for material.

Aug. 31. **National debt** stands at $26,596,701,648.

Sept. 3. Permanent rank of **general** conferred on **Pershing.**

Wilson starts on a nation-wide speaking tour in behalf of unconditional acceptance of the League of Nations. Speaks first at Columbus, Ohio, September 4.

1919 (*continued*).

Sept. 8. **Pershing welcomed** at New York on return from the war. September 10, First (regular) Division, "first to go over, last to return," parades at New York, and at Washington, September 17.

Sept. 9. **Strike of police in Boston,** over attempt to affiliate with American Federation of Labor, gives the city over to rioters during that night. State troops soon restore order and remain in charge until new police force is organized. Strikers all discharged from force. September 14, Governor **Coolidge** in a notable letter to Gompers strongly condemns the strike: "There is no right to strike against the public safety by anybody, anywhere, any time." Question of affiliation of police and firemen with the Federation causes controversy in other cities.

Cardinal Mercier arrives in United States on visit of thanks for American aid to Belgium during war.

Sept. 10. Republican majority of Senate committee on foreign relations **reports** the **peace treaty** with 48 **amendments** and 4 **reservations** on the League of Nations. Democratic committeemen favor its acceptance without change. **Amendments** call for vote in assembly in the League equal to that of British Empire (6 votes; United States has one); transfer of Shantung to China rather than to Japan; and no American representation on commissions in which this nation has no interest. Reservations on right to withdraw from League; on right of Congress to decide on obligations under Article X. (vital objection); on domestic questions such as immigration; and on preservation of Monroe Doctrine. Debate on the subject continues for months.

Sept. 16. Act of Congress to incorporate the **American Legion,** a "society of the soldiers, sailors, and marines of the Great War 1917–1918." Inception of the Legion at Paris, March 15; tentative organization at St. Louis, May 8–10; first annual meeting at Minneapolis, Nov. 8–14.

Sept. 19. Race riot in Omaha. Mob injures mayor and burns courthouse in successful effort to lynch a Negro. Federal troops take control.

Sept. 21. **Strike of the Steel Corporation employees** begins; closed shop main controversy. Radicals control strike and company refuses to treat with them. Violence in various places. At Gary Gen. Wood with Federal troops takes control, October 6, and declares martial law. Strike wears out by end of November, but not officially called off until January 8, 1920.

Sept. 26. President **Wilson's tour is ended** abruptly at Wichita, Kansas, by a stroke of paralysis. He is incapacitated from the usual activities of a president, but later becomes able to confer with a few people and to make some decisions.

Sept. 29. Joint resolution tendering thanks of Congress to Pershing. [bassy rank.]

Congress raises the mission to Belgium to em-

Oct. 1–31. Albert, king of Belgium, with the queen and crown prince, visits United States.

Oct. 1. Some 250 printing firms in New York City lock out their pressmen, who have gone on a "vacation," have refused to live up to their contracts, and have been outlawed by their unions. Many periodicals suspend publication. Lockout ends November 25.

Race war in Arkansas results from activities of an armed Negro society. Put down by Federal troops.

Oct. 2. Senate rejects the amendments to the Treaty of Versailles against American participation on commissions.

Oct. 6–24. **Industrial Conference,** called by Wilson, meets at Washington. Groups represent employers, employees, and public. Deadlock results; labor group withdraws when employer group rejects, as fatal to open shop, collective bargaining through outside representatives.

Oct. 7. Longshoremen in New York City strike; against order of leaders. Shipping paralyzed. Ends by compromise, November 4.

Oct. 14. **War army** virtually all **demobilized.**

Oct. 16. Senate rejects proposed treaty amendment on Shantung. [MEXICO).]

Oct. 19. Jenkins abduction in Mexico (see

Oct. 22. Act extending the food-control law to clothing and other necessities, penalizing hoarding and profiteering, and establishing a commission to prevent unfair rents in District of Columbia.

Oct. 23–24. Senate committee on foreign relations adopts a **substitute series of** (a preliminary and 15 other) **reservations** to treaty, 5 of which cover the original 4. Preliminary one requires the acceptance of the reservations by the principal powers before the American ratification becomes effective. Other new ones reserve liberty of action on Shantung, restrict Reparation Commission, announce freedom to increase armament in case of need, require participation of Congress and Senate in provisions for the League or appointments under it, and reserve the national honor and vital interests of United States from consideration by the League.

Oct. 28. **Volstead Act,** to enforce prohibition under war act and new constitutional amendment, declares all liquors with more than half of one per cent alcohol to be intoxicating. Passed over veto.

1919 (*continued*).

Oct. 29–Nov. 29. First meeting, at Washington of International Labor Conference under the Treaty of Versailles. United States only unofficially represented.

Oct. 31. Concurrent resolution of Congress pledging support to the administration in the use of constitutional means necessary to meet present industrial emergency (coal strike).

Nov. 1. **Strike** of 600,000 **soft-coal miners,** demanding a 6-hour day, a 5-day week, and 60% increase in wages. Strike violates contracts. Wilson's attempt to prevent it fails, so also does his denunciation. Temporary Federal injunction, issued October 31, disregarded. November 8, injunction upheld by Federal court; strike violates Fuel Control Act. Strike called off November 12, but order not obeyed in many cases. November 14, **joint conference** of miners and owners at Washington. November 19, Fuel Administrator Garfield orders resumption of work. Conference deadlocked. Wilson proposes a raise of 14% to be absorbed by employers with no raise in price of coal and a commission to consider and readjust wages and prices. Accepted, December 10. **Garfield resigns** because of transfer to the commission of duties belonging to the Fuel Administrator.

Nov. 6. **Senate rejects** the last of the **amendments** proposed to the peace treaty.

Nov. 7. Senate begins **voting on reservations** to peace treaty. Preliminary one requiring acceptance of reservations by the other powers carried by 48 to 40. November 13, reservation on Article X. adopted by 46 to 33. November 15, under closure all the others **adopted** except those on German colonies and national honor, which are rejected November 17.

Nov. 10. House, by 311 to 1, unseats Berger, Socialist representative convicted under the Espionage Act. [ton and New York.]

Nov. 10–22. Prince of Wales visits Washing-

Nov. 11. Armistice parade of American Legion at Centralia, Wash., fired upon by I. W. W. men; 51 of the radicals arrested, one lynched.

Nov. 19. **Senate refuses to ratify peace treaty** with reservations by vote of 39 to 55 (41 to 51 on reconsideration) and by 38 to 53 without reservations. Wilson has informed the Democratic senators that the reservations are tantamount to nullification. Knox concurrent resolution that peace exists with Germany introduced in Senate. Special session of Congress adjourns.

Nov. 24. Organization at Chicago of a new National Labor party, radical in platform and hoping for union with the Socialists, Non-Partisan League, and Committee of 48.

Dec. 1. Congress meets in regular session. **Wilson's message,** next day, advocates a budget, protection of war-developed dye and chemical industries, simplification of taxation, power to combat radicalism, and Federal license of all interstate commerce corporations. No remedy for industrial unrest that does not recognize right of collective bargaining.

Second Industrial Conference meets; general body rather than one of groups. December 28, conference denies the right of government employees or others to interfere with continuous operation of government functions or to affiliate with any organization using strike as a weapon.

Dec. 10–12. Conference of radicals held at St. Louis at call of **Committee of 48** with view of formation of new party, based on public ownership of transportation, public utilities, and natural resources; measures against idle land; equal rights irrespective of sex or color; unrestricted civil rights; and rights of labor.

Dec. 16. J. W. Anderson becomes secretary of commerce, Redfield having resigned.

Dec. 18. Attorney-General Palmer announces that the five great packing companies (**beef trust**) have agreed to retire from all business except meat packing and dairy products.

Dec. 19. Berger reëlected to Congress.

Dec. 22. 249 **alien anarchists** from all over the country, including Emma Goldman and Berkman **deported;** shipped to Soviet Russia in army transport *Buford* ("Soviet Ark").

Dec. 23. Publication of a letter by Admiral **Sims,** refusing a Distinguished Service Medal, begins a long **controversy** between him and Secretary Daniels over **administration of the navy** during the war, including a congressional investigation.

Dec. 24. Act for financing foreign trade. Because of great debt of foreign nations to United States and their active demand for American products purchased largely on credit, with great disturbance of exchange, act authorizes Federal incorporation of companies to engage in foreign trade or financing of it, under supervision of Federal Reserve Board.

1919 (*continued*).

General conditions in 1919: The year is chiefly one of **reconstruction,** accomplished or attempted. Most notable accomplishment is the demobilization of the war army and the return of the navy to a peace basis. Reorganization of the **army,** with the question of compulsory service, left for future solution. Proposed new three-year naval construction plan dropped. High cost of living and attraction of highly-paid civil employment seriously affects the personnel of both services. Agitation for increased pay carries over into 1920.

Civil reconstruction proves to be an unexpectedly **difficult** task. Some of the war agencies quickly dissolved; others have to be retained because of industrial unrest and continuous advance in prices. Food administration, censorship, War Industries Board, Price Fixing Committee, War Labor Board, and War Trade Board **go out of existence,** though in some cases functions continued by other agencies; cables, telegraphs, and telephones returned to their owners; Federal employment service greatly contracted. Railroad Administration, Alien Property Custodian, Fuel Administration, Shipping Board, Grain Corporation, War Finance Corporation, and Sugar Equalization Board **continue;** while the Council of National Defense remains as a reconstruction agency. Operations of the **Grain** Corporation greatly lessened in importance by the fact that crop conditions and foreign demand for wheat nullify the need of the government price guarantee. Because of the **sugar** shortage (rationing renewed) and advance in price, a special act continues the operation of the Sugar Board through 1920. War-time fair-price committees revived. Extralegal **war powers** of the president **continue** during the year.

Labor the greatest of the reconstruction problems. Active demand for laborers, high cost of living, radical propaganda, evident sympathy of the president with advanced labor ideals, class disregard of the rights of the general public, belief in profiteering by manufacturers and dealers, unrest in Europe — these influence the demands of labor organizations on their employers, lead to strikes, and also to a radical labor legislative program, including continuation of war-time government operations of industry and transportation. An aftermath of the war is an alarming decrease in agricultural laborers.

Future of **American shipping,** built up and operated by the Federal government during the war, studied, but not solved. Construction continues under the Shipping Board; between June, 1914, and June, 1919, American seagoing tonnage increases from 2,000,000 to almost 10,000,000.

In **politics** there is a growing **estrangement** between the Democratic **president** and the Republican **Congress.** Congress resents being ignored in the determination of problems of peace and of reconstruction, while the president shows intolerance of criticism and a determination to carry out his own plans with all the same fixity of purpose as during the war. His long-continued illness, while not relieved of the responsibilities of his office, complicates the situation. The adoption by the States of the prohibition amendment and the submission to them of the female suffrage amendment are important political events. Several new parties, all radically inclined, proposed. Influence of the approaching presidential election felt; antagonism of the president and Senate on the League of Nations suggests it as a prominent issue of the campaign.

The country, in spite of its problems, shows wide **prosperity** (the **extravagance** which attends this is a disquieting phase of the general unrest.

1920. *January.* **Fourteenth census** taken at the beginning of the year instead of in June. Population approximately 105,700,000 in the continental area (not including territories and dependencies). Several thousand more alien radicals rounded up and kept in detention pending deportation or other proceedings. No more deportation up to July.

Series of **bipartisan conferences** by leading senators on the treaty problem; Article X. and protection of Monroe Doctrine prove obstacle to any agreement.

Jan. 5. Supreme Court by 5 to 4 upholds war-time prohibition act; recognizes no reservation of State police powers which is superior to a constitutional amendment.

Jan. 9. Last few men of the Expeditionary Forces withdrawn from France; American troops remain in occupation on the Rhine. On March 28 this force consists of 726 officers and 16,756 men.

Jan. 10. House by 330 to 6 a second time declares Berger not entitled to a seat. Governor of Wisconsin declines to call another special election.

Jan. 17. Eighteenth (**prohibition**) Amendment **goes into operation.**

Jan. 24. **Kansas** Act establishing a **Court of Industrial Relations** to exercise State supervision for the purpose of public peace and health and prevention of "industrial strife, disorder, and waste," over manufacture of food products and clothing, mining or production of fuel, transportation, and public utilities. Strikes which affect public utilities are declared illegal.

Jan. 24. Secretary of Treasury Glass opposes further loans to Europe.

Jan. 31. Letter of Viscount Grey, formerly British minister for foreign affairs and later ambassador to United States, made public in which he upholds proposed reservations to the treaty.

February. **Foreign exchange** suffers an **unprecedented decline;** pound sterling falls to $3.19 (normal exchange value, about $4.86), francs 15.15 to the dollar (normally 5.18), lire 18.82 to the dollar (normally same as the franc), and the German mark (normally worth about 24 cents) is worth less than a cent in gold value. Canadian dollar also affected. [Siberia.

Feb. 1. Withdrawal of American troops from

Feb. 2. Secretary of Agriculture **Houston** becomes **secretary of the treasury** in succession to Glass, resigned. E. T. **Meredith** becomes secretary of **agriculture.**

Feb. 3. **Peace treaty reconsidered** in Senate.

Feb. 7. Revised **casualty list** of the A.E.F. gives 77,118 deaths, 221,050 wounded, and 4,432 prisoners during the war.

Feb. 13. Wilson forces the **resignation** of Secretary of State **Lansing** for usurping authority during the president's illness. Bainbridge Colby succeeds.

Feb. 28. **Esch-Cummins Transportation Act** for return of railroads to private owners authorizes loans to railroads ("revolving fund") during next two years up to $300,000,000; guarantees 5½% dividend for same period; creates a Railroad Labor Board to which all labor disputes must be presented before a strike takes place (proposed prohibition of strikes eliminated from bill); rates and wages not to be reduced for six months; powers of Interstate Commerce Commission greatly extended. Government operation has caused a loss of over $600,000,000. Employees try to force a raise before lines are returned, and shopmen strike for that purpose, February 17, unavailingly.

March 1. All **railroads** and systems of transportation **returned** to owners.

Secretary of the Interior Lane resigns; succeeded by J. B. Payne.

Supreme Court by 4 to 3 declares that the **Steel Trust does not violate antitrust laws.**

March 8. Supreme Court decides that stock dividends are not taxable as income.

March 11. Majority of commission on coal miners' wages recommends 27% increase and no change in hours; minority recommends 35% and 7-hour day. Consumers must pay for increase over 14%.

March 19. Senate **again rejects peace treaty,** vote of 57 to 37 not being the required two thirds. Previous to this a further reservation adopted of sympathy for the **Irish** people's **aspirations** for a "government of their own choice"; another refusing to be bound by decisions of the League when any country and its dominions has more than one vote.

March 20. Senator Newberry of Michigan convicted with others of violating Federal corrupt practices act limiting campaign expenses.

TERRITORIAL GROWTH OF THE
UNITED STATES
Date of ratification of the Constitution shown thus: . . . 1788
Date of admission of State into the Union shown thus: . . . 1818
Title to this territory is based upon
1. Discovery and Exploration, 1792-1805
2. Contiguity to Louisiana Purchase, 1803
3. Prior Settlement, 1811
4. Treaty with Spain, 1819
5. Treaty with Great Britian, 1846
OREGON COUNTRY
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
LOUISIANA
Acquired by purchase from France, 1803 for 15 Million Dollars
MEXICAN CESSION 1848
Ceded to the United States after the Mexican War
Indemnity to Mexico, 15 Million Dollars
CEDED BY TEXAS 1850 for 10 Million Dollars
Mexican Cession of 1853, or Gadsden Purchase 10 Million Dollars
TEXAS ANNEXATION 1845
ORIGINAL AREA OF THE UNITED STATES 1783
After their Cessions to the U.S.
Ceded by Massachusetts, 1785
Ceded by Connecticut, 1786-1800
Ceded by Virginia,
Ceded by North Carolina, 1790
Ceded by South Carolina, 1787
Ceded by Georgia, 1802
Annexed by U.S. 1812
Ceded by Spain 1819
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Scale of English Miles
COPYRIGHT, 1909, BY G. & C. MERRIAM COMPANY, SPRINGFIELD, MASS
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS, BUFFALO, N. Y.
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Ceded by Spain 1898
RUSSIAN CESSION 1867
Purchased for 7,200,000 Dollars
ALASKA
Scale of Miles
PORTO RICO
Ceded by Spain, 1898
Panama Canal Zone granted to U. S. 1903
GUAM
Ceded by Spain, 1898
WAKE I.
Annexed 1899
MIDWAY I.
HAWAII
Annexed 1898
SAMOA,
Acquired 1900

THE STATES OF THE UNION

IN THE ORDER OF ADMISSION.*

DELAWARE (1).

Historical Outline.

DELAWARE, popularly called the "**Diamond State**" and the "**Blue Hen State,**" was settled by the Swedes in 1638, but conquered by the Dutch in 1655 and made part of New Netherland. In 1664 the English obtained control, and in 1682 Delaware became a part of the territory granted to William Penn. In 1703 the counties comprising the present State were given a separate legislative assembly, and in 1710 a separate executive council, but retained a common governor with Pennsylvania until 1776. Although preëminently a rural district, with little trade and less manufacturing, Delaware joined with the other colonies in resistance to Great Britain, and in 1765 entered into the nonimportation agreement, sent delegates to the Continental Congress, ratified the Articles of Confederation in 1779, and was the **first State to ratify the Constitution,** December 7, 1787.

Delaware has had four State constitutions, none of which have been submitted to the people for ratification but all promulgated by constitutional conventions. The present **constitution** (1897) provides for a governor elected for four years, a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate of 17 elected for four years and a House of Representatives of 35 elected for two years. The Federalist party and its successor, the Whig party, controlled Delaware until 1852, then the Democrats gained control until 1896, with the exception of 1872 when the State went for Grant. Since 1896 the presidential vote has been Republican with the exception of 1912, when it was Progressive.

Delaware is **chiefly an agricultural State,** seven eighths of the land being in farms. Corn and wheat are the chief crops, but peaches and other small fruits are very important. Delaware ranks second in the quantity of tomatoes packed. The chief manufactured products are leather goods (the output of which equals all the other manufactures combined), iron and steel work, and in recent years explosives. The State has two normal schools, agricultural and mechanical colleges at Newark, and Delaware College, founded in 1834. The **common schools** are free, and attendance is compulsory.

Chronology.

1638. *April.* **Swedish settlements** (New Sweden) begin on Delaware River.
1655. *October.* **Dutch conquer** New Sweden.
1664. **English conquer** Dutch.
1682. *Aug. 24.* Lower counties on the Delaware **deeded** by York **to** William **Penn.**
Dec. 7. United to Pennsylvania.
1703. Becomes a **separate colony** under Penn proprietary; same governor as Pennsylvania.
1776. *Aug. 27–Sept. 10.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution,** not submitted to people, proclaimed September 21.
1787. *Dec. 7.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1791. *Nov. 29.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns June 12, 1792. New constitution proclaimed without submission to people.
1831. *Nov. 8–Dec. 2.* Third constitutional convention. Amended constitution put in operation without submission to people.
1865. *Dec. 18.* **Slavery abolished** by Federal Thirteenth Amendment.
1896. *Dec. 1.* Constitutional convention meets. Adjourned June 4, 1897. New constitution, not submitted to people, effective June 10, 1897.

PENNSYLVANIA (2).

Historical Outline.

PENNSYLVANIA, the "**Keystone State,**" so called from its geographical position in the center of the thirteen original States on the Atlantic seaboard, was **founded** as a colony **by William Penn** in 1681, under a proprietary charter by which the government and the land were vested in the founder. To attract settlers, Penn, himself a Quaker, appealed especially to that sect and other persecuted sects throughout England and Europe, promising them **toleration in religion,** a liberal frame of government, and generous land grants. His policy was successful, and Pennsylvania soon became one of the most populous colonies. From an early time it attracted a large non-English immigration. The **first settlers** were **English Quakers,** but they were soon followed by Welsh, Germans, and Scotch-Irish.

The political life of the colony was turbulent. Although the Quakers were in the minority, Penn appointed Quakers as governors, and the western counties felt that they had not adequate representation, while his land policy aroused opposition. In the treatment of the Indians the Quakers were very successful, but their immunity from Indian troubles and their hatred of all war caused them to refuse aid to other colonies who were less fortunate.

Philadelphia was the seat of the **Continental Congresses** of 1775 and 1776 and the **Constitutional Convention** of 1787. Pennsylvania was the second State to ratify the Constitution and exercised great influence in the early history of the country through its leaders, especially Benjamin Franklin, John Dickinson, Robert Morris, Thomas Mifflin, and, later, Albert Gallatin. One president, Buchanan, was a Pennsylvanian.

During the Revolution the battles of **Brandywine** and **Germantown** were fought in Pennsylvania, and Philadelphia was occupied by the British. In the Civil War the great struggle at **Gettysburg** was the only action of importance on Pennsylvania soil.

The first **constitution** of Pennsylvania, framed in 1776, was unique in that it provided for an executive council, a single-chambered legislature, and a council of censors, who were to see that the constitution was observed and that needed amendments were proposed. In the second constitution (1790) these peculiarities disappeared, and a governor with large appointing powers was established. The demand for a more democratic form of government produced the third constitution in 1838, and the present one was adopted in 1873. The governor serves for four years and appoints the secretary of the commonwealth, the attorney-general, and the superintendent of instruction; he also has the right to veto items in appropriation bills. The legislature, holding biennial sessions, consists of a Senate of 50, chosen for four years; and a House of Representatives of 207, chosen for two years. Payment of a State or county tax is required for voting.

Politically, as well as **geographically,** Pennsylvania was for many years **the "Keystone State."** Beginning in 1797 Pennsylvania cast its electoral vote for the Jeffersonian party and its successor, the Democratic party, until 1860, with the exception of 1840, when it supported the Whig candidate, Harrison. Since 1860 it has been consistently Republican with the exception of 1912 when it supported Roosevelt and the Progressive party. In State politics Pennsylvania was generally Democratic until the Civil War; since then it has been Republican with but two exceptions. The Republican party is highly organized and obtains enormous pluralities — over 500,000 for Roosevelt in 1904. This continued Republican triumph and successful organization has been variously explained as due to the benefits of the tariff to Pennsylvania's industries; to the easily controlled foreign vote; to the strong political organizations in the large cities which tend to neutralize independent voting; and to the apathy of certain religious sects.

The **University of Pennsylvania,** founded in 1740, was the earliest institution of learning in the United States to assume the title of university. Other notable institutions are the Pennsylvania State College; Temple University (Philadelphia), the universities of Pittsburgh, Lehigh, Duquesne, and Bucknell; Dickinson, Franklin and Marshall, Allegheny, Lafayette, Haverford, Swarthmore, Washington and Jefferson, Grove City, St. Vincent, Beaver, Pennsylvania, and Bryn Mawr (for women) colleges; the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Drexel Institute, and Girard College as technical schools.

Once the greatest agricultural colony, and still a rich farming State, Pennsylvania has become the **leading State** in the production of coal, pig iron, and cement, and second only to W. Va. in natural gas. Its most important industries as reported in 1910 are steel and rolling mills, with products of $500,000,000; textiles, $267,000,000; foundry and machine work, $210,000,000; blast furnaces, $168,000,000.

Chronology.

1638. *April.* **Swedish settlements** (New Sweden) on the Delaware begin.
1655. *September.* **Dutch conquer** New Sweden.
1664. **English conquer** Dutch settlements on the Delaware.
1681. *March 4.* Royal proprietary **charter** of Pennsylvania granted to William Penn. [others].
1682. **English settlement** begins (Quakers and
1701. New plan of government ("Charter of Privileges") granted to the colony by Penn.
1776. *July 15–Sept. 28.* First constitutional convention in the United States chosen solely to frame an instrument of government. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1787. *Dec. 12.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1789. *Nov. 24.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns September 2, 1790. New constitution proclaimed without popular vote.
1837. *May 2.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns February 22, 1838. New constitution ratified by people.
1872. *Nov. 12.* Fourth constitutional convention meets. Adjourns November 3, 1873. New constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1874.

NEW JERSEY (3).

Historical Outline.

NEW JERSEY was **first settled** by the Dutch in the northeastern part and by the Swedes along the Delaware River. In 1655 Peter Stuyvesant set up Dutch authority over the whole region, but in 1664 it was **surrendered to the English.** Charles II. granted it along with New York to his brother James, Duke of York, who in turn gave it to two of his friends as a proprietary province. After various changes, including division into East Jersey and West Jersey, it came into the hands of William Penn and his associates who, in 1702, surrendered the government to the British administration. **During the Revolution** New Jersey was the scene of Washington's battles of Trenton, Princeton, and Monmouth.

The first **constitution** (1776) established the ordinary type of State government, except that the governor was elected by joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature, and that the suffrage clause was later supposed to give women the right to vote. The present constitution (1844) gave to the governor unusual executive authority, through his power to appoint the secretary of state, attorney-general, superintendent of public instruction, chancellor, chief justice, supreme court, circuit, inferior, and district judges, as well as the usual administrative officers.

New Jersey has had a **varied party history.** At first it was strongly Federalist, then Jeffersonian Republican in 1804, Republican 1816 to 1828, Democratic in 1832, and Whig until 1852; from that time Democratic until 1860, when it divided its vote between Lincoln and Douglas. From 1864 to 1896 it was Democratic, except in 1872; Republican until 1912, when it was Progressive. Its public men include General George B. McClellan and President Woodrow Wilson.

Agriculture, market gardening, and fruit raising are important pursuits. The **leading industries** are the manufacture of textiles, silk, cotton goods, hosiery, petroleum products, foundry and machine work, and chemicals, the smelting of copper and silver, and, more recently, shipbuilding.

The leading institution of learning is **Princeton University,** founded in 1746. Rutgers College (1766) is the principal seminary of the Dutch Reformed Church and Stevens Institute of Technology, the leading scientific school.

Chronology.

1664. *March 12.* Region, held by the Dutch and already having settlements, included in grant to Duke of York.
June 24. New Jersey **granted** to Berkeley and Carteret by York. Later **divided.**
1688. *April 7.* **Included** in Dominion of **New England** until 1689.
1702. Reunited as a **royal province.**
1776. *May 26–July 2.* First constitutional convention, **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1787. *Dec. 18.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1844. *May 14–June 29.* Second constitutional convention, new constitution, adopted by people, in force September 2.

GEORGIA (4).

Historical Outline.

GEORGIA, the "**Empire State of the South,**" called also, sometimes, the "**Cracker State,**" was in the disputed belt between English Virginia and Spanish Florida, and was the last of the original thirteen colonies to be founded. The first settlers were sent out in 1733 as a result of a scheme, devised by **James Oglethorpe,** to relieve English debtors.

* The numbers in parentheses after the names of the States indicate the **order** in which the **States joined the Union;** for the original thirteen colonies, this means the order in which they ratified the Federal Constitution. — See tables pages 220 and 221 where the **population** and **area** of each State are also shown.

Within a few years, bands of Salzburgers, Highlanders, Swiss, Moravians, and new recruits from England made other settlements. In 1734 Oglethorpe made a second visit to the colony, bringing Charles Wesley as his secretary, and John Wesley as a missionary to the Indians. Somewhat later George Whitefield made a visit to the colony. After this the government of the colony was placed in the hands of trustees, who became unpopular for restricting land tenure, prohibiting slave labor and liquor, and forcing the cultivation of silk, flax, and hemp. In 1754 the colony was surrendered to the crown and governed like other royal provinces. Under this management the colony prospered and fulfilled one of its purposes, to serve as a buffer between the Spanish in Florida and the more thickly settled colonies in Carolina.

With the outbreak of the Revolution, Georgia was involved in domestic strife and nowhere was the conflict between the loyalists and patriots more bitter. In 1778 the British succeeded in capturing Savannah, which they used as a base of operations throughout most of the war. On the news of the Declaration of Independence, a convention framed and ratified the first State **constitution;** but there was little opportunity to test it, as the arrival of the British forces threw the State into confusion. Georgia was the fourth State to ratify the Constitution (January 2, 1788) and framed the second of her seven constitutions in 1789.

Georgia showed a very independent spirit with respect to the western lands (ceded in 1802); and to the Creek and Cherokee Indian lands. The most eminent son of Georgia was Alexander H. Stephens, vice president of the Confederacy. Although the Whig party was strong, Georgia ratified the ordinance of secession, January 19, 1861, and was the scene of heavy fighting; the battle of **Chickamauga** (1863), the campaign between Chattanooga and Atlanta (1864), and Sherman's " March to the Sea " (1864) all took place on her soil.

During the Reconstruction period Georgia suffered both from carpetbaggers and from the misdirected zeal of her own citizens. Even after military government had been once abolished, Congress felt obliged to restore it in order to protect the Negroes, and Georgia was not finally readmitted to the Union until July 15, 1870, the **last of the Confederate States to be restored.** During this period three constitutions were framed and experimented with. In the present **constitution,** adopted in 1877, representation is based in part upon counties, which sometimes enables the minority to control.

Georgia has always been an **agricultural State,** although possessing great resources of lumber. Until recent years cotton has outranked the other agricultural products; but in 1918, the value of the cereal crops — corn, oats, and wheat — exceeded that of cotton. After 1880 manufacturing of cotton goods rapidly developed, and the output of this industry exceeds all others, lumber coming next; the manufacture of cottonseed oil, oil cake, and fertilizers is also important.

Among the institutions of **higher learning** are the **University of Georgia,** a State institution; Emory University; Georgia School of Technology; the North Georgia Agricultural College, Agnes Scott, Brenau, Wesleyan Female, and Piedmont colleges; and Atlanta University and Morehouse College for Negroes.

Chronology.

1732. *June 9.* Proprietary **charter** of Georgia; boundaries extend to Pacific Ocean.
1733. *Feb. 12.* **Settlement** begins at Savannah.
1751. Charter surrendered. **Royal province.**
1776. *Oct. 1.* First constitutional convention. Adjourns February 5, 1777, **constitution** going into force without submission to people.
1788. *Jan. 2.* Federal Constitution ratified.
Nov. 4. Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns May 6, 1789. New constitution not submitted to people.
1795. *May.* Third constitutional convention. Amendments not submitted to people; in force October 5.
1798. *May 8–30.* Fourth constitutional convention. New constitution not submitted to people; in force October 1.
1802. *April 24.* Western claims relinquished.
1833. *May 6–15.* Fifth constitutional convention to equalize representation only. People reject results.
1839. *May 6–16.* Sixth constitutional convention for same purpose. Ratified by people.
1861. *Jan. 16–March 23.* Seventh constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession,** Jan. 19. Revised constitution ratified by people, July 2.
1865. *Oct. 25–Nov. 8.* Sixth constitutional convention; secession repealed October 30; **slavery abolished.** New constitution not submitted to people.
1867. *Dec. 9.* Seventh (Reconstruction) constitutional convention meets. Adjourns March 11, 1868. New constitution ratified by people.
1870. *July 15.* **Readmitted** to Union.
1877. *July 11–Aug. 25.* Eighth constitutional convention. **New constitution,** ratified by people, in force December 21.

CONNECTICUT (5).

Historical Outline.

Connecticut has various nicknames: **"Nutmeg State," "Land of Steady Habits," "Blue Law State,"** and **"Freestone State."** The river from which the State takes its name was discovered by Adrian Block in 1614, and a small trading post was soon established by the Dutch on the site of Hartford. Traders also came from Plymouth, Massachusetts. In 1636 the first permanent settlements were begun by colonists from Massachusetts, who founded the towns of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield and framed the **first popular constitution** made in America.

The colony of **New Haven** was founded in 1638 on a grant of Lord Saye and Sele by a group of wealthy settlers who desired to found a commonwealth after a Biblical pattern. In 1662 Charles II. granted a charter to **John Winthrop** and his associates for the whole region occupied by both colonies, including the settlements already made. This charter was so liberal and allowed so much self-government and gave England so few opportunities to interfere that it was continued as the first State constitution until 1818. In 1686 Sir Edmund Andros became governor of all New England and took over the government of Connecticut, but failed to obtain the original **charter,** which, according to tradition, was hidden in an oak tree. (See Charter Oak, in *Dict.*)

During the Revolution, Connecticut suffered comparatively little, except in an attack on Groton; but took an active part, furnishing 30,000 troops and, also, Jonathan Trumbull, one of Washington's most trusted advisers, believed to be the original " Brother Jonathan."

In framing the Constitution of the United States, Connecticut was ably represented on the conservative side, particularly by Roger Sherman, who successfully advocated the equal representation of the States in the Senate. During the War of 1812 Connecticut, in common with all New England, was in opposition, and a convention was held at Hartford from Dec. 15, 1814, to Jan. 5, 1815, to formulate plans of possible resistance. (See Hartford Convention, in the *Dictionary.*)

By the Charter of 1662 Connecticut obtained the right to a strip of land extending to the Pacific Ocean. When this impossible claim to a tract which cut straight across Pennsylvania was released, Connecticut retained a tract along Lake Erie called the **Western Reserve** and the Fire Lands. From the sale of these lands Connecticut realized a large sum, which was appropriated for the **common school system,** one of the earliest and most progressive in the period. At present there are more than a thousand public elementary schools, 75 high schools, 4 normal schools, 15 model schools, and the Connecticut Agricultural College. The most famous educational institution in Connecticut is **Yale University,** founded in 1701. Other private institutions of higher learning are Wesleyan University, Trinity College, and the Connecticut College for Women.

Connecticut has been a doubtful State **in politics.** In State politics it was Federalist until 1817, when it began to alternate at almost every election until 1896. Since 1896 it has been Republican, except in 1910 and 1912. In national politics it has been Federalist, Republican, or Whig, with two exceptions until 1873, when it became Democratic until 1896, with the exception of 1884; since 1896 it has been Republican, with the exception of 1912.

The **constitution** of Connecticut, adopted in 1818, has been amended thirty-five times, but still retains many of the old characteristics of the colonial charter. The legislature consists of a House of Representatives of 258 members, and a Senate of 36. Since each town under 5,000 is entitled to send one representative, and no town sends more than two, the small communities, containing a minority of the population, may outvote the majority living in the cities. Every effort to change this system has been unavailing. The governor and legislature are elected biennially.

Although Connecticut ranks thirty-first of the States in population, it ranks twelfth in **manufactured products.** The proximity of New York, the excellent opportunities for water transportation through Long Island Sound and the great tidal rivers, together with good railroad facilities, all combined with the traditional Yankee ingenuity, gave Connecticut a start which it has never relinquished. Manufacturing of all sorts, from small notions to large machinery, is carried on. In recent years the munition plants at Bridgeport and elsewhere have been greatly expanded. Hartford is the national center for the **life-insurance** business. The soil of Connecticut is fertile and the climate suitable for the production of tobacco. In addition, forest products, fruits, nuts, and garden truck are important. The fisheries, particularly of oysters, are very profitable.

Chronology.

1635–1636. **Settlement** begins on Connecticut River.
1638. *April 26.* **New Haven** Colony founded.
1639. Fundamental Orders framed by delegates of the new colony of Connecticut. First American constitution put into effect by a popular assembly.
1643. *May 19.* New England Confederation formed. Lasts 41 years.
1662. *April 20.* **Royal charter** to Connecticut includes New Haven Colony; boundaries extend to the Pacific.
1686. Included in the Dominion of New England; charter in abeyance.
1689. Charter resumed.
1776. Charter adapted to independent statehood.
1786. *Sept. 14.* **Western claims,** except the Western Reserve, relinquished.
1788. *Jan. 9.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1800. Jurisdiction over Western Reserve relinquished; becomes part of Ohio in 1802.
1818. *Aug. 26–Sept. 16.* Constitutional convention. **Constitution** approved by people; in force October 12.

MASSACHUSETTS (6).

Historical Outline.

Massachusetts, the **" Bay State "** or **" Old Bay State,"** was visited possibly by Northmen and certainly by Verrazano. Capt. John Smith gave it the general name of New England.

The first settlement to be made within the limits of Massachusetts was made by Bartholomew Gosnold in 1602 on one of the Elizabeth Islands. The **first important colony** was settled by the **Pilgrims** (1620), a little band of religious exiles, who planted and successfully maintained the colony of Plymouth until, after two generations, it was absorbed in the larger province of Massachusetts Bay. This later settlement owed its foundation to the Massachusetts Bay Company, under the control of John Winthrop and his associates, who were Puritans in religion, but people of wealth and importance. The " great emigration," as their coming was called, began in 1629 and continued for about ten years, at the end of which period Massachusetts approached Virginia in population.

From 1629 until 1684 the government of the colony was vested in the Governor, Assistants, and Freemen of the **Massachusetts Bay Company;** and the right to vote and take part in the government of the colony was acquired only by election to membership in the company of members of the **Congregational Church.** Hence the early settlers and their descendants were able to retain their influence and perpetuate the Puritan doctrines of church and state.

In 1684, after a long struggle, the **charter** of the company was vacated by legal proceedings in England, and Massachusetts and the other New England colonies were for a short time united under the rule of Sir Edmund Andros, a governor appointed by the crown.

After the fall of the Stuarts in England, Massachusetts received the second or provincial **charter** (1691), under which it lived until the Revolution. Under this the right to vote was based on a property qualification, with no restriction as to religious belief. The governor was appointed by the crown; the House of Representatives was elected by the people, according to towns; and the **General Court** — as the legislature was, and is still, called — chose the upper house, or Council. Thus the colonists of Massachusetts were able to exercise more influence, and more frequently to obtain their desires, than those of the other royal provinces. The colonists early developed great political capacity and learned the art of self-government.

During the colonial period, Massachusetts suffered from **Indian wars,** both King Philip's War (1675–76) and the French and Indian wars of the early eighteenth century. Frequent raids were made overland from Canada; and counter expeditions were fitted out by the colony with the aid of England against Montreal and the French possessions in Nova Scotia. Port Royal (Annapolis) was captured in 1690, but returned by the Treaty of Ryswick (Rijswijk); it was again captured by an expedition from England (1710).

The large commerce of Massachusetts and the independent and self-reliant spirit which developed in the colony marked it out for discipline by the king. **Troops were sent to Boston** in 1768, but the street fight between soldiers and civilians in 1770 and the Boston Tea Party of 1773 brought down the wrath of the British government. In 1774 Acts of Parliament closed the port of Boston to commerce, and the charter was altered to secure the appointment of the Council and judges. General Gage was appointed governor as well as commander in chief. The inevitable clash between the people and the royal troops came in April, 1775. The **British evacuated Boston** the next year, and from that time Massachusetts was free from serious invasion.

In 1780 the first State **constitution,** framed by a special convention and then submitted to popular vote, was provided for Massachusetts. The constitution has been frequently amended and was al-

tered and rearranged by a constitntional convention of 1917–19. Massachusetts has always been a forward State in legislation and now has a responsive governmental system with the popular initiative and referendum.

During the "Critical Period" of the Confederation, Massachusetts was in bad condition. Trade suffered grievously, the treasury was empty, taxes were high, and the debtor class was demanding paper money for relief. In 1786–87 occurred an armed uprising, known from the name of its leader as **Shays's Rebellion.** Such disturbances made the conservatives and merchants anxious to adopt the Federal **Constitution** of 1787; but the Antifederalists were strong enough to prevent ratification unless the amendments they proposed were added with an urgent recommendation. This proved a happy expedient and was followed by other pivotal States, and thus made ultimate ratification possible.

In national **politics** Massachusetts voted for Jefferson in 1804, Monroe in 1820, and Wilson in 1912; in all other presidential elections it has supported the candidates of the Federalist, Whig, or Republican parties. In State elections until 1910 it was generally Republican, but since that time it may be classed as a doubtful State. Among the **great men** of Massachusetts have been James Otis, Samuel Adams, President John Adams, his son, President John Qnincy Adams, and Daniel Webster.

The State has been the birthplace or abiding place of many men and women of letters — Emerson, Hawthorne, Lowell, Longfellow, Bancroft, Whittier, and others.

In education Massachusetts was a pioneer in the establishment of both common **schools and colleges.** In 1635 free schools were established; in 1636 **Harvard College** was founded; in 1647 every town having fifty families was obliged to have a free school. Its present school system is based upon the town or city as the unit, althongh the State Board of Education has supervisory powers and grants aid from the State school fnnd to small towns. A system of vocational schools as well as high schools is established. Although Massachusetts has no State university, the State supports an agricultural college (Massachusetts Agricultural College) and ten normal schools, and there are altogether more than twenty institutions of higher learning, academic and scientific, for men and women. Among them may be mentioned Harvard, Boston, and Clark universities; Williams, Amherst, Holy Cross, Tufts, Boston, and Clark colleges; Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, International Y. M. C. A College (Springfield); and Mount Holyoke, Wellesley, Smith, Radcliffe, and Simmons colleges for women. There are also numerous professional schools.

Massachnsetts is the **second State in density of population:** nearly 80 per cent of its population lives in 36 cities, mostly grouped about Boston. These cities are the centers of most varied manufacturing establishments, and Massachusetts ranks **fourth in the value of its manufactured products.** In the production of boots, shoes, and cotton goods it exceeds any other State. Other important products are foundry and machine-shop prodncts, electrical machinery, paper, and wood pulp. The investment in **fisheries** exceeds that of any other State; and from colonial times the cod, haddock, and mackerel fisheries have been important. The chief mineral prodncts are granite and trap rock. Agriculture is relatively unimportant, hay and forage producing a third of the value and vegetables one quarter

Chronology.

1620. *November.* Mayflower compact; agreement of Pilgrims signed on board *Mayflower* (signed by 41 persons, Nov. 11 [21 N.S.]) to act together as a community.

December. First **settlement at Plymouth.** Plymouth Colony founded.

1629. *March 4.* Royal **charter** for Massachusetts Bay Company; boundaries extend to the Pacific.

1630. Colony organized in new settlement. **"General Court"** of the Company soon becomes a representative legislature.

1643. *May 19.* New England Confederation formed. Lasts 41 years.

1654. Refusal of Massachusetts to be bound by a vote of the Confederation.

1684. *Oct. 23.* Charter annulled.

1686. Included in Dominion of New England.

1691. *Oct. 7.* **Second** royal **charter,** including Plymouth and Maine.

1774. *May 20.* Act of Parliament virtually abrogates charter.

1775. *July 28.* Government resumed by action of General Court, nominally under charter, actually as a revolutionary body.

1777. *June 17.* General Court sits as a constitutional convention; February 28, 1778, submits draft to people, who reject it.

1779. *Sept. 1.* Constitutional convention meets. Adjourns September 7, 1780, submitting its work to the people, who ratify it. First case in history of a constitution framed by a body chosen solely for the purpose, and ratified by popular vote.

1785. *April 19.* Western claims relinquished to the United States. [title retained.]

1786. Claims to western New York relinquished;

1788. *Feb. 6.* Federal Constitution ratified.

1820. Maine set up as a separate State.

Nov. 15. Second constitntional convention. Adjourns January 9, 1821. Amendments submitted, adopted by people.

1853. *May 4–Aug. 1.* Third constitutional convention. Amendments rejected by people.

1917. *June 6.* Fonrth constitutional convention assembles. Final adjournment August 13, 1919. Amendments submitted, adopted by people; constitution rearranged.

MARYLAND (7).

Historical Outline.

Maryland, known as the **"Old Line State,"** was coasted by early Spanish, French, Dutch, and English explorers. It owed its foundation to the colonizing zeal of Sir George Calvert, first **Lord Baltimore,** a Catholic gentleman of the reign of James I., and his son Cecil, to whom the king issued a proprietary charter giving both territorial and governmental rights. Cecil Calvert planned two things: a profitable venture in trade and land; and the establishment of a colony which should be a refuge for the persecuted sects in England. The first expedition contained both Roman Catholics and Protestants, and while the men of wealth and prominence were generally Roman Catholic, the majority of the colonists were always Protestants. To protect the Catholic minority, a law was passed in 1649 granting toleration to all Christians.

In 1689 the Baltimore family was deprived of the governmental power in the colony, but allowed to retain its proprietary rights. In 1715 the proprietorship was restored to the fourth Lord Baltimore on his becoming a Protestant, and it remained in the family until the Revolntion. A long dispute between the Baltimore and Penn families concerning the boundaries of their respective provinces resulted in the running of **Mason and Dixon's line** in 1767. The trade of Maryland was unfavorably affected by the British navigation acts, and the colony fell in with the movement for independence and drafted a constitntion in 1776 which was in force until 1851.

The attack on Fort McHenry in 1814 suggested the national song **"The Star-Spangled Banner"** (composed by Francis Scott Key). During the Civil War, Maryland was the scene of numerous minor conflicts, and the great battle of **Antietam** (1862).

Maryland delayed ratification of the Articles of the Confederation until assured that the western lands should become the property of the Union; but by a large majority ratified the Federal Constitution, April 28, 1788. In State **politics** Maryland has been Democratic since 1868, with few exceptions. In national politics it was Republican from 1896 to 1912, but Democratic at other elections since 1868.

It has had four **constitutions,** the present one adopted in 1867. Among its **national statesmen** have been Charles Carroll, William Pinkney, and Senator Arthur P Gorman. The suffrage is wide, and every attempt to limit it has failed. Each county and legislative district, of which there are four for the city of Baltimore alone, has one Senator; while the House of Delegates is chosen by counties according to population. The governor is elected for four years and has wide appointing power.

The most important institution of higher learning is **Johns Hopkins University,** famous for its graduate instruction and its medical school and hospital. The **United States Naval Academy** is situated at Annapolis, and Goucher College for women at Baltimore. There is a State university (Maryland State College of Agriculture). Among other institutions of higher learning may be mentioned Hood and Western Maryland colleges.

Agriculture is important, the principal crops being corn, wheat, hay, potatoes, and tobacco. In industry the ontput of **men's clothing** is more than three times as great as any other product. Next in succession are tinware, copper and sheet tin, tobacco manufactures, foundry and machine work. The oyster fisheries of the State are more important than those of any other State. It has also valuable coal deposits.

Chronology.

1632. *June 20.* Royal **proprietary charter** to Maryland granted to George Calvert (Lord Baltimore). [Marys.]

1634. *March 27.* **Settlement begins** at Saint

1649. Act for toleration of religions.

1681. Controversy with Pennsylvania over boundaries begins; covers three quarters of a century.

1689. Royal provincial government supersedes proprietary government.

1715. Proprietary restored.

1776. *Aug. 14–Nov. 11.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to the people.

1788. *April 28.* Federal Constitution ratified.

1850. *Nov. 4.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns May 13, 1851. New constitution, ratified by people, in force July 4, 1851.

1861. *April.* Effort to bring about secession fails.

1864. *April 27–Sept. 6.* Third constitutional convention. New constitution, which **abolishes slavery,** ratified by the people, and in force Nov. 1.

1867. *May 8–Aug. 17.* Fourth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force October 5.

SOUTH CAROLINA (8).

Historical Outline.

South Carolina, the **"Palmetto State,"** was early coasted by Spaniards and later by French and English. The **first settlement** of Europeans was attempted by the French in 1562 at Port Royal, but it was a failure. The first English settlement was made under a proprietary charter, granted by Charles II in 1663 to eight noblemen of his court, covering all the territory lying between the 31st and 36th parallels. By a second charter, issued in 1665, the limits were extended to 29° and 36° 30′. In order to attract settlers, liberal concessions were promised and toleration in religion allowed; and the philosopher **John Locke** was commissioned to draw up a frame of government, which, however, proved impractical. Within this one colony of **Carolina,** two centers of settlement appear, and the colony was divided into **North Carolina** and **South Carolina** in 1710. (See North Carolina, below.)

In 1680 English colonists founded **Charleston,** and soon a nnmber of French Huguenots came to find refuge. The growth of the colony was rapid, but its political life was turbulent, and in 1729 the Crown bought out the rights of the proprietors, the colony becoming a royal province.

The South Carolinians took part in an unsuccessful expedition against Saint Augustine in 1702, and were frequently involved in Indian troubles. They resisted the Stamp Act, adhered to the nonimportation agreement of 1774, and sent food to Boston. **During the Revolution** Fort Moultrie was unsuccessfully attacked; but Charleston was captured by the British in 1780, and the battles of King's Mountain, Cowpens, Eutaw Springs, and Camden were fought within its territory.

Politically South Carolina has always been Democratic, except in 1792, and during the Reconstruction period, 1868–1876, but it has not always been in agreement with that party. Thus John C. Calhoun, believing that Congress was sacrificing the agricultural interest of the country to manufacturing from 1828 to 1833, led a movement for nullification, in which South Carolina held that it had the right to declare null and void the acts of Congress. The prompt action of President Jackson, and the compromise of 1833, by which the objectionable duties were reduced, brought about a settlement, if not an abandonment, of the doctrine.

South Carolina was the **first State to secede** in 1860 and the first formal attack npon the Union forces was made at **Fort Sumter,** Anril 12, 1861. The State was the scene of several battles during the Civil War, around Charleston and Beanfort (taken by Union fleet, 1861) and in 1865 throngh the invasions by Sherman's army.

During the period of Reconstruction, South Carolina snffered from the misrule of the ignorant blacks and corrupt whites, and the debt was increased fivefold in five years.

The present **constitution,** the fourth, was framed in 1895. Until 1898 the suffrage was given to all who could explain a section of the constitution when read to them; since that date a **voter must** be able to **read and write** a section of the constitution or must pay taxes npon $300 worth of property. These provisions secure the snpremacy of the white vote and the dominance of the Democratic party.

The constitution may be amended only npon the two-thirds vote of both houses of two successive legislatures, ratified by a majority of the electors. The governor is elected for two years, and although he has the veto and item veto, has little appointing power and but slight control over the State or local officials. He has an independent pardoning power, without the necessity of consulting the Board of Pardons; and a single governor pardoned nearly 3,000 convicts during his administration, mostly as a protest against prison conditions.

The Senate of 44 is chosen one from each county for a term of four years, one half retiring at each election. The House of Representatives consists of 124 members chosen for two years from the counties, according to population. From 1907 to 1911 the State attempted to regulate the **liquor traffic** by the establishment of State dispensaries, but in 1915 adopted State-wide prohibition.

School attendance is not compulsory, but there are restrictions upon the employment of illiterate children in factories or mines. Separate schools are required for white and colored children. There is a State university (University of South Carolina), the Clemson Agricultural College, and several other

institutions of **higher learning**, as Furman University, Newberry and Wofford colleges, and Benedict College for Negroes.

The chief products are cotton, corn, tobacco, rice, and oats, and the chief manufactured products are cotton goods, lumber, cottonseed oil, and oil cake.

Chronology.

1663. *March 24.* Proprietary **charter** of Carolina.
1670. **Settlement** begins on Ashley River near future site of Charleston.
1680. **Charleston** founded.
1729. *July 25.* Charter relinquished. **Royal province** of South Carolina.
1776. *March 26.* Adoption of a **constitution** by the provincial congress; not submitted to people.
1778. *March 19.* Second constitution adopted as an act by the Assembly; not submitted to people.
1788. *May 23.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1790. *May–June 3.* First constitutional convention. New constitution in effect without submission to people.
1832. *Nov. 24.* **Nullification** Ordinance passed.
1833. *March 15.* Nullification Ordinance repealed.
1860. *Dec. 17.* Second constitutional convention meets. December 20, **ordinance of secession** passed. Adjourns April 8, 1861. Revisions of constitution not submitted to people.
1865. *Sept. 13–27.* Third constitutional convention; secession repealed; **slavery abolished.** New constitution not submitted to people.
1868. *Jan. 14–March 17.* Fourth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people April 16.
July 18. **Readmitted** to Union.
1895. *Sept. 10–Dec. 4.* Fifth constitutional convention. New constitution, not submitted to people, in force December 31.

NEW HAMPSHIRE (9).

Historical Outline.

The coast of New Hampshire, the **"Granite State,"** was explored as early as 1603 by Martin Pring, but the **first grant** was made in 1622 to John Mason and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and scattered settlements began in 1623. The settlers were diverse in character; some were Royalists from England; some, Church-of-England men; some, dissatisfied colonists from Massachusetts. In the years from 1641 to 1643 Massachusetts acquired possession of this region and exercised jurisdiction over it; but in 1677 an English decision pronounced this to be a usurpation, and in 1679 the colony was made a **separate royal province.**

During the colonial period New Hampshire suffered greatly from Indian raids and was largely dependent upon Massachusetts for protection. Under the advice of the Continental Congress, the colonists formed the **first constitution** framed for a State (1776); another was adopted in 1784; while the present one dates from 1792. Provision is made that every seven years the question of revision shall be submitted to the people. A convention to revise the constitution sat in 1919–20

In politics New Hamsphire was Federalist until 1816, with the exception of 1804, when it voted for Jefferson; Democratic until 1852; and Republican until 1912, when Progressive. In State politics Republican from 1875 to 1912. In 1916, Democratic.

The greatest New Hampshire statesman was **Daniel Webster.** The State has also furnished one president, Franklin Pierce.

New Hampshire has been **progressive in education;** public schools were established in 1767, and arrangements are made for the secondary education of children in communities too small to maintain a high school. The State has always taken an advanced stand in educational administration and methods. **Dartmouth College** is the chief institution of higher learning. There is also the New Hampshire College of Agriculture, and the Phillips Exeter Academy.

The chief manufactured products are boots and shoes — in which New Hampshire ranks fourth — cotton goods, woolens, lumber, paper, and wood pulp. The granite quarries are important. The agricultural products are hay, potatoes, and dairy products.

Chronology.

1622. *Aug. 10.* **Grant** to Mason and Gorges.
1623. **Settlement** begins. Later, Massachusetts extends her jurisdiction over most of the towns.
1629. *Nov. 7.* Grant of New Hampshire to Mason.
1679. *Sept. 18.* **Royal province.** [1689
1686. Included in Dominion of New England until
1776. *Jan. 5.* **Constitution** adopted by provincial convention or congress.
1778. *June 10.* Second constitutional convention meets; adjourns June 5, 1779. Towns reject results.
1781. *June 14.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns October 31, 1783. New constitution effective June 2, 1784.
1788. *June 21.* Ratifies Federal Constitution.
1791. *Sept. 7.* Fourth constitutional convention meets. Adjourns September 5, 1792. Portion of amendments adopted by people.
1850. *Nov. 6.* Fifth constitutional convention meets. Adjourns April 17, 1852. Amendments, except three, rejected by people.
1876. *Dec. 6–16.* Sixth constitutional convention. Amendments adopted by people.
1889. *Jan. 2–12.* Seventh constitutional convention. People ratify 6 of 7 amendments.
1902. *Dec. 2–19.* Eighth constitutional convention. People ratify 4 of 10 amendments.
1912. *June 5–22.* Ninth constitutional convention. People ratify only 4 of 12 amendments.
1919–1920. Tenth constitutional convention.

VIRGINIA (10).

Historical Outline.

Virginia is variously known as the **"Old Dominion,"** the **"Mother of Presidents,"** and the **"Mother of States."**

The coast of Virginia was early explored by the Spanish, French, and English. The name was given in honor of Queen Elizabeth to the region explored by three expeditions sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh, beginning in 1584. Two attempts were made at colonization, but the **first permanent settlement** was that of 1607, sent by the Virginia Company, a trading and colonizing company chartered by James I. in 1606. The settlers built a stockade at Jamestown, but were ill-supplied and unsuited for pioneer work. Famine, disease, and attacks by the Indians would have caused the total destruction of the colony had it not been for the energy of **Captain John Smith,** who secured food from the Indians and won their friendship. The little colony was reënforced in 1608; but the winter of 1609, "the starving time," reduced it from 500 to 60, and the enterprise was about to be abandoned, when the arrival of Lord De La Warr with fresh supplies and colonists saved the venture.

In 1612 the success of the colony was assured through the discovery of the proper method of curing **tobacco** by **John Rolfe,** also famous for his marriage to **Pocahontas,** an Indian princess, who, Smith maintained, saved his life. The attempts at communism were abandoned and individual ownership of land and the development of agriculture began to bring prosperity to the colony, although during the Indian Wars of 1618 to 1622 nearly 400 of the colonists perished. In 1618 the more liberal element in the Virginia Company gave permission for a form of self-government, and the first representative assembly held in America assembled in 1619. After the execution of Charles I., some of his adherents, the **Cavaliers,** came to Virginia, and although compelled to submit to the authority of the Commonwealth, Virginia was the first English possession to recognize Charles II., from which is said to come its name of the **Old Dominion.**

Agriculture, particularly the raising of tobacco, gave Virginia a large foreign trade and made it restive under the commercial system established by the Navigation Acts. When Parliament attempted (1765) to impose the Stamp Act and other taxes on the colonies, Virginia was one of the first to voice resistance. It was active in the movement for independence, organized committees of correspondence with other colonies, and furnished leaders in both the Continental Congresses. The first Virginia **constitution,** under the influence of Thomas **Jefferson,** was one of the best expressions of popular government of its time. During the Revolution Virginia was invaded by Benedict **Arnold,** and was the scene of the surrender of **Cornwallis** at **Yorktown.**

In the framing of the Federal Constitution, Virginia took a leading part. The president of the Convention was **Washington;** its most faithful and tireless supporter, James **Madison.** In the organization of the new government, Virginia played a prominent rôle, furnishing four of the first five presidents (namely, Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe), each of whom served two terms, and the State thus became known as the "Mother of Presidents." The great Chief Justice John **Marshall** and, later, President **Tyler** were also Virginians.

In 1798 the Virginia legislature, aroused by the Alien and Sedition Acts, adopted resolutions denying the unlimited power of the national government, asserting that to the States belonged all rights not distinctly delegated to the national government by the Federal Constitution, and maintaining that the States had the legal authority to determine the extent of the powers so granted. In later times this theory was developed into the doctrine of **State Rights** and **State Sovereignty,** which furnished the legal justification for nullification and secession.

In 1861 the issue of secession was put squarely before the people and adopted by overwhelming majorities in the eastern counties. The western counties, however, remained in the Union and formed the State of **West Virginia.** During the war the capital of the Confederacy was Richmond, and many important campaigns were fought in the State, including the critical battles of Bull Run (first and second), Fair Oaks, Seven Pines, Chancellorsville, Fredericksburg, Wilderness, Cold Harbor, the siege of Petersburg, and many battles in the Shenandoah Valley.

Virginia had the usual troubles and difficulties during the Reconstruction period, but was finally readmitted to the Union January 26, 1870. The present **constitution,** adopted in 1902, was the work of a convention, and was not submitted to the people for ratification. Suffrage clauses requiring an educational test and payment of poll taxes for three years, or ownership of property, barred many of the Negroes and whites from voting.

The governor is elected for a four-year term; the legislature meets biennially, and is composed of the House of Delegates, chosen for two years, and the Senate, chosen for four. Representation is granted according to population by districts apportioned every ten years. The apportionment by population instead of by voters gives undue representation to the whites in the older counties, where there are many nonvoting Negroes.

Great progress has been made in recent years in **education,** which is rendered difficult by the large number of ignorant Negroes and the fact that the population is widely scattered. Schools are established, and attendance is compulsory between the ages of eight and twelve. There are four State normal schools and about twelve principal institutions of **higher learning,** the largest being the **University of Virginia,** founded by Jefferson (1825) and celebrated throughout the country. Among the others are William and Mary College, Washington and Lee University, Randolph-Macon, Richmond, Roanoke, Hampden-Sidney, and Emory and Henry colleges, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, and Virginia Military Institute. Within the past few years laws have been passed limiting hours of labor, restricting the employment of children, and providing for safety in industry.

The **products** of the State are both agricultural and mineral. Crops rank in the following order, corn, tobacco, hay, wheat, potatoes, peanuts. The chief industrial products are lumber and timber, tobacco, flour, and grist. Virginia has some coal and some large ironworks. Newport News and Norfolk are among the finest ports on the Atlantic coast.

Chronology.

1584–1587. Raleigh's three attempts at colonization; only result the **naming of the region** "Virginia," in honor of Elizabeth (the "Virgin Queen").
1606. *April 10.* First royal **charter** to London (Virginia) Company.
1607. *May 14.* **Settlement** begins at Jamestown.
1609. *May 23.* Second royal charter; boundaries extend to the Pacific.
1619. First popular assembly in America. [ince.
1624. *June 26.* Charter annulled. **Royal prov-**
1776. *May 6–June 29.* First constitutional convention. Bill of rights and **constitution** not submitted to people. [relinquished.
1784. *March 1.* Western claims north of the Ohio
1788. *June 26.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1829. *Oct. 5.* Second constitutional convention. Adjourns January 15, 1830. New constitution ratified by people.
1850. *Oct. 14.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns August 1, 1851. New constitution received popular approval on Oct. 25, 1851.
1861. *Feb. 13–Dec. 6.* Fourth constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** passed April 17; ratified by people May 23. New constitution rejected by people March 13, 1862.
1864. New constitution for 3 counties. Restored Pierpont ("vest-pocket") government (so called from Gov. Francis H. Pierpont).
Feb. 13–April 7. Fifth (loyal) constitutional convention. **Slavery abolished;** new constitution not submitted to people.
1865. Reorganization under Pierpont government, which continues until March, 1867.
1867. *Dec. 3* Sixth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention meets. Adjourns April 17, 1868. New constitution ratified by people July 6, 1869.
1870. *Jan. 26.* **Readmitted to Union.**
1901. *June 12.* Seventh constitutional convention meets; adjourns June 26, 1902. New constitution, not submitted to people, in force July 10, 1902.

NEW YORK (11).

Historical Outline.

New York is generally known as the **"Empire State,"** but it is sometimes called the **"Excelsior State,"** from its motto. Although Verrazano visited New York Bay on his voyage in 1524, the first explorer was **Henry Hudson,** an Englishman in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, who entered the bay and sailed up the river which bears his name (1609). Trading posts were established on Manhattan island and at Fort Nassau, just below Albany, in 1613. The Dutch West India Company began a settlement on Manhattan (1623), the object being to tap the valuable fur trade rather than to establish a colony. The settlement grew slowly, but attracted diverse nationalities, and during the Dutch period had very little self-government. In 1664 it was conquered by the **English;** it was reconquered by the

Dutch in 1673 but returned to the English that same year. The Dutch contributed little to the institutional life of the colonies in America, and not until well into the period of the English control did New York become of great importance.

With the English conquest of 1664 the colony became a proprietary colony of the Duke of York, after whom it was named; hence the "Duke's Laws," framed in 1665, which became the basis of future codes. When the Duke became King James II. (1685) the colony became a royal province. Although New York never was granted a charter, it was given a representative assembly, which had the right to levy taxes and appropriate money. With this power the colonists succeeded in obtaining substantially the same frame of government as existed in the other provinces. Part of the lesson of self-government was learned in frequent quarrels with the English authorities.

Its rapidly developing commerce made New York impatient of the English restrictions on trade, and in 1762 the colonial legislature framed remonstrances against the commercial policy of Parliament, established committees of correspondence with other colonies in 1764, and was the scene of the **Stamp Act Congress** of 1765. A strong Tory influence held New York back at the beginning of the Revolution; but it joined in the Declaration of Independence, and in 1777 a convention established the first **constitution.** During almost the entire Revolution the British held possession of the city of New York, not evacuating it until December, 1783.

New York was sharply divided over the ratification of the Federal Constitution. Two of the three delegates withdrew from the Philadelphia Convention, leaving Hamilton to represent the State alone. During the campaign for ratification Hamilton, John Jay, and Madison wrote a series of essays in favor of the Constitution, which were collected and published under the title of *The Federalist*. This and the pressure of the commercial interests brought about the ratification of the Constitution as the eleventh State, after a vigorous campaign (1788).

The State was Federalist from 1795 to 1800, but after that became Jeffersonian under De Witt **Clinton,** who remained the political leader until 1822. His partisans were rewarded with appointments and charters, and the spoils system was introduced and perfected. It was during this period that the work on the **Erie Canal** was begun; it was completed in 1825. Clinton was succeeded by the "Albany Regency," a group of men who reduced machine politics to a science. Personal rivalries and short-lived popular movements characterized this period. The Antimasonic movement had its origin in the State and was powerful enough to determine at least one campaign. The antirent troubles, originating in old Dutch privileges of the landlords, lasted until 1843.

Since the Civil War, as before, the State has been doubtful both in national and State **politics.** Of its recent governors the more notable have been **Theodore Roosevelt** and **Charles E. Hughes,** under both of whom reform measures were passed. Other **notable men** of the State have been, among others, George Clinton, De Witt Clinton, and Presidents Van Buren and Cleveland.

New York is living under its fourth **constitution,** adopted in 1894. This provides for a legislature consisting of an Assembly of 150 and a Senate of 50, both elected for two years from districts apportioned every ten years. Although New York and Kings counties contain one half the population, they are allowed but two fifths of the members of the Senate. The legislature has all power not withdrawn by positive provisions of the Constitution.

With this strong legislature there is a governor, chosen for two years, whose power is weakened both by the number of elective officers and the fact that much of the administration of the State is in the hands of locally appointed or elected officers who are not responsible to the governor. Nevertheless, the governor has certain powers which may enable a resolute man to enforce his policy. He has a qualified veto power over the bills as passed by the legislature, and an absolute veto power for thirty days after the adjournment of the legislature over bills then waiting his consideration. In addition he has the power to veto items in appropriation bills. In 1917, New York granted **suffrage to women.**

New York did not establish a system of **free schools** until 1851 but has developed one of the most advanced systems of education. The educational policy of the State is directed by a Board of Regents, which has charge of the management and supervision of the public schools and all educational work of the State. School attendance is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 16, and great attention is paid to secondary and vocational schools. In 1918 a law was passed requiring military training for three hours a week for all boys between the ages of 16 and 19 in public schools. The State has many institutions of **higher learning,** of which the oldest as well as the largest is **Columbia University,** once Kings College, in New York City. Other important institutions are Alfred, Buffalo, Colgate, Cornell, Fordham, New York, Rochester, St. Lawrence, Syracuse, and Union universities; and the following colleges: Adelphi, City of New York, Elmira, Hamilton, Hobart, St. John's; Barnard, Hunter, Vassar, Wells, and William Smith for women. There are also the **United States Military Academy** at West Point, and the Brooklyn and Rensselaer Polytechnic institutes.

New York ranks **first in shipping, banking, and total manufactures** and also in many lines of manufacture. The most important industries according to value of production are: women's clothing, men's clothing, printing and publishing, foundry and machine-shop work, slaughtering and meat packing. The important agricultural products are: hay, corn, potatoes, oats, and dairy products, the value of which in 1918 was $77,000,000. New York is thus well called the "Empire State."

Chronology.

1613. Beginning of **Dutch occupation** of New Amsterdam.
1621. *June 3.* Dutch West India Company controls New Netherland. [York.]
1661. *March 12.* **Grant** of New York to Duke of
Aug. 29. English **conquest of New Netherland,** renamed **New York.**
1685. *Feb. 6.* Becomes a **royal province.**
1688. *April 7.* Included in Dominion of New England until 1689.
1776. *July 10.* First constitutional convention meets. Adjourns April 20, 1777. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1788. *July 26.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1801. *Oct. 13–27.* Second constitutional convention. Amendments not submitted to people.
1821. *Aug. 28–Nov. 10.* Third constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force December 31, 1822.
1846. *June 1–Oct. 9.* Fourth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1847.
1867. *June 4.* Fifth constitutional convention meets. Adjourns February 28, 1868. Amended constitution rejected by people, except one article, November 2, 1869.
1894. *May 8–Sept. 29.* Sixth constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people; in force January 1, 1895.
1915. *April 6–Sept. 10.* Seventh constitutional convention. People reject revised constitution, November 2.

NORTH CAROLINA (12).

Historical Outline.

North Carolina, popularly known as the **"Old North State"** and the **"Turpentine State,"** was the scene of the **first English settlements** in America (Roanoke Island). These settlements were unsuccessful. Later it was peopled by colonists from Virginia, but in 1663 formed a portion of the Carolina grant given by Charles II. to eight noblemen of his court (see South Carolina, above). The attention of these proprietors was concentrated on the development of South Carolina, and the northern region with a rude and turbulent population was neglected. In 1729 the proprietors sold their rights to the crown, and a more settled form of government was established. Numbers of immigrants, Scotch-Irish and Germans, went into the western regions, which developed along different lines from the eastern. This divergence is the key to many of the political conflicts down to the time of the Civil War.

At the outbreak of the revolutionary movement, the people of North Carolina, against the protests of the governor, held a convention and established a frame of government. A convention of Mecklenburg County (Charlotte) drew up a statement, one version of which is called the **Mecklenburg Declaration** (May, 1775). It contains phrases which closely resemble phrases in the final great Declaration of Independence of 1776. A State **constitution** was adopted in 1776 in which the Assembly was the real power, for it elected the governor and all other officials. North Carolina delayed ratification of the Federal Constitution until 1789 and thus did not vote at the first presidential election.

In **politics** the State has been Democratic except from 1840 to 1848, when the Whigs had control, largely over the question of internal improvements which were demanded by the people of the western counties. The Populists in 1892 acquired great influence and in 1896 united with the Democrats.

A State convention in 1861 adjourned without action on secession. But on Lincoln's call for troops North Carolina joined the other Confederate States. The capital was captured by General Sherman in 1865 and the State placed under military rule. It was readmitted on July 11, 1868.

The State is now living under its fourth **constitution** (1876) by which, according to the amendments of 1900, the suffrage is granted only upon fulfillment of educational qualifications, except that those persons, and their descendants, who could vote in 1867 are not required to fulfill this test. In practice the Negro vote is nearly all excluded, without affecting the white vote. The governor is elected for two years but unlike all the other State executives he has no veto power. The legislature consists of a Senate of 50 and a House of 120.

The educational problem is difficult owing to the scattered population and the large number of ignorant Negroes. Separate schools are required for the blacks, but the schools for the whites are more numerous and better attended. The **school law** compels the attendance of children of school age for a term of four to eight months each school year during four to six years. There are numerous farm schools in the counties, a State university (University of North Carolina), Trinity, Elon, Meredith, and Wake Forest colleges, Salem Academy and College; and Shaw University and Livingstone College for Negroes.

North Carolina is an **agricultural State** and its products rank in the following order: corn, cotton, tobacco, wheat, peanuts, and hay. Its manufactures are increasing, the chief ones being cotton goods, tobacco, lumber and timber, cottonseed oil and cake. The fisheries are also important.

Chronology.

1663. *March 24.* Proprietary **charter** of Carolina with boundaries to the Pacific (compare South Carolina, above). **Settlements** already exist.
1669. John Locke, the philosopher, drafts famous **Fundamental Constitutions** ("Grand Model"), with feudal features. Do not work, though several times revised, and finally abrogated in 1693, the colonists being governed by "instructions."
1719. Organization of settlers breaks up proprietary government. New government in 1721.
1729. *July 25.* Charter relinquished. Colony divided. **Royal province** of North Carolina.
1776. *Nov. 12–Dec. 18.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1789. *Nov. 21.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1790. *Feb. 25.* Western claims relinquished. Accepted by Congress, April 2.
1835. *June 4–July 11.* Second constitutional convention. Amendments ratified by people.
1861. *May 20.* Third constitutional convention meets. Ordinance of **secession** passed same day. Final session May 13, 1862. Various amendments adopted without submission to people.
1865. *Oct. 2–19.* Fourth constitutional convention meets. **Secession repealed. Slavery abolished,** October 9. Convention reassembles May, 1866; Reconstruction constitution but people reject the work.
1868. *Jan. 14–March 16.* Fifth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people.
July 11. **Readmitted** to Union.
1875. *Sept. 6–Oct. 11.* Sixth constitutional convention. Amended constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1877. [frage.]
1890. Amendments to constitution restricting suf-

RHODE ISLAND (13).

Historical Outline.

Rhode Island, the smallest State, and hence popularly called **"Little Rhody,"** owes its foundation as a colony to religious exiles chiefly from Massachusetts, the most famous of whom were **Roger Williams** and **Anne Hutchinson,** who founded separate settlements at Providence and Portsmouth. In 1663 Williams obtained a **charter** from Charles II., and the scattered settlements were united. The charter proved so satisfactory that it was continued until 1843, when the present **constitution** was adopted.

During the **colonial period** the colony suffered from **King Philip's War** and **boundary disputes** with its neighbors and showed such independence and disregard of the British commercial regulations that it was constantly on the defense. During the Revolution the British occupied Newport from 1776 to 1779, but Rhode Island furnished great aid to the patriot cause through the privateers which were fitted out in the colony. General **Nathanael Greene,** one of Washington's most trusted generals, was a native of the State. Rhode Island did not send delegates to the Constitutional Convention, and seven times voted against ratification, only acquiescing when Congress passed a tariff act in which Rhode Island was treated as foreign territory.

The long delay over revision of the charter produced **Dorr's Rebellion,** which finally led to the adoption of the **constitution** of 1842. By this the right to vote is extended to all adult males of twenty-one, but the right to vote on questions of taxation in Providence is still restricted to those who are the possessors of 134 dollars' worth of real estate. The Senate consists of one member from each town, and the membership of the House is never to exceed 72; no single town shall be accorded more than one fourth of the representation. These arrangements make it possible for the small towns, in which the population is declining, to control the political situation and they have played into the hands of a political machine. Rhode Island is generally Republican in both State and national **politics.**

The educational system is excellent. Although the large number of foreign born make the percentage of illiteracy high, every attempt is made to provide an adequate school system. Education is compulsory between the ages of 5 and 15, every town must provide a high school, and there are excellent industrial schools and schools of design. **Brown University**, at Providence, is the chief institution of higher learning. There is a State agricultural college (Rhode Island State College).

Rhode Island is the **most densely settled State** in the Union and although it ranks thirty-eighth in population, it ranks sixteenth in manufacturing. The industries, in the order of the value of their products, are woolen and worsted goods, cotton goods, jewelry, foundry and machine work.

Chronology.

1635. *June.* **Settlement** begins at Providence.
1641. *March 14.* Parliamentary patent to Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.
1663. *July 8.* Royal **charter.**
1686. Included in Dominion of New England; charter in abeyance.
1689. Charter resumed.
1776. Charter adapted to independent statehood.
1790. *May 29.* Federal Constitution ratified.
1841. *Nov. 1.* Constitutional convention assembles; (Freemen's) **constitution** framed February 19, 1842. Adopted on resubmission to people. Installed, May 3, 1843.

VERMONT (14).

Historical Outline.

VERMONT, the **"Green Mountain State,"** was first explored by Champlain, and the first European settlement was made by the **French** at St. Anne in 1665. In 1724 Massachusetts established Fort Dummer on the site of Brattleboro. Later, under the claims of New Hampshire, Governor Wentworth of that State made lavish land grants which produced numerous scattered settlements. The territory was long claimed by both New York and New Hampshire, which caused a dispute that was not finally settled until just before the admission of Vermont to the Union. In 1777 a State government was organized under the **first antislavery constitution** ever drafted.

During the Revolution Vermont was practically an independent commonwealth, without representation in Congress, and waged practically a separate war with Great Britain. The capture of Ticonderoga by the State hero, Ethan Allen, in 1775 was the result of its efforts. The **battle of Bennington** was fought in Vermont.

The **constitution** of 1792 has been radically revised and submitted to popular vote four different times. The governor is chosen for four years, the legislature consisting of a Senate of 30 apportioned to the counties according to population, and a House of Representatives of 246, one from each town and city, is elected biennially.

Agriculture is the chief occupation of the people, the principal crops being hay, potatoes, maple sugar and sirup. Dairy products are very important, and Vermont leads all the States of the Union in pounds of butter per cow, and in the ratio of dairy cows to population. Manufacturing is relatively unimportant except the products of the marble quarries.

Education is compulsory for children between the ages of 8 and 15, and no child who has not completed the nine-year school course can lawfully be employed in any factory, mine, or quarry or as a messenger during school hours. As a consequence of a small foreign-born population and the excellent educational system, the percentage of **illiteracy** is lower in Vermont than in any other State. The University of Vermont, Middlebury College, and Norwich University are the principal institutions of **higher learning.**

Chronology.

1777. *Jan. 17.* New Hampshire Grants, claimed by New York, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, declared by a convention the **independent state** of New Connecticut (name changed to Vermont June 4).
July 2–8. Convention frames a **constitution.**
1781. *March 8.* Massachusetts relinquishes claim.
1782. New Hampshire relinquishes claim.
1786. *June 29–July 4.* Second constitutional convention. New constitution framed; established, March, 1787.
1790. *March 6.* New York relinquishes claim.
1791. *March 4.* **Admitted** to the Union.
1793. *July 3–9.* Third constitutional convention. New constitution framed; established, July 9, 1793.

KENTUCKY (15).

Historical Outline.

KENTUCKY, "the Dark and Bloody Ground," known as the **"Blue-Grass State,"** was included in the French claim to the whole valley of the Mississippi, but the English settlers early disputed it. The early history of the region is connected with **Daniel Boone,** a North Carolinian, who explored the region in 1769. In 1775, while in the employ of the Transylvania Company, he founded a fort at Boonesborough. Many settlers from Virginia and North Carolina were attracted to the region because of its rich pasture lands in the blue grass. Under the influence of George Rogers Clark, the Virginia Assembly established Kentucky as a county in 1776. It remained a part of the parent State until admitted directly in 1792. During the **Civil War** it tried to remain neutral, but finally sided with the Union and suffered much from the occupation and hostilities of both armies.

In State **politics** Kentucky has generally been Democratic, except from 1836 to 1850, when it supported the Whigs, under the influence of **Henry Clay,** its leading citizen. In recent times it has been Democratic till 1890, after which the Republicans several times carried it. Kentucky has been rich in national **statesmen,** notably Henry Clay, John J. Crittenden, and Vice President Breckinridge.

Education is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 14 for eight consecutive weeks during the year. The schools in the mountains especially are backward. There are four normal schools and several institutions of higher learning, among them the University of Kentucky (State), University of Louisville, Central University of Kentucky (Center College), Berea, Georgetown, and Transylvania colleges.

Kentucky is **preëminently an agricultural State,** the chief products in order of value being corn, tobacco, hay, and wheat. Its most important mineral is coal. The chief manufactured products are flour and grist, and tobacco, and (until 1920) distillery products.

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Included in Virginia under second charter.
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim ceded to Great Britain.
1775. Permanent English **settlement** begins.
1783. *Sept. 3.* **Included in** territory of **United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1789. *Dec. 18.* Virginia agrees to statehood Earlier acts on same subject.
1792. *April 2–19.* **Constitution** adopted by a convention. Several other conventions preceded this one. Not submitted to people.
June 1. **Admitted** to Union.
1799. *July 22–Aug. 17.* Second constitutional convention. Amended constitution, not submitted to people, in force June 1, 1800.
1819. *Oct. 1.* Third constitutional convention assembles. Adjourns June 11, 1850. New constitution ratified by people.
1861. *Aug. 5.* Union success at State election finally settles secession question.
1865. *Dec. 18.* **Slavery abolished** by Federal Thirteenth Amendment.
1890. *Sept. 8.* Fourth constitutional convention meets. Adjourns September 28, 1891. New constitution not submitted to people.

TENNESSEE (16).

Historical Outline.

TENNESSEE, the **"Volunteer State,"** was a part of French Louisiana but was included in the charter to the Carolinas. It was first made known to the English by Daniel Boone about 1769. From the Revolution to 1790 it was a part of North Carolina and from 1777 was organized as the County of Washington. In 1778 a settlement was made on the Cumberland River, near the site of Nashville, and an attempt was made to establish a separate government called the "State of Franklin," under John Sevier as governor. In 1790 North Carolina ceded the territory to the United States and Tennessee was organized as the Territory South of the Ohio River. It was admitted to the Union in 1796.

During the **Civil War** Tennessee **seceded,** but East Tennessee remained loyal and played an important part in the operations of the war in that section. The severe battles of Shiloh, Chattanooga, Island No. 10, Stone River, and Nashville were fought in Tennessee; and the whole State was almost incessantly the scene of conflict. Tennessee was the **first of the seceding States** to be reorganized, and was **restored to the Union** (July 24, 1866), after ratifying the Federal Constitution, with amendments, and adopting an antislavery State constitution.

Since 1870 the Democratic party has controlled the State government, except in 1880, 1894, and 1910, when the Democratic party was divided and Republicans were elected. In the National elections the State has been uniformly Democratic. Two presidents, Jackson and Johnson, were Tennesseeans.

There is no State law requiring **education,** although school attendance is compulsory and throughout the State the employment of children under 14 years of age in workshops, factories, or mines is illegal. There are several State normal schools and about 20 universities and colleges, the largest of which is the (State) University of Tennessee. Vanderbilt University, the University of the South, Union University, Maryville College, and for Negroes, Fisk University and Knoxville College, may be mentioned.

The chief agricultural products are corn, cotton, and hay. The chief manufactured product is lumber, the most important mineral product coal.

Chronology.

1663. *March 24.* Charter of Carolina, extending to Pacific Ocean, includes region. (Cf. So. CAROLINA). [Great Britain.
1763. *Feb. 10.* France cedes claim to region to
1769. **Settlement** of Eastern Tennessee (Watauga) begins.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Region included in **United States** by Treaty of Paris. [quished.
1790. *April 2.* Claim of North Carolina relin-
May 26. **Territory South of the Ohio,** coterminous with Tennessee, organized.
1796. *Jan. 11–Feb. 6.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
June 1. **Admitted** to Union.
1834. *May 19–Aug. 30.* Second constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by the people, March 6, 1835.
1861. *May 6.* Ordinance of **secession,** passed by legislature. Ratified by people June 8.
1865. *Jan. 9–26.* Third constitutional convention. **Slavery abolished,** secession declared null and void. Amendments ratified by people Feb. 22.
1866. *July 24.* **Readmitted** to Union.
1870. *Jan. 10–Feb. 23.* Fourth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force May 5.

OHIO (17).

Historical Outline.

THIS State, the **"Buckeye State,"** was within the French claims to the valleys of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi rivers. It was transferred to England in 1763 and affirmed to the United States by the treaty of 1783. New York, Connecticut, and Virginia claimed parts of it. Most of it was included in the **Northwest Territory** (1787) which has since been divided into the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. By the Northwest Ordinance a system of government was established and slavery forbidden throughout this region.

Three main streams of immigration poured into this region; from Virginia to the Central area; from Connecticut to the Northern; from Massachusetts under General Rufus Putnam to the Southern. The Northwest Territory was organized in 1787, with General Arthur Saint Clair as governor, with whom were associated Manasseh Cutler and General Anthony Wayne, who had had a large share in the subjugation of the Indians. The government established by the Ordinance was highly centralized, and the governor possessed great power This form lasted until 1798, when a representative territorial government was established and an assembly met in 1799. Ohio was admitted as a State in 1803.

The first **constitution** of the State was framed in 1802 and showed a reaction against the centralized government and strong executive. The legislature was practically the governing power, the governor having lost the veto power. The State rapidly filled up and became a force in national affairs. It has furnished to the national government the following **presidents:** Harrison, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, McKinley, and Taft. In 1851 the second constitution established a government of the ordinary type, with biennial elections, a governor chosen for a four-year term, a Senate of 23 and a House of Representatives of 123, both elected for two years.

In 1912 the State government was much altered, 12 amendments being submitted to the people, of which 34 were adopted. The judicial system was revised, the powers of the legislature defined, and the **initiative and referendum** and **direct primary** adopted. The local government in Ohio is of the mixed type, a combination of the county system of the South and the town system of New England.

In National **politics** Ohio was Jeffersonian until the Jackson era, after which it oscillated until 1856; it then became Republican and so remained in national elections until 1912. In State politics it was Republican from 1856 to 1905 with six exceptions. It has therefore been ranked as a doubtful State, and one from which it is desirable to pick the presidential candidate, since it has a large electoral vote, is centrally located, and the candidate may be supposed to have strength in his own locality.

Education in Ohio has been greatly aided by the wise policy initiated by Congress in 1802, when it granted sixteen sections of each township for the school fund. The first school law was adopted in 1821, and the school fund established six years later. In 1902 a thorough revision of the school system was undertaken, the schools were standardized, and high schools of three grades established. School attendance is compulsory during the full term of each year for all children between 6 and 14. There are eight public normal schools and forty colleges and universities, the largest of which is the Ohio State Uni-

versity at Columbus. Among others are Ohio University, Ohio Northern University, Ohio Wesleyan University, University of Cincinnati, Municipal University of Akron, Western Reserve, Miami, Denison, and Toledo universities; Wittenberg, Wooster, St. Mary, Defiance, Oberlin, Baldwin-Wallace, Kenyon Findlay, Muskingum, Rio Grande, Otterbein, and Hiram colleges, Wilberforce University for Negroes, and Case School of Applied Science.

Ohio is rich in **natural resources.** It is one of the leading **agricultural and grazing** States, the chief crop, corn, amounting to over $200,000,000 in 1918; other important crops are wheat, hay oats, potatoes, and tobacco. Horse and cattle breeding and dairy farming are also important. The State has extensive mineral resources and ranks **fourth** of the States **in mineral output,** the two leading products being coal and manufactures from clay. Ohio ranks fifth as a **manufacturing** State. In 1916 the products of the iron and steel mills were nearly $200,000,000 and of foundries and machine shops $150,000,000. Other important products are iron and steel, rubber goods, pottery, slaughtering and packing products, flour and gristmill products. Ohio has excellent facilities for water transportation. Its most important city is Cleveland, on Lake Erie, with a population in 1920 of 796,836 (5th city).

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Second **charter** of Virginia includes region.
1662. *April 20.* Charter of Connecticut includes portion of region. [ain.]
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim ceded to Great Brit-
1775. Included in colony of Quebec.
1779. Included in region affected by George Rogers Clark's conquest.
1781. *March 1.* Indefinite New York claim relinquished.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Region becomes **part of United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1784. *March 1.* Virginia claim relinquished.
1786. *Sept. 14.* Connecticut claim relinquished, except Western Reserve.
1787. *July 13.* Ordinance for **Territory Northwest of the Ohio.** Slavery prohibited.
1788. **Settlement** begins at Marietta.
1800. Connecticut cedes the Reserve.
1802. *Nov. 1–29.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1803. *Feb. 19.* Congress recognizes Ohio as a **State** in the Union.
1850. *May 6.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns March 10, 1851. New constitution ratified by people June 17, 1851.
1873. *May 13.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns May 15, 1874. People reject amended constitution August 18, 1874
1912. *Jan. 9–June 1.* Fourth constitutional convention. People, September 3, ratify 33 of 41 amendments submitted.

LOUISIANA (18).

Historical Outline.

Louisiana is popularly known as the **"Pellean State"** and the **"Creole State."** The name "Louisiana," after Louis XIV., was given by La Salle to the whole Mississippi basin extending from the Alleghenies to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf to the sources of the Ohio, Missouri, Platte, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Red rivers. At the close of the French and Indian War in 1762–1763, France ceded to Spain the region west of the Mississippi, and to Great Britain the region east of the Mississippi and north of the Bayou Iberville. In 1783 Great Britain recognized the eastern portion as part of the United States. In 1800 Spain transferred the territory west of the Mississippi to France, and in 1803 Jefferson, realizing the importance of the **territory, bought** it for $15,000,000. Shortly after, the portion now occupied by the State of Louisiana was organized as the Territory of Orleans, and in 1812 was received into the Union.

The last battle of the War of 1812 was fought in 1815, when General Jackson repulsed the British before New Orleans. During the Civil War, lower Louisiana was occupied by the Union forces. During Reconstruction, political quarrels kept the State in confusion until 1876.

The **constitution** of Louisiana, adopted in 1913, provides for a governor, elected every four years; a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate of from 36 to 41 members, based on population, and a House of Representatives of not more than 120 based on population, except that each parish and each ward in the City of New Orleans is entitled to at least one representative.

In politics Louisiana, with the exception of four years when a Whig governor was elected, has been consistently Democratic. In national elections as well it has chosen Democratic electors since the Civil War. The sugar growers are ardent protectionists and some of them were Progressives in 1912. Louisiana has furnished one president, **Zachary Taylor.**

The law of Louisiana is unique in that it is not based upon English common law, but upon the Code Napoléon, slightly modified by Anglo-Saxon institutions.

For a long time **education** was in an unsatisfactory condition; but in 1912 and 1916 a comprehensive State system was established centering in a State Board of Education. Collegiate education is given at the Louisiana State University, Tulane University, Loyola University, Jefferson College, the H. S. Newcomb Memorial College (for women), and also at other colleges established for colored people. The chief crops are cotton, corn, and rice. The chief industries are lumbering and the productions sugar and oil. There are also important sulphur mines and oil and gas deposits. The port of New Orleans has a large international trade.

Chronology.

1682. Possession taken by La Salle for France.
1718. **French settlement** begins at New Orleans.
1762. *Nov. 3.* Portion west of the Mississippi and Isle of Orleans conveyed by France to Spain.
1763. *Feb. 10.* Part east of the Mississippi ceded to Great Britain; becomes part of West Florida.
1783. *Sept. 3.* West Florida ceded to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Spanish "Louisiana" retroceded to France.
1803. *April 30.* Spanish (French) Louisiana **ceded to United States.** Under the treaty West Florida claimed. [rary government.]
Oct. 31. President authorized to form tempo-
1804. *March 26.* **Territory of Orleans** organized by Congress.
1810. *Oct. 27.* West Florida west of Pearl River occupied by United States. Added to Louisiana April 19, 1812.
1811. *Nov. 4.* First constitutional convention meets. Adjourns January 22, 1812. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1812. *April 8.* **Admitted** to Union.
1819. *Feb. 22.* Western boundary established by treaty with Spain.
1844. *Aug. 5.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns May 16, 1845. New constitution ratified by people November 5, 1845.
1852. *July 5–31.* Third constitutional convention. Amended constitution ratified by people Nov 1.
1861. *Jan. 23–March 26.* Fourth constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** January 26. Amendments not submitted to people.
1864. *April 6–July 25.* Fifth (loyal) constitutional convention. Amended constitution, **abolishing slavery,** ratified by people within Federal lines, September 5.
1867. *Dec. 23.* Sixth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention meets. Adjourns March 9, 1868. New constitution ratified by people April 18, 1868.
1868. *July 18.* **Readmitted** to Union.
1879. *April 21–July 23.* Seventh constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people December 8.
1898. *Feb. 8–May 12.* Eigbth constitutional convention. New constitution, not snbmitted to people, declared immediately in force.
1913. *Nov. 10–22.* Ninth constitutional convention. Amended constitution, making only a few limited changes, not submitted to people, in force November 22.

INDIANA (19).

Historical Outline.

Indiana, the **"Hoosier State,"** a part of the Northwest Territory, received separate territorial organization in 1809, under Governor William Henry **Harrison.** Security from the Indians was obtained by the victory of Harrison over Tecumseh at the battle of Tippecanoe in 1811.

Indiana was admitted as a State in 1816. The present **constitution** was adopted in 1851, and since it requires for amendment a majority of the members of each of the two houses in two successive sessions and a majority of all the votes cast at the elections, and since only one amendment shall be put before the people at one time, it has proved impossible of direct amendment. This constitution provides for a governor elected for four years, a Senate of fifty chosen for four years and a House of Representatives of 100 chosen for two years. Enumerations and apportionments are made every six years.

Politically Indiana is a **doubtful** State, both in State and national politics. It has given to the nation Vice Presidents Hendricks, Fairbanks, and Marshall.

The **educational standards** of Indiana are high, and the illiteracy rate extremely low. Education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14. The principal universities are Indiana and Purdue, both of which are under State control, and De Pauw, Notre Dame, and Valparaiso, which are private institutions. Wabash, Butler, Hanover, and Earlham colleges should also be mentioned.

Indiana has been the home of many **noted writers,** among whom may be mentioned Lew Wallace, James Whitcomb Riley, Eugene Field, Edward Eggleston, and Booth Tarkington.

The State is **largely agricultural,** 94% of the territory being in farms. The important crops are corn, wheat, hay, oats, and potatoes. The principal manufactured products are flour and grist, meat products, foundry and machine-shop goods, iron and steel products, and automobiles.

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Second charter of Virginia includes region. [portion of region.]
1662. *April 20.* Charter of Connecticut includes
1727. French **settlement** begins at Vincennes; probable date.
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim ceded to Great Britain.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Region becomes **part of United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1784. *March 1.* Virginia claim relinquished.
1786. *Sept. 14.* Connecticut claim relinquished.
1787. *July 13.* Ordinance for Territory Northwest of the Ohio. **Slavery prohibited.**
1800. *May 7.* **Indiana Territory** organized.
1816. *June 10–29.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
Dec. 11. **Admitted** to Union.
1850. *Oct. 7.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns February 10, 1851. **New constitution,** ratified by people, in force Nov. 1, 1851.
1911. *March 4.* Legislature frames a new constitution and submits it to people. Declared unconstitutional by State Supreme Court, July 5, 1912.
1914. *Nov. 3.* People reject calling of a constitutional convention.
1917. *Feb. 1.* Act for election of delegates to a constitutional convention. Declared null by State Supreme Court, July 13.

MISSISSIPPI (20).

Historical Outline.

Mississippi, the **"Bayou State,"** was a part of French Louisiana, then of the British dominions; and was included in the United States under the Treaty of 1783, except the extreme southern part, which was in West Florida. Most of it was organized as the Mississippi Territory in 1798, and it was admitted as a State in 1817.

During the **Civil War** numerous battles were fought on its territory, including Corinth, Vicksburg, and Holly Springs.

The present **constitution,** adopted in 1890, was designed to preserve the white supremacy, voters being required to prove the payment of taxes for the two years previous to the election, and to read and interpret the Constitution of the United States. **In politics** Mississippi has been Democratic, except in 1835 when it was Whig, and during the Reconstruction period from 1870 to 1876. Its best-known public man was **Jefferson Davis,** United States Senator and later President of the Confederate States.

Because of the large colored population the **educational problems** are difficult. White and colored children are taught at separate schools, but there is no compulsory education law. Among the universities and colleges are the (State) University of Mississippi, the Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, Mississippi Industrial Institute and College, Mississippi and Meridian colleges, and Rust College for Negroes.

The alluvial river bottoms are very rich, and the chief **agricultural products** are cotton, corn, oats, and hay.

Chronology.

1699. French **settlement** begins at Biloxi; part of Louisiana.
1732. *June 9.* **Charter** of Georgia, extending to Pacific Ocean, covers portion of region.
1763. *Feb. 10.* France cedes eastern Louisiana to Great Britain.
Oct. 7. British West Florida proclaimed; covers portion of Mississippi.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Retrocession of West Florida to Spain; balance of Mississippi becomes **part of United States;** dividing line disputed.
1795. *Oct. 27.* Spain cedes claim north of 31°.
1798. *April 7.* **Mississippi Territory** created.
1802. *April 24.* Georgia relinquishes claims. Added to Mississippi Territory.
1803. *April 30.* Louisiana Purchase Treaty, under which U. S. claims Spanish West Florida.
1813. *Feb. 12.* Act for American occupation of Mississippi portion of West Florida. Added to Mississippi Territory.
1817. *July 7–Aug. 15.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
Dec. 10. **Admitted** to Union.
1832. *Sept. 10–Oct. 26.* Second constitutional convention. Amended constitution not submitted to people.
1861. *Jan. 7–March 30.* Third constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** January 9. Amendments not submitted to people.
1865. *Aug. 14–24.* Fourth constitutional convention. **Slavery abolished** August 21; secession declared null and void August 22. Amendments not submitted to people.

1868. *Jan. 7–May 15.* Fifth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention. New constitution rejected by people June 28, but accepted at second election December 1.
1870. *Feb. 23.* **Readmitted** to Union.
1890. *Aug. 12–Nov. 1.* Sixth constitutional convention. New constitution not submitted to people.

ILLINOIS (21).

Historical Outline.

ILLINOIS is popularly known as the **"Prairie State"** and the **"Sucker State."**

The first Europeans to set foot within the present limits of the State were the **French explorers** La Salle (1670) and Marquette and Joliet (1673), who reached the Illinois River and established trading posts as early as 1682. A few French inhabitants drifted in and lived in harmony with the Indians. For a long time the Illinois country was included in the Louisiana government. In 1763 this region was ceded by France to England and later claimed by Virginia by virtue of George Rogers Clark's expedition. This imperfect claim was yielded in 1784 by Virginia; and also the claims of Massachusetts and Connecticut by those States in 1785–86. In 1787 it became a part of the **Northwest Territory**; then of Indiana Territory; then was organized as the separate territory of Illinois in 1809, and finally was admitted as a State in 1818.

The State rapidly filled up and great enterprise was shown, but such heavy indebtedness was incurred for internal improvements that its credit was imperiled. In 1847 the people restored their credit by subjecting themselves to a heavy tax. The growth of the State was accelerated by the opening of the Erie Canal and the Great Lakes route and by the government grant of land for the Illinois Central Railroad in 1850, so that by 1870 the State ranked **first in railway mileage.**

In 1850 began the great German immigration, together with a small Irish element, and in the next ten years the population doubled. In the succeeding decade, in spite of the drain of the Civil War, it tripled. Chicago, the metropolis, a city of 30,000 in 1850 rose to over 300,000 in 1870. In 1871 the city was almost totally destroyed by fire, but rapidly recovered and is now the second city in the United States, with a population (1920) of 2,701,705.

The "Prairie State's" **great wealth** is still mainly in farms, the chief crops being corn, wheat, oats, and hay. It is also a great industrial State, ranking third in the value of its manufactured products, and leading in slaughtering and meat packing. Other important products besides meat are foundry and machine-shop products, clothing, iron and steel, and agricultural implements. Illinois ranks third after Pennsylvania and Ohio in mineral output, the chief products being coal, petroleum, natural gas, and zinc. On the Great Lakes a large fleet of steamers carries coal, ore, and cereals.

Education is free and compulsory for children between 7 and 14, and the school system is excellent. There are 6 public normal schools and more than 25 colleges and universities, the largest of which is the **University of Chicago,** with over 9,000 students. The **University of Illinois** ranks second, with over 7,000 students, and **Northwestern University** has over 4,000. Among the other institutions may be mentioned Illinois Wesleyan, Loyola, De Paul, and James Millikin universities; Knox, Lake Forest, Illinois, Eureka, Northwestern, and Illinois Woman's colleges; and the Armour Institute of Technology.

The **constitution** adopted in 1870 (a constitutional convention sat in 1920) provides for a legislature meeting biennially, consisting of a Senate of 51 chosen for four years from districts based on population, and a House of Representatives containing three representatives from each Senatorial district. For representatives each elector has three votes, which he may cast for three candidates or divide as he wishes.

Illinois is a **doubtful State politically** and has alternated between the Democratic and Republican parties in recent presidential elections. In State politics it has also frequently changed parties. It was the home of one president, **Abraham Lincoln,** and of many **other national figures,** including Stephen A. Douglas and U. S. Grant.

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Region included in second charter of Virginia.
1629. *March 4.* Small portion of region included in charter of Massachusetts.
1662. *April 20.* Small portion of region included in charter of Connecticut.
1700. French **settlement** begins at Kaskaskia and Cahokia (approximate date). [ain.]
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim ceded to Great Brit-
1778. Conquest by Virginia troops under Clark.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Region becomes **part of United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1784. *March 1.* Virginia claim relinquished.
1785. *April 19.* Massachusetts claim relinquished.
1786. *Sept. 14.* Connecticut claim relinquished.
1787. *July 13.* Territory Northwest of the Ohio organized. Slavery prohibited.
1800. *May 7.* Included in Indiana Territory.
1809. *Feb. 3.* **Illinois Territory** organized.
1818. *Aug. 1–26.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
Dec. 3. **Admitted** to Union.
1823. Agitation for slavery; people defeat pro-slavery amendment.
1847. *June 7–Aug. 31.* Second constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people, March 5, 1848.
1869. *Dec. 13.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns May 13, 1870. New constitution, ratified by people, in force August 8, 1870.
1920. Fourth constitutional convention meets.

ALABAMA (22).

Historical Outline.

ALABAMA is popularly called the **"Cotton State."** The region was originally discovered by De Soto and other Spanish explorers, became English in 1763, and was included in the territory of Mississippi set up by the Union in 1798. It received territorial government in 1817, and was admitted as a State in 1819. Like most pioneer communities at that time the State favored the Democratic party and its senators and representatives have generally been Democrats, except for certain commercial centers which sometimes sent Whigs to Congress before the Civil War. Since then it has been consistently Democratic. William L. Yancey, senator and Confederate leader, was an Alabaman.

The present **constitution,** adopted in 1901, assures the political control of the whites by an educational qualification modified in favor of the whites by the so-called "grandfather clause." The sessions of the legislature were made quadrennial and sections were introduced providing for the regulation of corporations. In spite of strong Union sentiment in the Northern centers, Alabama seceded early in January in 1861.

Originally, and for many years, Alabama was agricultural and **cotton** is its chief product. But the extensive deposits of coal and iron are rapidly changing it to an industrial and manufacturing State. It already ranks **third in production of iron ore,** and in 1918 its production of coal increased 60 % and of coke 19% over the previous year. During the World War its industries rapidly developed, especially shipbuilding, both for completed hulls and plate mills for fabricated vessels. Atmospheric nitrogen has been produced at Muscle Shoals on the Tennessee River, where in the future the vast electric power will be utilized. At present the development is incomplete.

There are nearly 7,000 public elementary **schools,** with over half a million enrolled pupils; eight public normal schools, with over 2,000 students. Eleven institutions provide for **higher learning,** including the University of Alabama, under State control; Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute for colored people, founded by Booker T. Washington in 1880, with nearly 2,000 students; and Alabama Polytechnic Institute, St. Bernard, Howard, and Spring Hill colleges, and the Woman's College of Alabama.

Chronology.

1702. French **settlement** begins at Mobile (old site); part of Louisiana.
1732. *June 9.* Charter of Georgia, extending to Pacific Ocean, covers portion of Alabama.
1763. *Feb. 10.* France cedes eastern Louisiana and Spain cedes Florida to Great Britain.
Oct. 7. British West Florida proclaimed; covers southern portion of Alabama.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Retrocession of West Florida to Spain; balance of Alabama becomes **part of United States;** dividing line disputed.
1795. *Oct. 27.* Spain cedes claim north of 31°.
1798. *April 7.* Mississippi Territory created.
1802. *April 24.* Georgia relinquishes claim. Added to Mississippi Territory.
1803. *April 30.* Louisiana Purchase Treaty, under which United States claims Spanish West Florida.
1813. *Feb. 12.* Act for American occupation of Alabama portion of West Florida. Added to Mississippi Territory.
1817. *March 3.* **Alabama Territory** created.
1819. *July 5–Aug. 2.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
Dec. 14. **Admitted** to Union.
1861. *Jan. 7–March 20.* Second constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** January 11. Amendments not submitted to people.
1865. *Sept. 12–30.* Third constitutional convention. Secession declared null and void; **slavery abolished.** Amended constitution not submitted to people.
1867. *Nov. 5–Dec. 6.* Fourth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention. New constitution fails of ratification, February 8, 1868, but is imposed on the State by Congress.
1868. *July 20.* **Readmitted** to Union.
1875. *Sept. 6–Oct. 2.* Fifth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force December 6.
1901. *May 21–Sept. 3.* Sixth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force November 28.

MAINE (23).

Historical Outline.

MAINE is called the **"Pine-Tree State"** and the **"Lumber State."** The coast was visited by French explorers and in 1607 an attempt was made at a settlement near the mouth of the Kennebec River. The **first** permanent **settlements** made by the English were at Monhegan and Saco about 1622. Since Maine was the frontier, invasion was easy, and during the colonial wars it was frequently raided. Many settlers came from Massachusetts, by which Commonwealth the title was bought in 1678, although control had been exercised since 1652. During the Revolution British vessels made descents upon the coast and burned Falmouth, now Portland.

Until 1820 Maine was recognized as a district of Massachusetts. In the War of 1812 British forces invaded and took possession of Castine. Maine was admitted to the Union in 1820 by consent of the parent State. For a long time the boundary between Maine and the British possessions was in dispute, but this was settled by the treaty of 1842.

The **constitution** of Maine, adopted in 1819 and soon amended, provides for a House of Representatives of 151 chosen every two years, and a Senate of 31, which meets biennially, and a governor elected for two years.

The **educational standards** of Maine are high, a school fund having been established in 1828 by setting aside 20 townships of public land. Education is free between the years of 5 and 21 and compulsory between 5 and 14. There are nearly 200 public high schools, 7 public normal schools, and four colleges and institutions of **higher education,** — the University of Maine, Bowdoin College, founded in 1794, Bates College, and Colby College.

The **chief products** of Maine are hay, potatoes, and oats; also, granite, in which Maine ranks third of the New England States, and sea food — chiefly lobsters, cod, and herring. Its forests are large and important. The first growth of pine has been cut off, but the land gradually reforests.

Before the Civil War Maine was generally Democratic, since then Republican. It furnished to national politics Vice President Hamlin. Its most renowned **statesmen** have been James G. Blaine and Thomas B. Reed.

Chronology.

1622. *Aug. 10.* **Grant** of province of Maine to Gorges and Mason. Various **settlements** started in next few years. [covering part of Maine.]
1639. *April 3.* Gorges obtains a royal charter
1664. *March 12.* Grant of Maine north of the Kennebec to Duke of York.
1678. *March 15.* By purchase of Gorges grant Massachusetts fixes her control on southern portion of Maine. [by charter.]
1691. *Oct. 7.* Maine **included in Massachusetts.**
1819. *Oct. 29.* Separate state **constitution** framed; adopted by people, December 6.
1820. *March 15.* Admitted as a separate State, Massachusetts having given consent, February 25.

MISSOURI (24).

Historical Outline.

MISSOURI has been called the **"Bullion State"** because of the advocacy by Senator Thomas H. Benton of gold and silver currency.

The country now occupied by the State was visited by Marquette and Joliet in 1683, who gave the **name** "Missouri," or "Muddy Water," to the river and the country bordering it. It was annexed to the United States as a portion of the Louisiana Purchase and became the District of Louisiana in 1804. The district was organized as Louisiana Territory in 1805, and in 1812 its name was changed to Missouri Territory. In 1817 it applied for admission to the Union. This request gave rise to a bitter controversy over the slavery question, which was finally decided by the famous **Missouri Compromise** of 1820 and 1821, by which Missouri was admitted as a slave State, but slavery was prohibited "forever" in the rest of the Louisiana cession north of 36° 30'. Although distinctly a Southern State, the slave-holding interest was unable to carry it into secession and the Missouri government remained loyal to the Union.

The **constitution** adopted in 1875 is the third and has been frequently amended, recently to provide for direct legislation. In the House of Representatives the larger counties are discriminated against in favor of the smaller ones, and the representatives are chosen for two years. For the Senate the State is divided into 34 districts, approximately equal in population, each choosing one senator for a term of

four years, one half the number being chosen biennially.

In politics Missouri was almost uniformly Democratic, with the exception of the Civil War period, until 1904, when the Republicans succeeded in electing most of their ticket. The Republicans carried the State for president again in 1908, but the Democrats in 1912 and 1916. Missouri, therefore, may now be ranked as a doubtful State. Its most distinguished men have been the Blairs, father and son, and Thomas H. Benton.

School attendance is compulsory for children from eight to fourteen years for not less than three fourths of the school term. There are over 600 public high schools and seven public normal schools, together with about a dozen institutions of **higher learning,** among which may be mentioned the University of Missouri, Washington University, and St. Louis University; and William Jewell, Park, Missouri Wesleyan, and Central Wesleyan colleges.

Agriculture is still the **chief occupation** of the State, the more important crops being wheat, oats, potatoes, and, in the south, cotton. Missouri **leads** all other States **in** the production of **zinc and lead** and has large deposits of coal. In manufacturing Missouri ranks tenth, its chief industries being slaughtering and meat packing, boot and shoe making, flour and gristmilling.

Chronology.

1735. French **settlement** begins at Sainte Genevieve (approximate date). [to Spain.]
1762. *Nov. 3.* French claim to region conveyed]
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession to France.
1803. *April 30.* Ceded to **United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* District of Louisiana authorized.
1805. *March 3.* Louisiana **Territory** organized.
1812. *June 4.* Name changed to **Missouri Territory.**
1820. *March 3.* Missouri Compromise permits admission as slave State.
June 12–July 19. First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
November. Missouri casts votes for presidential electors.
1821. *Aug. 10.* **Admitted** to Union.
1836. *June 7.* Increase in territory.
1845. *Nov. 7.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns January 14, 1846. People reject the draft constitution.
1861–1865. During Civil War several battles are fought in Missouri (Wilson's Creek, Springfield, etc.) and there is a long period of "bushwhacking."
1861. *Feb. 28.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns July 1, 1863. Amendments not submitted to people. Ordinance of July 1, 1863, provides for gradual emancipation.
1865. *Jan. 6–April 10.* Fourth constitutional convention. Ordinance abolishing slavery passed January 11. New constitution, ratified by people, in force July 4.
1875. *May 5–Aug. 2.* Fifth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force November 30.

ARKANSAS (25).

Historical Outline.

ARKANSAS, sometimes called the **"Bear State,"** originally a portion of the Louisiana Territory, received territorial organization in 1819 and was admitted as a State in 1836. In was closely connected with the best of the Southern interests and seceded May 6, 1861. For several years after the war, it was the scene of acute political conflict. The present **constitution,** adopted in 1874, has been frequently amended, but an attempt to adopt a new constitution extending the suffrage to women and establishing state-wide prohibition was defeated in 1918. Like other Southern States Arkansas has been backward in **education,** but in 1907 a comprehensive system was established providing for compulsory education. No child under 14 can be employed in a manufacturing establishment unless he attends school 12 weeks in a year and can read and write English. There are two public **normal schools** and eight **colleges,** the largest being the University of Arkansas, a State institution; Ouachita, Arkansas, Hendrix, Henderson-Brown, and Philander Smith colleges are of importance.

Arkansas is an **agricultural State,** the chief crops being cotton, corn, wheat, and hay. The State has a large coal area and manganese ores, lead, and bauxite (for aluminium) are found. The chief industries are lumbering and the production of cottonseed oil and oil cake.

Chronology.

1685 or **1686.** French **settlement** begins at Arkansas Post. [to Spain.]
1762. *Nov. 3.* French claims to region conveyed]
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana.
1805. *March 3.* Louisiana Territory organized.
1812. *June 4.* Missouri Territory succeeds Louisiana Territory.
1819. *March 2.* **Arkansas Territory** organized.
1836. *Jan. 4–30.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
June 15. **Admitted** to Union.
1861. *March 4–June 3.* Second constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** May 6. Amendments not submitted to people.
1864. *Jan. 4–23.* Third (loyal) constitutional convention. Amended constitution, **abolishing slavery,** ratified by popular vote March 14.
1868. *Jan. 7–Feb. 14.* Fourth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people in March.
June 22. **Readmitted** to Union.
1874. *July 14–Sept. 7.* Fifth constitutional convention. Revised constitution, ratified by people, in force October 30.
1917. *Nov. 17.* Sixth constitutional convention meets. New constitution rejected by people December 14, 1918.

MICHIGAN (26).

Historical Outline.

MICHIGAN is popularly known as the **"Wolverine State"** and also, sometimes, as the **"Lake State."**

The shores of Lake Michigan were partly explored by French traders and missionaries between 1634 and 1640, and the **first settlement** was made by Marquette at Sault Sainte Marie in 1668. In 1701 a military post was planted at Detroit by Cadillac which in 1760, during the French and Indian War, fell into the hands of the English. By the Treaty of 1763 the English were given possession of all this region, but they had to fight for it with Pontiac, an Indian chief.

By the Treaty of 1783 the country was acknowledged a part of the United States and was included later in the Northwest Territory. In 1805 Michigan was erected into a separate territory and became a State (1837) after a sharp dispute with Ohio concerning the boundary. The Upper Peninsula was added by Congress as a mollifier.

The present **constitution,** adopted in 1908, provides for a Senate of 32 and a House of Representatives of not fewer than 64 nor more than 100, elected for two years on the basis of decennial apportionments of the population. The governor is also chosen for two years. Both amendments to the constitution and laws may be made and proposed by the **initiative;** and all elected officers except judges are subject to **recall.**

Since the organization of the Republican party the State has been Republican, except in 1892 when five of its electors were Democratic; and in 1912 when it followed the Progressive party. All the United States senators and a majority of the members of Congress have always been Republican. In State politics the governors have always been Republican since 1856. The most renowned Michigan statesman was **Lewis Cass.**

Michigan is one of the foremost States in **education** and has an excellent system of schools, with compulsory attendance for children from 7 to 16. The State also has six normal schools. There is a State university (**University of Michigan**) at Ann Arbor, founded in 1841 and now having nearly 7,000 students. Albion, Hope, Hillsdale, and Kalamazoo colleges, the University of Detroit, and Michigan Agricultural College are other **higher institutions of learning.**

The State is **largely agricultural;** the chief crops being oats, corn, wheat, hay, potatoes, and sugar beets. Michigan ranks sixth in the production of **mineral wealth;** the chief products being iron, copper, and coal; and the total mineral output was valued in 1918 at more than $199,000,000. The industries of the State are chiefly connected with lumber and automobiles; of the latter Michigan produces about three fourths of the entire output in the United States. Other important industries are foundry and machine work, flour and gristmilling, furniture manufacture, copper smelting, and the production of beet sugar.

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Region included in second charter of Virginia.
1629. *March 4.* Portion of region included in charter of Massachusetts.
1662. *April 20.* Small portion of region included in charter of Connecticut.
1701. French **settlement** begins at Detroit. Missions and forts at Sault Sainte Marie and Michilimackinac earlier. [ain.]
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim ceded to Great Brit-]
1783. *Sept. 3.* Becomes **part of United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1784. *March 1.* Virginia claim relinquished.
1785. *April 19.* Massachusetts claim relinquished.
1786. *Sept. 14.* Connecticut claim relinquished.
1787. *July 13.* Territory Northwest of the Ohio organized. **Slavery prohibited.**
1800. *May 7.* Western portion included in Indiana Territory.
1805. *Jan. 11.* **Michigan Territory** organized over eastern portion.
1809. *Feb. 3.* Western portion divided between Indiana and Illinois territories.
1818. *April 18.* Balance of region added to Michigan Territory.
1835. *May 11–June 29.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Nov. 2.
1837. *Jan. 26.* **Admitted** to Union.
1850. *June 3–Aug. 15.* Second constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1851.
1907. *Oct. 22.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns March 3, 1908. New constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1909.

FLORIDA (27).

Historical Outline.

FLORIDA is called the **"Peninsular State"** and also the **"Everglade State."**

The southeastern peninsula of North America was discovered in 1512 by Ponce de León in the search for gold and the Fountain of Youth. The **oldest** permanent existing European **settlement in America** was made at **Saint Augustine** in 1565, an expedition from which destroyed a colony of French Huguenots who, in 1564, had built Fort Caroline, on the Saint Johns River. After the settlement of the Carolinas and Georgia there were frequent disputes and **frontier wars,** sometimes reflecting European conditions and sometimes representing local difficulties between the English and the Spaniards.

In 1763 Florida was ceded to England but was returned to Spain by the Treaty of 1783. Its position rendered it an asylum for runaway slaves and a basis of operations for hostile Indians. When the **Seminole War** broke out in 1818 the Spanish authorities in Florida were supposed to give aid to the Indians, and Andrew Jackson, in command of the United States forces, acting without orders crossed the border and carried on the war there. In 1819 the **United States bought Florida from Spain** for $5,000,000. It was organized as a territory in 1822 and admitted as a State in 1845.

The Reconstruction **constitution** of Florida provided for a cabinet system, but it was soon discontinued. The present constitution was adopted in 1885 and provides for a governor, elected for four years; a bicameral legislature; a lower house, elected every two years; and a Senate of 32, one half being elected every two years; holding office for four years. The constitution provides for the **Australian ballot** with nonpartisan tickets, thus controlling the Negro vote. School attendance is not compulsory, and separate schools are provided for white children and colored children. **Higher education** is provided for by the (State) University of Florida, the Florida State College for Women, and, among others, the John B. Stetson University and Southern and Rollins colleges.

Agriculture is pursued in all parts of the State, the chief products being pineapples, oranges, grapefruit, and tobacco. The chief mineral wealth is phosphate rock. The extensive fisheries include sponges, of which Florida has almost a monopoly. The attractive climate of Florida has made it a famous winter resort, and considerable immigration has come from the North.

Chronology.

1565. Spanish **settlement** at Saint Augustine.
1763. *Feb. 10.* Spain cedes region to Great Britain.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Retrocession to Spain
1819. *Feb. 22.* Ceded to **United States.**
March 3. Act to authorize president to form temporary government.
1822. *March 30.* **Florida Territory** organized.
1838. *Dec. 3.* First constitutional convention meets. Adjourns January 11, 1839. **Constitution** not submitted to people.
1845. *March 3.* **Admitted** to Union.
1861. *Jan. 3–April 27.* Second constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** January 10. Amendments not submitted to people.
1865. *Oct. 25–Nov. 7.* Third constitutional convention. Secession annulled October 28; **slavery abolished.** Amended constitution not submitted to people.
1868. *Jan. 20–Feb. 25.* Fourth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people May 6
July 11. **Readmitted** to Union.
1885. *June 9–Aug. 3.* Fifth constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1887.

TEXAS (28).

Historical Outline.

THE coast of TEXAS, the **"Lone-Star State,"** was included by the Spaniards in their earliest claims but the first settlement was made by the French in 1685. This, however, was only short-lived. The

Spanish occupation did not begin until 1715. When the United States bought Louisiana from France in 1803 it claimed that Texas was included in the purchase, but the title remained uncertain until the Florida purchase in 1819, when the United States relinquished any right it might have to the territory west of the Sabine River.

Texas became a **province** of the republic of **Mexico** when that country revolted from Spanish rule. Meanwhile a considerable immigration from the United States had taken place, and Texas won its independence from Mexico by the decisive battle of **San Jacinto** (1836), at which General **Sam Houston,** the first president of Texas, commanded.

Texas was recognized by the United States and several European powers as an independent state, and sought annexation to the United States. This was favored by the slaveholding interests of the South and was accomplished in 1845 by joint resolution. By this annexation the United States was involved in a boundary dispute with Mexico. The Mexican War followed (1846), during which Mexico was invaded and its capital captured. As a result the **southern boundary** of Texas was established at the **Rio Grande.**

The present **constitution** of Texas, adopted in 1876, provides for a legislature consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives, fixed respectively at 31 senators and 150 representatives. Senators are elected for four years, one half biennially; the representatives, for two years. Reapportionment is required after each Federal census. The governor is elected biennially.

Texas has been almost uniformly a Democratic State since admission, except for a short period during Reconstruction. Its most distinguished citizen was **Sam Houston,** president of the Lone-Star Republic

The constitution requires the legislature to provide an "efficient **system of free public schools**" and for that purpose vast quantities of public land and portions of other taxes and revenue have been appropriated. Funds are apportioned to school districts annually on the basis of the school population. The employment of illiterate children under 14 years of age in factories is prohibited. There are 6 public normal schools and about 20 institutions of **higher learning,** the most important of which is the **University of Texas.** Among the others may be mentioned the Agricultural and Mechanical College, Texas Christian University, Baylor, Trinity, Dallas, Southern Methodist, and Southwestern universities, Simmons, Austin, Baylor Female, and Howard Payne colleges, the College of Industrial Arts (women), and Rice Institute.

Texas is **one of the most important agricultural States** in the Union The total value of farm property is nearly $3,000,000,000 and some of the arid region is being reclaimed through irrigation. The most important crops are cotton, corn, wheat, oats, and rice. The State has a **great live-stock industry** and the wool clip amounts to over 10,000,000 pounds. Texas ranks second among the States in the production of mercury; coal is also of great importance. The most important mineral production, however, is **petroleum.** The chief manufacturing industries are meat packing, flour and gristmilling, lumbering and sawmilling, and the manufacture of cottonseed oil and oil cake.

Chronology.

1685–1687. La Salle attempts a French settlement at Matagorda Bay. French claim to Texas as part of Louisiana.
1690. Beginning of **Spanish settlement;** province of Mexico (New Spain).
1803. *April 30.* United States, by Louisiana Purchase Treaty, acquires French claim.
1810. Beginning of Mexican struggle for independence from Spain.
1819. *Feb. 22.* United States claim to Texas relinquished by treaty with Spain. [settlement.]
1821. *Dec. 21.* Beginning of **Anglo-American**
1827. *March 11.* Constitution of the (Mexican) State of Coahuila and Texas. Adopted by the State Congress.
1835. *Nov. 13.* Provisional constitution put in force by Assembly.
1836. *March 1–17.* (Independent) constitutional convention. Declaration of independence from Mexico, March 2. Constitution as separate nation (Republic of Texas) not submitted to people.
Dec. 19. Act of Texan Congress asserting Rio Grande as boundary, to its source.
1845. *March 1.* Resolution of **United States** Congress for **annexation.** Accepted by Texas July 4.
July 4–Aug. 27. First State constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people October 13.
Dec. 29. **Admitted** as State of Union.
1848. *Feb. 2.* Boundary with Mexico established by **Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.**
1850. *Sept. 9.* Texas cedes (sells for $10,000,000) her claims to territory east of the upper Rio Grande beyond the present limits of the State, to be included in the new territory of New Mexico. (Part of Compromise of 1850.)
1861. *Jan. 28–March 25.* Second constitutional convention. Ordinance of **secession** February 1; ratified by people February 23. Amendments not submitted to people.
1865. *Dec. 18.* **Slavery abolished** by Federal Thirteenth Amendment.
1866. *Feb. 7–April 2.* Third constitutional convention. Secession declared null and void, March 15. Amended **constitution,** abolishing slavery, ratified by people June 4.
1868. *June 1.* Fourth (Reconstruction) constitutional convention meets. Adjourns February 6, 1869. New constitution ratified by people Dec. 3.
1870. *March 30.* **Readmitted** to Union.
1875. *Sept. 6–Nov. 24.* Fifth constitutional convention. New constitution ratified by people February 17, 1876.

IOWA (29).

Historical Outline.

Iowa takes its name from an Indian tribal name (said to mean "Sleepy Ones"). It is often called by the nickname of the **"Hawkeye State."** It was a part of the Louisiana Purchase of 1803. The **first settler** was probably Julien Dubuque, in 1788, but permanent occupation did not begin until 1830. In 1833 the Iowa country was opened up by the Black Hawk Purchase and settlers came from all parts of the Union. For a time part of Missouri Territory, Iowa was organized as a separate territory in 1838 and admitted to the Union in 1846.

The constitution adopted in 1857 provides for a legislature consisting of a Senate of 50, elected for four years, and a House of Representatives of 108, elected for two years; also, a governor, elected for two years. Local government was organized on the county-township or commissioner plan. Beginning in 1913 several cities adopted the **commission** form of **government.**

School attendance is compulsory for 16 consecutive weeks annually during the school age (7 to 16). In the State there are 25 **universities and colleges,** the largest being the (State) University of Iowa. Others are the Iowa State College, Iowa State Teachers College, Drake University, and Grinnell, Simpson, Cornell, Coe, Ellsworth, Des Moines, and Morningside colleges.

Iowa is **preëminently an agricultural State,** and its farm property is valued at over $4,000,000,000. The chief crops are wheat, oats, barley, rye, and hay. The State also has live-stock industry, and its wool clip yields nearly 5,000,000 pounds. There are large productive coal fields, and the output of clay products and cement is important. The chief manufacturing industries are meat packing, butter making, flour and gristmilling, and foundry and machine work.

In **politics** Iowa has been with few exceptions Republican. Its most distinguished statesman was Senator **William B. Allison.**

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* French claim conveyed to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession to France.
1803. *April 30.* Ceded to **United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821). [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery forbidden** by Missouri [tory.]
1830–1833. **Settlement begins.**
1834. *June 28.* Region added to Michigan Terri-
1836. *April 20.* Included in Wisconsin Territory.
1838. *June 12.* **Iowa Territory** organized.
1844. *Oct. 7–Nov. 1.* First constitutional convention. Draft constitution rejected by people August 4, 1845.
1846. *May 4–18.* Second constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people August 3.
Dec. 28. **Admitted** to Union.
1857. *Jan. 19–March 5.* Third constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force September 3.

WISCONSIN (30).

Historical Outline.

Wisconsin, **"the Badger State,"** was visited by Jean Nicolet in 1634, but the **first permanent settlement** was not made until 1717. The country formed a part of the Northwest Territory, then of Michigan Territory; in 1836 it became a separate territory, and was admitted as a State in 1848.

The **constitution** adopted in 1848, though greatly amended, is still in force. It provides for a governor elected biennially; also, a legislature consisting of an Assembly to number between 54 and 100 and a Senate to be between one third and one fourth as numerous, elected biennially. Electoral districts are arranged according to the Federal decennial census, and are to be as compact as possible.

The constitution providing for a State university, the **University of Wisconsin** was founded in 1848 and is now one of the most important educational institutions in the United States, having over 5,000 students. Other important institutions are Beloit, Lawrence, Ripon, and Campion colleges, and Marquette University. **School attendance** is compulsory for all children between 7 and 14 in cities during the entire school year and in towns and villages for six months a year. Where industrial or continuation schools are established, children between 14 and 17 who are regularly employed must attend such schools.

Wisconsin is **largely an agricultural State,** farm property being valued at nearly $2,000,000,000. The most important crops are oats, corn, barley, and wheat. It has a large live-stock industry, and the wool clip amounts to over 2,000,000 pounds. Zinc is the most important mineral, but the production of iron ore and the manufacture of pig iron are extensive. The most important manufactures are cheese, butter, and condensed milk, foundry and machine-shop products, lumber, and leather.

The Democratic party was formerly strong in Wisconsin, but during recent years the Republican party has controlled the State, and under the lead of Senator **La Follette** passed many progressive, if not radical, measures, particularly in the regulation of railroads and corporations and taxation. With the exception of 1892 and 1912 Wisconsin has voted for Republican presidents.

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Region included in second charter of Virginia. [ter of Massachusetts.]
1629. *March 4.* Portion of region included in char-
1673. Marquette and Joliet cross Wisconsin.
1717. **First** permanent **settlement.**
1745. **French settlement begins** at Green Bay. Mission there in 1670.
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim ceded to Great Britain.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Becomes **part of United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1784. *March 1.* Virginia claim relinquished.
1785. *April 19.* Massachusetts claim relinquished.
1787. *July 13.* **Territory** Northwest of the Ohio organized. **Slavery prohibited.**
1800. *May 7.* Included in Indiana Territory.
1809. *Feb. 3.* Included in Illinois Territory.
1818. *April 18.* Added to Michigan Territory.
1836. *April 20.* **Wisconsin Territory** organized.
1847. *Dec. 15.* First constitutional convention meets. Adjourns February 1, 1848. **Constitution** ratified by people March 13, 1848.
1848. *May 29.* **Admitted** to Union.

CALIFORNIA (31).

Historical Outline.

California, the **"Golden State"** or **"El Dorado,"** was coasted by the Spaniards between 1537 and 1542 and named after the imaginary kingdom of the Amazons of Spanish romance. Sir Francis Drake for the English visited the coast in 1579, but the English did not enforce their claims. No permanent settlements were made within the present limits of the State until the Franciscan missions were established, beginning in 1769; through these the Spanish culture and language were extended to the Indians. When Mexico became independent, California remained one of its provinces, but was brought into the possession of the United States in 1846–1847 through conquest by military and naval forces in the Mexican War. By the treaty with Mexico the United States retained possession of California.

In 1848 placer **gold was discovered** in quantities by Marshall at Sutter's Mill, near the spot where Coloma village now stands. Adventurers of all sorts soon were flocking to the new country (see FORTY-NINER, in the *Dictionary*), and within four years the population reached a quarter of a million.

California was admitted as a free State as part of the Compromise of 1850. In 1906 large portions of San Francisco were destroyed by **fire** following an **earthquake.** The city government at the time attempted to turn this disaster to its profit. Public indignation was stirred throughout the State and a reform movement initiated which bore fruit in the constitutional amendments of 1911.

The present **constitution,** adopted in 1879, has been frequently amended; most radically in 1911 and 1914, in the way of providing more **popular control** of the government and regulating corporations and railroads. The legislature consists of a House of Representatives of 80 members elected for two years and a Senate of 40 elected for four years, one half retiring every two years. Legislative sessions are divided into two parts. In the first, which may not exceed thirty days, and must be followed by an adjournment of at least 30 days, no bill may be introduced except by permission of a three-fourths majority. The governor is elected for a term of four years. Provisions are made for the **initiative, referendum, and recall** of all elected officers, including the judges.

The **educational system** is excellent, under the inspection and classification of the State university, which adopted the accrediting system in 1884. School attendance is compulsory for children between 8 and 15 for at least five months in each year. There are **three large universities,** the University of California, Leland Stanford Junior University, and the University of Southern California. There are also a number of smaller institutions, such as Pomona and Occidental colleges, College of the Pacific, and Throop College of Technology.

Since the Civil War California has been Democratic five times, Republican seven times, and Progressive once in State elections. In national **politics** it has been normally Republican, although in 1880, 1892, and 1916 it went Democratic and in 1912, Progressive.

The **agricultural products** of California have an annual value of over a hundred and fifty million dollars. Its diversified climate, extending from the temperate to the subtropical, is favorable to products of great variety, including not only the cereals, but subtropical fruits, citrous fruits, and the best European varieties of grapes. California has **great resources** of gold, silver, copper, lead, and quicksilver and produces **more oil** than any other State save Oklahoma. Its chief manufacturing industries are canning and preserving, flour milling, and oil refining.

Chronology.

1542–1543. Voyage of Cabrillo and Ferrer begins Spanish claim to region.
1769. Spanish **settlement** begins at San Diego; a province of Mexico. San Francisco Bay discovered. [ence.]
1810. Beginning of Mexican struggle for independ-
1846. American military occupation.
1848. *Jan. 24.* Discovery of placer **gold** in quantities at Sutter's Mill; great inflow of adventurers begins ("forty-niners").
Feb. 2. Ceded to **United States** by Mexico; Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
1849. *Sept. 1–Oct. 13.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Nov. 13.
1850. *Sept. 9.* **Admitted** to Union.
1878. *Sept. 28.* Second constitutional convention meets. Adjourns March 3, 1879. New constitution, ratified by people, in force January 1, 1880.

MINNESOTA (32).

Historical Outline.

Minnesota is generally known by the nickname of **"Gopher State,"** although it is also sometimes called the **"New England of the West"** and the **"Northern-Star State."**

The region of Minnesota, or "Cloudy Water," was first visited by La Salle and Hennepin in 1680. The State lies on both sides of the Mississippi and its territory lay partly in the old Northwest Territory and partly in the Louisiana Purchase. It was organized as a territory in 1849 and admitted as a State in 1858. In 1862 the State suffered severely from a rising of the Sioux Indians, when over 700 settlers were massacred.

The present **constitution** was adopted in 1858 and has been frequently amended. Since 1898 amendments have been difficult, since the process requires a majority of all those voting at the election. The constitution provides for a governor elected for two years, whose executive power is shared with a large number of officials and commissioners; a legislature consisting of a Senate of 67 chosen for four years from senatorial districts and a House of Representatives of 130 members chosen biennially from the same districts in proportion to the population. Minnesota was the first State to adopt a compulsory **primary election law** applicable to the whole State.

Politically Minnesota has been Republican with pronounced Independent tendencies, although the Democrats have occasionally elected the governor. In national elections it has been Republican since its admission to the Union, with the exception of 1912. Among its **public men** have been Secretary of the Treasury William Windom and Sen. Nelson.

The State has a good **public school system,** both elementary and high, and 6 public normal schools. The **University of Minnesota** heads the State educational system. Other important higher institutions are St. Olaf College, St. John's University, Hamline University, and Carleton and Macalester colleges.

Minnesota is **chiefly an agricultural** State, the main crops being oats, corn, and wheat. Live stock raising is important and the wool clip is nearly three million pounds. It contains immensely **valuable iron mines,** chiefly red hematite in the Mesaba and Vermilion ranges. The most important manufactured product is flour. Minneapolis is one of the most important centers of the **grain trade,** and Duluth is an important port.

Chronology.

1609. *May 23.* Portion east of Mississippi actively claimed by Virginia under second charter.
1670. *May 2.* Northern portion included in charter of English Hudson's Bay Company.
1680. Hennepin's exploration of upper Mississippi River. [sippi conveyed to Spain.]
1762. *Nov. 3.* French claim west of the Missis-
1763. *Feb. 10.* French claim east of the Mississippi ceded to Great Britain; also the northern portion within present State limits, as a part of Canada.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Portion east of the Mississippi becomes **part of United States** by Treaty of Paris.
1784. *March 1.* Virginia claim relinquished.
1787. *July 13.* Territory Northwest of the Ohio organized over portion east of the Mississippi. Slavery prohibited.
1800. *May 7.* Eastern portion included in Indiana Territory. [France by Spain.]
Oct. 1. Retrocession of western portion to
1803. *April 30.* **Western portion** ceded **to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Western portion included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821). [nois Territory.]
1809. *Feb. 3.* Eastern portion included in Illi-
1814. *Dec. 24.* Commission to delimitate Canadian boundary provided by Treaty of Ghent. Commission disagrees. Line finally prescribed by treaty of August 9, 1842 (**Ashburton Treaty**).
1817–1822. Commission of 1814 describes northern boundary of Minnesota. [gan Territory.]
1818. *April 18.* Eastern portion included in Michi-
1820. Permanent American **occupation** begins at Fort Snelling.
March 3. **Slavery forbidden** in western portion by Missouri Compromise. [gan Territory.]
1834. *June 28.* Western portion added to Michi-
1836. *April 20.* Whole region included in Wisconsin Territory. [Territory.]
1838. *June 12.* Western portion included in Iowa
1849. *March 3.* **Minnesota Territory** organized.
1857. *July 13–Aug. 29.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Oct. 13.
1858. *May 11.* **Admitted** to Union.

OREGON (33).

Historical Outline.

Oregon, **"Sunset State"** or **"Webfoot State,"** is part of the area between former Russian and Mexican territory along the Pacific Coast, west of the continental divide. Between 1543 and 1792 the coast was visited by Spanish, Russian, British, and French explorers; and the mouth of the Columbia River was entered in 1792 by Captain Gray of Boston. In 1804 Jefferson sent out an exploring expedition under **Lewis and Clark,** which passed up the Missouri and thence to its headwaters across the mountains and down the Columbia to the Pacific Coast (1805). As a result, **John Jacob Astor** of New York founded a fur-trading post at **Astoria,** 1811. The Hudson's Bay Company of fur traders also established posts and the region of Oregon was claimed by both Great Britain and the United States as far north as 54° 40', where Russian Alaska came in. By a treaty of 1818 the citizens of Great Britain and the United States were free to occupy the country. In 1846 the present dividing line at 49° was determined. (See FIFTY-FOUR FORTY OR FIGHT and NORTHWEST BOUNDARY DISPUTE, in the *Dictionary.*)

Oregon was self-organized as a territory in 1843, regularly organized by Congress in 1848, and admitted as a State in 1859. The **constitution** then adopted has been frequently amended, particularly in 1902 by the establishment of the **initiative and referendum** for both constitutional amendments and the passage of laws. By utilizing this method, Oregon has attempted **radical solutions** for social and economic problems. The State, though normally Republican, has become Independent in State affairs, although it has remained Republican (except in 1912) in national affairs.

School attendance is compulsory for the full school term for children 9 to 15 years of age. There is a public normal school, an agricultural college (Oregon Agricultural College), and the University of Oregon, all supported by the State, and several smaller colleges, such as Reed College, Pacific University, and Willamette University, carried on by various denominations.

Oregon has one sixth of the standing **timber** in the United States, and its forest products are of great value. Other products are hay, potatoes, and wheat; the wool clip amounts to 15,000,000 pounds. The **fisheries** of salmon, sturgeon, halibut, and oysters are abundant. The mineral resources of the State are as yet not highly developed. The chief industries are lumbering, flour and gristmilling, slaughtering, and packing.

Chronology.

1543. Voyage of Ferrer begins Spanish claim to region. [to region.]
1778. Voyage of James Cook begins British claim
1792. *May 11.* Discovery of Columbia River by Gray begins **American claim to region.**
1804–1806. **Lewis and Clark Expedition:** further foundation of American claim.
1818. *Oct. 20.* **Joint** Anglo-American **occupation** of Oregon Country. [Country.]
1819. *Feb. 22.* Spain relinquishes claim to Oregon
1841. *Feb. 18.* Volunteer government of Oregon settlers; revised July 5, by a provisional constitution.
1843. First large immigration over **Oregon Trail,** accompanied by Dr. Marcus Whitman.
1846. *June 15.* **Great Britain relinquishes claim** to region.
1848. *Aug. 14.* **Oregon Territory** organized.
1857. *Aug. 17–Sept. 18.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Nov. 9.
1859. *Feb. 14.* **Admitted** to Union.

KANSAS (34).

Historical Outline.

Kansas, called the **"Sunflower State"** and **"Jayhawker State,"** was first made known by Coronado's expedition of 1540, and came into the United States as part of the Louisiana Cession. It was still almost an unknown land until the opening of the Oregon and Santa Fe trails, about 1835.

By the **Kansas-Nebraska Act** of 1854 part of the Louisiana Purchase was organized into the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, with the proviso that the inhabitants of these territories should choose for themselves whether the territory should be slave or free when admitted as a State.

Immediately emigrants began pouring into the country both from the North and the South, each section aiming to control the elections. The political conflict was so violent that at one time there were two governments and two capitals of Kansas, while from 1855 to 1857 actual civil war raged. The aid given by societies in the North stimulated emigration from that section and Kansas was **admitted as a free State** in 1861. There was border warfare during the Civil War.

The **constitution** (1859) has had few amendments, the most important being for **prohibition** (1880) and **woman's suffrage** (1912). The legislature consists of a Senate of 40 members elected for four years, and a House of Representatives of 125 elected for two years. Sessions are biennial. In State **politics** Kansas has been Republican with the exception of the Populist movement in 1890, 1892, and 1894. In national affairs it went Democratic in 1896 and in the three following State elections.

The State maintains the **University of Kansas,** with nearly four thousand students, and the Kansas State Agricultural College. Among the other institutions may be mentioned McPherson, Washburn, and Southwestern colleges, and Baker, Kansas City, and Ottawa universities.

Kansas is **preëminently agricultural,** the chief crops being corn, wheat, and hay. It has also a most extensive live-stock industry. There are large coal and oil fields and valuable deposits of zinc. The chief industries are flour and gristmilling, slaughtering, manufacturing of railway cars, and zinc smelting.

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* Region, as part of Louisiana, conveyed by France to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821). [souri Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery prohibited** by Mis-
1854. *May 30.* **Kansas Territory** organized. Open to slavery. Settlement begins at once.
1855. *Oct. 23 – Nov. 2.* First (free-State) constitution convention. Ratified by free-State settlers. Framed at Topeka. No action under it.
1857. *Sept. 5–Nov. 7.* Second (proslavery) constitutional convention. (Lecompton) Constitution rejected by people January 4, 1859.
1858. *March 23.* Third (free-State) constitutional convention meets. Adjourns April 3, 1859. Constitution drafted; no action under it.
1859. *July 5–29.* Fourth (free-State) constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people October 4.
1861. *Jan. 29.* **Admitted** to Union.

WEST VIRGINIA (35).

Historical Outline.

West Virginia, the **"Panhandle State,"** till 1861 part of the colony and State of Virginia, was admitted as a separate State in 1863. Its amended **constitution** (1872) provides for a governor and six other executive officials, elected once every four years, and a legislature of 30 senators and 86 representatives. In recent years the most vital **political questions** related to tax reforms and extension of State supervision and regulation. Although the re-

publicans have controlled the State in national elections since 1896 (with the exception of 1912), they have not had the same success in State politics.

Elementary **education** is compulsory between the ages of 8 and 14 and free for all between the ages of 6 and 21. There are 7 public normal schools and the (State) West Virginia University, West Virginia Wesleyan, Bethany, and Davis and Elkins colleges.

The State has **extensive mining industries** and ranks second for mineral production in the United States, the chief products being coal and petroleum. In agriculture the chief products are corn, potatoes, wheat, and oats. Other important products are lumber, leather, iron, steel, and natural gas.

Chronology.

1727. **Settlement** begins in Berkeley and Jefferson counties.
1861. *May 23.* Western counties of Virginia vote against ordinance of secession.
June 11–25. **Loyal government of Virginia** formed at Wheeling by a convention.
Nov. 26. First constitutional convention meets. Adjourns February 18, 1862. **Constitution** ratified by people April 3, 1862. Amendment required by Congress for gradual emancipation ratified by people March 26, 1863.
1863. *June 19.* West Virginia **admitted to Union** with gradual emancipation. Approval of loyal government of Virginia, May 13, 1862, accepted as constitutional requirement.
1865. *Dec. 18.* Immediate emancipation effected by Federal Thirteenth Amendment.
1872. *Jan. 6–April 9.* Second constitutional convention. New **constitution,** ratified by people, in force August 22.

NEVADA (36).

Historical Outline.

Nevada, taking its name from the Sierra Nevada mountains, and called the **"Silver State,"** was a remote part of the Spanish territory ceded by the Treaty of 1848 with Mexico. Nevada is also known as the **"Sagebrush State."** For a time part of Utah Territory, it was organized as a territory in 1861 and admitted to the Union in 1864. The **constitution** provides for a legislature consisting of a Senate of 22 elected for four years, an Assembly of 53 elected for two years, and a governor elected for four years. Nevada has been Democratic since 1896, with the exception of 1904. The public **school system** was organized by the code of 1911 and is supported chiefly from a Federal land grant of 2,000,000 acres and a tax of ten cents on each hundred-dollar valuation. School attendance is compulsory between the ages of 8 and 16. The (State) University of Nevada is at Reno.

The **mineral resources** of the State are chiefly gold and silver, but copper, lead, zinc, and tungsten are also found. The chief crops are wheat, potatoes, and corn. In 1917 the wool clip amounted to over 10,000,000 pounds.

Chronology.

1827. Region crossed by Jedediah Smith, first white explorer.
1848. *Feb. 2.* Region, part of province of New Mexico, ceded by Mexico to **United States;** Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
1850. *Sept. 9.* Included in Utah Territory; open to slavery. [in the *Dictionary*).]
1859. Discovery of **silver** (see Comstock lode,]
1861. *March 2.* **Nevada Territory** organized.
1863. *November.* First constitutional convention. Draft constitution rejected by people Jan., 1864.
1864. *July 4–28.* Second constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Sept. 7.
Oct. 31. **Admitted** to Union with territory increased on the east. [dition of territory.]
1866. *May 5.* Further eastern and southern ad-

NEBRASKA (37).

Historical Outline.

Nebraska is an Indian word which signifies "Water Valley," and the State is sometimes called the **"Blackwater State."**

At first a part of French Louisiana, later included in Missouri Territory, and then, after being long unorganized, Nebraska Territory was formed by the Act of 1854 and thrown open to newcomers, who were to determine whether it should be a free or a slave territory. Nebraska was admitted as a free State in 1867.

The present **constitution,** that of 1875, provides for a legislature consisting of 33 senators and 100 representatives and for a governor, all elected for a two-year term.

Until 1890 the State was generally Republican. From 1890 to 1900 there were frequent changes of party in the State government. In national **politics** it went Democratic in 1896, 1908, 1912, and 1916. The reasons for these frequent alterations are the rise of the Populist party and the prominence of William Jennings **Bryan,** thrice candidate of the Democratic party for president.

The **school system** is founded on the district unit and county superintendents manage the rural schools. School attendance is compulsory for children between 7 and 15 for not less than 12 weeks in the school term. There are eleven principal institutions of **higher learning,** the largest of which is the **University of Nebraska;** among the others may be named Creighton, Nebraska Wesleyan, Cotner, and Omaha universities, and Doane and Union colleges.

Nebraska is one of the most **important agricultural States,** its principal crops being corn, wheat, and oats, while beet sugar is also produced. The chief industries are slaughtering and flour milling.

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* Region, as part of Louisiana, conveyed by France to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missour Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821). [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery prohibited** by Missouri]
1854. *May 30.* **Nebraska Territory** organized. Open to slavery.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial slavery abolished.
1866. *Feb. 9.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people June 21.
1867. *March 1.* **Admitted** to Union.
1875. *May 11–June 12.* Second constitutional convention. New constitution, ratified by people, in force November 1.
1919. Preparations for a constitutional convention.

COLORADO (38).

Historical Outline.

Colorado is sometimes called the **"Centennial State,"** from its being admitted in 1876, the year of the centennial of United States independence.

The central Rocky Mountains were known to the Spaniards and were explored by Pike in 1806, Long in 1819, and Frémont in the early forties. The **discovery of gold** near Pikes Peak in 1858 brought the first Anglo-Saxon settlements to this region; but the difficulties of quartz mining and the discoveries in other sections checked immigration. The territory was organized in 1861 and the State admitted in 1876.

The **constitution** adopted in that year has been frequently amended, and provides for a General Assembly consisting of a Senate of 35 elected for 4 years, one half retiring every two years, and a House of Representatives of 65 elected for two years; also, a governor elected for two years. All citizens, male and female, 21 years of age are qualified as voters. Since 1912 all elective officers and judicial decisions are subject to **recall.** The **initiative and referendum** were adopted in 1910. Colorado is a doubtful State **politically,** but may be considered Republican with radical leanings tending to the Democratic party.

The **public schools** are under the supervision of a State superintendent and include the State Teachers College and a normal school. For **higher education** there are several institutions, among them the University of Colorado, the University of Denver, Colorado Agricultural College, and Colorado College.

Denver is the center of the traffic in **live stock** west of the Rocky Mountains, and slaughtering and meat packing are the principal industries of the State other than mining. The chief agricultural products are oats and corn, the yield of which is increasing, owing to the extension of the **irrigation** projects. Colorado is **rich in mineral resources:** gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, tungsten, and coal. The State abounds in summer and winter **resorts** and has a considerable Eastern population.

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* Louisiana, covering by natural boundaries region east of crest of Rocky Mountains, conveyed by France to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession of Louisiana to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* This portion included in district of Louisiana, which became Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821).
1806. Explorations by Pike.
1819. Explorations of Long.
Feb. 22. Treaty with Spain leaves region south and west of Arkansas River to Mexico (Texas, New Mexico). [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* Slavery prohibited by Missouri]
1842. Explorations by Frémont.
1845. *March 1.* Southeastern portion annexed as part of claim of Texas.
1848. *Feb. 2.* Balance of region ceded by Mexico; Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
1850. *Sept. 9.* Texas transfers her claim to United States (see Texas, *Chronology*). Region west of Rocky Mountains included in Utah Territory and opened to slavery. Small southern portion included in New Mexico Territory.
1854. *May 30.* Portion east of Rocky Mountains and New Mexico Territory included in Kansas Territory (south of 40°) and Nebraska Territory. Open to slavery.
1859. Attempted State of Jefferson.
1861. *Feb. 28.* **Colorado Territory** organized.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery** abolished.
1864. *July 4–11.* First constitutional convention. People reject draft constitution September 13.
1865. *Aug. 8–12.* Second constitutional convention. People ratify constitution September 5. Bill to admit State under the constitution vetoed by President Johnson May 15, 1866.
1875. *Dec. 20.* Third constitutional convention meets. Adjourns March 14, 1876. **Constitution** ratified by people July 1, 1876.
1876. *Aug. 1.* **Admitted** to Union.

NORTH DAKOTA (39).

Historical Outline.

North Dakota, originally part of the Louisiana Purchase, was included in the Territory of Dakota in 1861 and admitted as a State in 1889. Its **constitution,** adopted that year, provides for a Legislative Assembly consisting of a Senate of 49 elected for 4 years, and a House of Representatives of 113 elected for two years; also, a governor elected for two years. The constitution itself is long and contains many provisions ordinarily found in statute laws. In **politics** the State is normally Republican but at various times the Democrats have been in control. In the presidential elections of 1912 and 1916 it supported the Democratic candidates. In 1918 the candidates of the **Nonpartisan League** controlled the State government and passed many economic measures of a **radical** nature.

School attendance is compulsory for children between 7 and 15, and two sections in each township are set aside for the school fund. The chief **higher educational institutions** are the University of North Dakota, Fargo and Jamestown colleges, and the State Agricultural College.

Agriculture is the **chief pursuit,** the principal crops being wheat — which in 1918 amounted to nearly 100,000,000 bushels —, oats, and barley. Much **live stock** is also raised.

Chronology.

1670. *May 2.* Northeastern portion included in charter of English Hudson's Bay Company.
1743. Verendrye brothers first Europeans to see Rocky Mountains; probably from North Dakota.
1762. *Nov. 3.* Southwestern portion as part of Louisiana (natural boundaries) conveyed by France to Spain.
1763. *Feb. 10.* Northeastern portion as part of Canada ceded by France to Great Britain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Louisiana retroceded to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821).
1818. *Oct. 20.* Canadian **boundary established** by treaty with Great Britain. [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery prohibited** by Missouri]
1834. *June 28.* Portion east of the Missouri and White Earth River added to Michigan **Territory.** [sin Territory.]
1836. *April 20.* That portion included in Wiscon-
1838. *June 12.* That portion included in Iowa Territory. [sota Territory.]
1849. *March 3.* That portion included in Minne-
1854. *May 30.* Rest of region included in Nebraska Territory. Opened to slavery.
1861. *March 2.* **Dakota Territory** organized.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1889. *July 4–Aug. 17.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Oct. 1.
Nov. 2. **Admitted** to Union by division of the territory.

SOUTH DAKOTA (40).

Historical Outline.

South Dakota, sometimes called the **"Blizzard State,"** was admitted as a State in 1889 under such a liberal **constitution** that although it has been amended it has never been completely revised. It provides for a governor, elected every two years, and a legislature consisting of a Senate of not less than 25 nor more than 45 members and a House of Representatives of not less than 75 nor more than 135 members. By amendment, the **initiative and referendum** are allowed and the **direct primary** is used for all elective officers. In **politics** the State has been since its admission Progressive once and Democratic once. At the rest of the elections it returned a majority for the Republican electors.

Elementary and secondary **education** is free to all from the ages of 6 to 21 and compulsory between the ages of 8 and 16. There are four normal schools, a State university (University of South Dakota), and South Dakota State College with departments for agriculture and mining, besides Dakota Wesleyan University, and Huron and Yankton colleges.

The Black Hills region is **rich in forests** of pine and hard wood, and there are extensive deposits of **gold, silver,** and **tin,** South Dakota ranking fourth in the production of gold. The **chief occupations** of the State are agriculture and cattle grazing, and the chief industry flour and gristmilling.

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* Region, as part of Louisiana, conveyed by France to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retroceded to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821). [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery prohibited** by Missouri
1834. *June 28.* Portion east of the Missouri added to Michigan Territory. [sin Territory.]
1836. *April 20.* That portion included in Wiscon-
1838. *June 12.* That portion included in Iowa Territory. [sota Territory.]
1849. *March 3.* That portion included in Minne-
1854. *May 30.* Portion west of the Missouri included in Nebraska Territory and opened to slavery.
1861. *March 2.* **Dakota Territory** organized.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1883. *Sept. 4–18.* First constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by voters of southern half of territory, Nov. 6. No action by Congress
1885. *Sept. 3–25.* Second constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by voters of southern half of territory November 3. No action by Congress.
1889. *July 4–Aug. 15.* Third constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Oct. 1.
Nov. 2. **Admitted** to Union.

MONTANA (41).

Historical Outline.

Montana, part of French Louisiana, was organized as a territory in 1864 and admitted as a State in 1889. The name [from Latin *montana*, fem. of *montanus* mountainous] suggests the situation, one sixth of its area being on the western slope of the Rocky mountains and the remainder on the eastern slope, extending to the plains of the Mississippi valley. Included in the latter are the **"Bad Lands,"** abounding in iron and coal and producing rich grasses that facilitate the rearing of cattle. The **climate** is dry and bracing and modified by the warm **"Chinook"** winds, which come down from the mountains.

The valleys are fertile and adapted to raising cattle, sheep, and horses. Large **irrigation projects** are being carried out by the Federal government, which will increase the area of agricultural land. The chief crops are wheat, oats, barley, and potatoes.

Montana has **great mineral resources** and is among the three States producing the largest amount of copper. Other mineral products include gold, silver, and coal.

The **constitution,** adopted in 1889, provides for a governor elected for two years with extensive powers, a Senate of 43 elected for 4 years, one half retiring every two years, and a House of Representatives of 97.

The **University of Montana** is the State university. There are also the Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, the Montana State School of Mines, a State normal school, and the Montana Wesleyan College.

Chronology.

1762. Most of region (east of crest of Rocky Mountains) as part of Louisiana (natural boundaries) conveyed by France to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession of Louisiana to France.
1803. *April 30.* Ceded to **United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* This portion included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends on admission of Missouri (1821).
1818. *Oct. 20.* Boundary with Canada to crest of Rocky Mountains settled by British treaty. Part west of the Rocky Mountains (Oregon Country) in joint occupation with Great Britain.
1819. *Feb. 22.* Spain relinquishes claim to Oregon Country. [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery prohibited** by Missouri
1846. *June 15.* British claim to portion west of the Rockies relinquished. [Territory.]
1848. *Aug. 14.* That portion included in Oregon
1853. *March 2.* Most of western portion included in Washington Territory.
1854. *May 30.* Portion east of the Rocky Mountains included in Nebraska Territory. Open to slavery.
1859. *Feb. 14.* Rest of western portion included in Washington Territory. [kota Territory.]
1861. *March 2.* Eastern portion included in Da-
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1863. *March 3.* All of region included in Idaho Territory.
1864. *May 26.* **Montana Territory** organized.
1884. *Jan. 14–Feb. 9.* First constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by people November 4. No action by Congress.
1889. *July 4–Aug. 17.* Second constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Oct. 1.
Nov. 8. **Admitted** to Union.

WASHINGTON (42).

Historical Outline.

Washington, the **"Evergreen State,"** is the most northwestern of the United States. Its coasts were visited by the Spaniards, French, English, and Russians and its territory was long jointly occupied by Great Britain and the United States. In 1846 the region was divided and the present northern boundary line on the 49th parallel was agreed upon; and in 1848 Washington was included in the territory of Oregon. During the period of joint occupation, American pioneers, particularly the missionaries to the Indians, eminent among whom was Doctor **Marcus Whitman,** did much to stimulate settlement from the East. In 1872 the last point of the disputed boundary was settled by the award of the German emperor, who substantiated the American claim to San Juan Island. Washington was organized as a separate territory in 1853 and admitted as a State in 1889.

The **constitution** provides for a governor elected biennially and a legislature consisting of a House of Representatives of not less than 63 nor more than 99 and a Senate which shall not be more than one half nor less than one third of the House of Representatives, elected for four years, one half retiring biennially. By amendments to the constitution the **initiative and referendum** and the **recall,** which does not apply in this State to judges, were established in 1912. **In politics** Washington is normally a Republican State, with Progressive tendencies. In 1912 it voted for Progressive electors, and in 1916 for Democratic.

Generous provision has been made by Congress and the State for maintenance of **schools,** attendance on which is compulsory for children from 8 to 16. There are four normal schools, a State university (University of Washington), the Washington State College for science and agriculture, Whitman and Puget Sound colleges, and Gonzaga University.

The important agricultural products are wheat, barley, oats, and **small fruits,** the cultivation of which has more than doubled within the past two years. The State is also **rich in timber,** in coal and other **minerals,** and the **quarries** of granite, sandstone, and marble are extensive. The most important manufacturing industries are sawmilling, flour and gristmilling, slaughtering and packing, and the canning of fish and fruit. The ports of Seattle and Tacoma are increasingly important in Oriental trade.

Chronology.

1543–1806. Discoveries and explorations (see Oregon).
1818. *Oct. 20.* Joint Anglo-American occupation of region (Oregon Country).
1819. *Feb. 22.* Spain relinquishes claim to Oregon Country. [to region.]
1846. *June 15.* Great Britain relinquishes claim.
1848. *Aug. 14.* Included in Oregon **Territory.**
1853. *March 2.* **Washington Territory** organized.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1889. *July 4–Aug. 22.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Oct 1.
Nov. 11. **Admitted** to Union.

IDAHO (43).

Historical Outline.

Idaho was a part of the Oregon Country, was organized as a separate territory in 1863, and admitted as a State in 1890. The name is from the Indian word meaning "gem of the mountains." The constitution provides for a governor elected for two years, a legislature consisting of a Senate of 37 and a House of Representatives of 65. **Suffrage** was extended to **women** in 1896, and women may also hold office and perform jury duty. In State administration the Republicans have generally controlled, except for a period between 1890 and 1897 when the Democrats, Populists, and Free-Silver Republicans were in power. In 1904 and 1908 the State went Republican in the national elections, in 1892 Populist, in all other elections Democratic.

Public education is provided for by a thorough and uniform system of free public common schools, high schools, and a unified State university (University of Idaho). The State also has an industrial training school and several sectarian colleges.

Part of the State is naturally arid, but extensive **irrigation** works now water over 3,000,000 acres. The **most important crops** are wheat, oats, and barley. The **live-stock** interest is active, and the wool clip amounted to 15,000,000 pounds in 1917. There is a **national forest** of over 17,000,000 acres in the State.

Chronology.

1543–1806. Discoveries and explorations (see Oregon).
1818. *Oct. 20.* Joint Anglo-American occupation of the region (Oregon Country).
1819. *Feb. 22.* Spain relinquishes claim to region.
1846. *June 15.* Great Britain relinquishes claim.
1848. *Aug. 14.* Included in Oregon **Territory.**
1853. *March 2.* Portion north of 46° included in Washington Territory.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial slavery prohibited.
1863. *March 3.* **Idaho Territory** organized.
1889. *July 4–Aug. 6.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people Nov. 5.
1890. *July 3.* **Admitted** to Union.

WYOMING (44).

Historical Outline.

Wyoming is situated in the Rocky Mountain region and extends eastwardly into the great plain of the Mississippi, though the southwestern portion slopes toward the Pacific. The name is corrupted from Delaware Indian *M'chenwómink,* meaning "upon the great plain." The greater part of the State is mountainous, but between the mountains there are fertile valleys and table-lands in which rise many large streams. Chief among these is the Yellowstone River, the largest tributary of the Missouri. The source of the Yellowstone is in Yellowstone Lake, which lies at an elevation of over 7,000 feet in the great **Yellowstone National Park.** The soil of the plains is extremely fertile; irrigation is afforded by abundant streams, and the pasturage lasts thoughout the year, supporting **millions of cattle and sheep.** The wool clip yields over 26,000,000 pounds. A large part of the territory is covered with valuable **timber.** Wyoming also has large deposits of coal and copper, gold, and some gypsum and petroleum.

The **constitution** adopted in 1889 provides for a governor elected every four years, a legislature consisting of 27 senators elected for four years, one half retiring biennially, and a House of Representatives of 57 elected for two years. Women have voted since 1869. In State **politics** the Republicans generally are in the majority, but the Democrats and Populists controlled the State from 1892 to 1895. In national politics it was Democratic in 1896, 1912, and 1916. The system of **public education** includes free schools of every grade and the University of Wyoming.

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* Louisiana, covering by natural boundaries region east of Rocky Mountains, conveyed to Spain by France.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Retrocession of Louisiana to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* This portion included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812). Territorial government ends with admission of Missouri (1821).
1818. *Oct. 20.* Joint Anglo-American occupation of portion of region west of the Rocky Mountains (Oregon Country).
1819. *Feb. 22.* By treaty with Spain United States relinquishes claim to southwestern corner of region (south of 42°). Spain relinquishes claim to Oregon Country (north of 42°). [Compromise.]
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery prohibited** by Missouri
1845. *March 1.* Small southern portion becomes part of claim of Texas.
1846. *June 15.* Great Britain relinquishes claim to Oregon Country.
1848. *Feb. 2.* Balance of region ceded by Mexico.
Aug. 14. Oregon Country portion included in Oregon Territory.
1850. *Sept. 9.* Texas transfers her claim to United States. Southwestern corner included in Utah Territory and opened to slavery.
1854. *May 30.* Portion east of Rocky Mountains included in Nebraska Territory and opened to slavery.
1859. *Feb. 14.* Oregon Territory portion added to Washington Territory.
1861. *March 2.* Eastern portion north of 43° included in Dakota Territory. Nebraska Territory extended over additional southwestern portion.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1863. *March 3.* All of Wyoming except southwestern corner included in Idaho Territory.
1868. *July 25.* **Wyoming Territory** organized. **Woman suffrage** adopted (first instance in United States).

1889. *Sept. 2–30.* First constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people November 5.
1890. *July 10.* **Admitted** to Union.

UTAH (45).

Historical Outline.

Utah, sometimes called the "**Mormon State,**" is named from the *Ute*, or *Utah*, Indians. The early spelling of the name was varied. "Yuta" was common among the Spaniards; later are found "Youta," "Eutaw," "Utaw," and "Utah." Utah lies in the Great Basin of the interior and includes the head waters of the Columbia and Colorado rivers. It was first explored by the Spaniards, then by fur traders and by Frémont. It was part of Spain, then of Mexico, till its annexation in 1848; organized as a territory in 1850, it was admitted into the Union in 1896.

The **first** permanent **settlers** were **Mormons,** led from Illinois and Missouri by **Brigham Young** in 1847. He was for a time territorial governor and then, as Prophet of the Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter-day Saints, was the leader of the community. From 1851 to 1859 there was a conflict between the Mormon authorities and the United States authorities.

The State consists of two great plateaus, 5,000 feet above the sea, divided by the Wasatch Range of mountains, with peaks rising up nearly 12,000 feet. Many fertile valleys are in a high state of cultivation, but in the west all the streams disappear in the desert or into the salt lakes, especially **Great Salt Lake,** 80 miles long, from 20 to 35 miles wide, and having no outlet. It is so salt that no fish can live in it. The streams flowing into the lake have been used to irrigate the valleys and plains. Except some pine in the mountains and cottonwood along the banks of the streams, there are no forests. In the northwestern part of the State there is **good pasturage,** and the wool clip is over 15,000,000 pounds. The State produces a diversity of metals, especially lead, copper, silver, gold, zinc, and coal.

The **constitution** of 1896, while promising toleration in religion, prohibits polygamous marriages, and provides for a Senate of 18 elected for 4 years and a House of Representatives of 46 elected for 2 years; also, a governor elected for 4 years. **Suffrage** is extended to both men and women. The State is doubtful and shifting in politics. **Education** is compulsory between the ages of 8 and 16 and the percentage of illiterates was only 2.5. There is a good public school system, a State normal school, the (State) University of Utah, and Brigham Young College.

Chronology.

1540. Spanish explorers, sent out by Coronado, reach the Colorado River.
1776. Franciscan friars, having set out from Santa Fe to seek a direct route to the Pacific, reach Utah Lake on August 23.
1806. **First exploration** by members of Lewis and Clark Expedition.
1824. Discovery of **Great Salt Lake** by James Bridger.
1847. **Settlement** by Mormons begins at Salt Lake City.
1848. *Feb. 2.* Region as part of New Mexico ceded by Mexico to **United States;** Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
1849. *March 5–10.* First constitutional convention. Constitution for provisional state of Deseret put in operation. Continues until 1851, when superseded legally by territorial government, but continued as a fiction by the Mormons.
1850. *Sept. 9.* **Utah Territory** organized. Open to slavery.
1856. *March 17–27.* Second constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by people. No action by Congress.
1857–1858. **Mormon War,** due to the attempt of Mormons to ignore the Federal government.
1862. *Jan. 20–23.* Third constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by people and state of Deseret inaugurated. Never recognized by Congress.
June 19. Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1869. **Woman suffrage** adopted.
1872. *Feb. 19–March 2.* Fourth constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by people March 18. No action by Congress.
1882. *March 22.* Act of Congress forbidding **polygamy** in territories. Further act, March 3, 1887. Mormons profess submission to law.
April 10–27. Fifth constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by people May 22. No action by Congress.
1887. *June 30–July 7.* Sixth constitutional convention. Draft constitution, forbidding polygamy, ratified by people August 1. No action by Congress.
1895. *March 4–May 8.* Seventh constitutional convention. **Constitution,** prohibiting polygamy, ratified by people November 5.
1896. *Jan. 4.* **Admitted** to Union.
1911. Legislative act puts all cities of first and second class under commission form of government. Commissioners to be chosen at the general election, 1911, and to assume office January, 1912.

OKLAHOMA (46).

Historical Outline.

Oklahoma (from an Indian word meaning "land of red men") was a part of the Louisiana Cession of 1803. After 1830 it was nearly covered with Indian Reservations and part of it was popularly, though not officially, called the Indian Territory. The territory of Oklahoma was organized in 1890 with provisions by which any member of an Indian tribe might obtain naturalization as an American citizen and still retain his rights and privileges in tribal property. Immigration was rapid; the territory was admitted as a State in 1907 and now ranks twenty-first in population.

The State is Southern in character and has been usually **Democratic in politics.**

The **constitution** is extremely long and contains many provisions usually found in statutes, particularly concerning the regulation of corporations. It provides for the **initiative** and **referendum** and the **suffrage** was extended to women in 1918. The legislature consists of a Senate of 44 elected for 4 years, and a House of Representatives of not less than 99 nor more than 102, elected for 2 years. The governor is elected for 4 years. The State has a system of free elementary, high, and normal **schools,** the University of Oklahoma and the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College. Phillips University and Henry Kendall College are important institutions. Separate schools for the whites and blacks are established.

Oklahoma is rich in agricultural and mineral products. Its chief crops are corn, wheat, oats, fruits, and cotton. It has **great deposits of coal and oil.** Lead and zinc mines are also worked. The chief manufacturing industries are flour milling and the manufacture of cottonseed oil cake.

Chronology.

1762. *Nov. 3.* Region, claimed as part of Louisiana, conveyed by France to Spain.
1800. *Oct. 1.* Louisiana retroceded to France.
1803. *April 30.* **Ceded to United States** by Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
1804. *March 26.* Included in district of Louisiana, which becomes Louisiana Territory (March 3, 1805) and Missouri Territory (June 4, 1812).
1819. *Feb. 22.* Treaty with Spain settles boundary between Mexico (Texas) and Louisiana Purchase.
March 2. Included in Arkansas Territory.
1820. *March 3.* **Slavery permitted** by Missouri Compromise.
1820–1840. **Indian Territory** (unorganized) set apart by various Indian treaties as home of the Five Civilized Tribes, with local self-government. Other Indians also located there.
1824. *May 26.* Arkansas Territory reduced in size; again May 6, 1828. Territorial government over region ends.
1845. *March 1.* Western panhandle acquired by United States with annexation of Texas.
1850. *Sept. 9.* Texas cedes her claim to panhandle.
1862. *June 19.* Territorial slavery abolished.
1889. *April 22.* First opening to settlement by whites.
1890. *May 2.* **Oklahoma Territory** organized out of part of Indian Territory. Later increased in size.
1905. Completion of work of Dawes Commission; tribal government in Five Civilized Tribes dissolved; land allotted in severalty and Indians become citizens.
1906. *Nov. 20.* First constitutional convention meets. Adjourns July 16, 1907. **Constitution** ratified by people September 17, 1907.
1907. *Nov. 16.* **Admitted** to Union.
1915. *June 21.* "Grandfather clause" of constitution disallowed by United States Supreme Court.

NEW MEXICO (47).

Historical Outline.

From the time of its discovery by Europeans the territory now included in the State of New Mexico was a part of Mexico. The title was gained for the United States by the Mexican cessions of 1848 and the Gadsden Purchase of 1853. It was organized as a territory in 1850. Joint statehood with Arizona was proposed in 1906, but rejected by the latter. A State **constitution** was framed in 1911 but rejected by President Taft because of the difficult method prescribed for amendment. A new constitution was then framed and the State was admitted, 1912. The legislature consists of a Senate of 24 members and a House of 49; a governor is chosen for two years. Since admission as a State, New Mexico has been Democratic in **politics.**

Elementary **education** is free and compulsory for all children between 7 and 14. The use of the English language is enforced in schools. There are 71 high schools, 26 Indian schools (maintained by the Federal government), three public normal schools, the New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, School of Mines, and the (State) University of New Mexico.

The **principal crops** are corn, wheat, and potatoes. **Irrigation,** necessary over wide tracts of fertile territory, is being extended, and the irrigated area is over a million acres. **Sheep raising** is an important industry, and the wool clip amounts to over 18,000,000 pounds. The State has valuable mineral resources of copper, zinc, silver, and gold. The chief manufacturing interests of New Mexico are car construction and repairs for railroad companies, lumber and timber work, flour and gristmilling.

Chronology.

1598. Spanish **settlement begins.** Province in New Spain (Mexico).
1810. Mexican struggle for independence begins.
1845. *March 1.* Portion east of the Rio Grande **annexed to United States** as part of Texas claim.
1848. *Feb. 2.* Balance of region **ceded by Mexico** except belt on south; Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
1850. *Sept. 9.* Texas transfers her claim to United States. **New Mexico Territory** organized. Open to slavery.
1853. *Dec. 30.* Southern belt ceded by Mexico; **Gadsden Purchase.**
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1889. *Sept. 3–23.* First constitutional convention. Draft constitution rejected by people Oct. 7, 1890.
1910. *Oct. 3–Nov. 21.* Second constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people January 21, 1911.
1912. *Jan. 6.* **Admitted** to Union.

ARIZONA (48).

Historical Outline.

Arizona, sometimes known as the "**Valentine State,**" from its having been admitted on *February 14*, 1912, was Spanish and Mexican from the first explorations to the transfer to the United States by the Mexican treaties of 1848 and 1853. It was included in the territory of New Mexico in 1850, organized as a separate territory in 1863, refused to join with New Mexico as a State in 1906, and submitted a **constitution** for the approval of Congress in 1911. The resolution accepting this constitution and admitting Arizona was vetoed by President Taft because of the radical nature of the constitution proposed, his objection being directed chiefly against the recall of judicial officers. Arizona withdrew the clauses and was admitted in 1912. By constitutional amendments, ratified in November, 1912, Arizona restored the provision for the **recall of judges** and extended the **suffrage to women.** The constitution provides for a governor elected for three years, a Senate of 19 and House of Representatives of 35, all elected for two years. The State has been Democratic in national and State elections since its admission.

School attendance is compulsory for 12 weeks (6 consecutive) for children between 8 and 14 and free for children from 6 to 21. There is a good system of elementary schools; there are also high schools, two public normal schools, the (State) University of Arizona, and an agricultural school in connection with the latter.

Arizona, with its dry climate, is not well adapted for agriculture; but where **irrigation** is used the soil is productive. The wide pasture lands are favorable for the rearing of cattle and sheep, and the **wool** clip of 1917 amounted to nearly 6,000,000 pounds. The **national forests** in the State have an area of over 11,000,000 acres. The **mining** industries of the State are important, the chief minerals being copper, silver, gold, and lead. The most important manufacturing industries are connected with copper smelting and refining, car construction and repair, lumber and timber working, flour and gristmilling.

The State is a haven for consumptives; the climate is dry and healthful. The **Grand Cañon** of the Colorado and other scenic wonders attract great numbers of visitors.

Chronology.

1598–1845. Under Spanish dominion (see New Mexico).
1848. *Feb. 2.* Region, except southern belt, part of province of New Mexico **ceded to United States** by Mexico; **Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.**
1850. *Sept. 9.* New Mexico Territory organized. Open to slavery.
1853. *Dec. 30.* Southern belt ceded by Mexico; **Gadsden Purchase.**
1862. *June 19.* Territorial **slavery abolished.**
1863. *Feb. 24.* **Arizona Territory** organized.
1891. *Sept. 1–Oct. 3.* First constitutional convention. Draft constitution ratified by people. No action by Congress.
1910 *Oct. 10–Dec. 9.* Second constitutional convention. **Constitution** ratified by people February 9, 1911.
1912. *Feb. 14.* **Admitted** to Union.

TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF UNITED STATES.

ALASKA.

Historical Outline.

ALASKA is a vast tract 590,884 square miles in extent — greater than the area of the original thirteen States — which was acquired from Russia by the United States in 1867.

The first Europeans to see the wild coast were early Spanish voyagers and Drake in 1580. Cook and other explorers skirted it from 1778 to 1800. The first Russian discoveries were made by Bering in 1741.

The Russian-American Fur Company had a monopoly of Alaskan trade, and in 1821 Russia claimed ownership south to 51° and also a monopoly of the North Pacific Ocean. In 1824 Russia by treaty withdrew all claims south of 54° 40′. In 1867 the United States **purchased** the whole enormous area **from Russia** for $7,200,000. The Canadian Northwest thus became the eastern neighbor of Alaska; the boundary was left unsettled till the arbitration of 1903, under which the Canadians remained shut off from the coast north of 54° 40′.

Alaska is separated from the rest of the United States by British Columbia. The island of Attu, which is the most westerly of the Alaskan islands, extends American territory into the Eastern Hemisphere and is as many degrees of longitude west of San Francisco as San Francisco is west of Maine. Including the islands and its deeply indented shores, the **coast line** of Alaska is 20,000 miles. The great coast range of mountains is from 50 to 75 miles in width, and includes **Mount McKinley,** 20,300 feet in height, the loftiest peak on the continent of North America. The extension of this chain forms the mountainous Aleutian Islands. One third of the territory lies within the Arctic zone, and the slopes of the great range are covered with glaciers that afford magnificent scenery.

The interior contains grassy plains and groves of pines on the mountains. The **Yukon River,** which rises in British Columbia and flows through Alaska into the Pacific, is one of the great streams of the world, being navigable by steamers for 2,000 miles and having a width of a mile, six hundred miles from its mouth. The **climate** of the coast and Pacific islands is moderated by the warm Japan Current, which produces an immense rainfall. In southwestern Alaska it rains or snows two days out of three throughout the year. At Sitka in midsummer there is no darkness, the sun dipping below the horizon and immediately rising again. East of the coast range the winter cold is intense, the thermometer sometimes falling to 70° below zero.

By act of Congress in 1912 Alaska became an **organized territory,** with a legislative assembly consisting of eight senators and sixteen representatives elected biennially, and an appointed governor, meeting at the capital, Juneau.

Religious **missions** represent almost all denominations of the Protestant, Russian, and Roman Catholic churches. The territory is well supplied with **schools,** the Federal government having appropriated $200,000. The great problem of Alaska is transportation, and in 1914 Congress passed an act authorizing the president to construct and operate a railroad from the coast to the **coal deposits,** which are valuable for naval purposes. Alaska is **rich in gold** deposits in the interior on the Yukon River and at Cape Nome. Other important industries are the **seal and salmon fisheries,** the annual catch of the latter being valued at over $14,000,000.

Chronology.

1741. Russian discovery.
1784. Beginning of **Russian settlement,** following years of trade on the coast.
1824. *April 17.* Russo-American treaty delimiting Alaska. Similar Russo-British treaty, February 28, 1825.
1867. *March 30.* **Purchase by United States.**
1884. *May 17.* First organic act; governor, courts, and commissioners.
1893. *Aug. 15.* Fur-Seal Arbitration with Great Britain.
1899. *March 3.* Criminal code enacted
1900. *June 6.* Civil code and district government acts.
1903. *Oct. 20.* Alaska-Canadian boundary dispute settlement.
1906. *May 7.* Granted a delegate to Congress.
1912. *Aug. 24.* **Alaska Territory** organized.
1914. *March 12.* Act for government railroad.

CORN ISLANDS.

GREAT AND LITTLE CORN ISLANDS, off the Atlantic coast of Nicaragua, were ceded to the United States by treaty signed Aug. 5, 1914, and ratified by U.S. Senate Feb. 18, 1916. By this convention, Nicaragua grants to United States privileges of canal construction, and cedes Little Corn and Great Corn Islands; also, the right to establish and maintain a naval base in the Gulf of Fonseca. Practically excludes other nations from constructing a canal across Nicaragua.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

A DISTRICT ten miles square, obtained by cessions of jurisdiction by Maryland and Virginia in 1788 and 1789, was set apart by Act of Congress in 1790 for the seat of government of the United States. Commissioners were appointed by President Washington in 1791 to lay out the District, and to secure a proper title to the soil. Major L'Enfant, a French engineer, planned the city of Washington; and the buildings necessary for the accommodation of Congress and the President were erected before December, 1800. The city suffered loss from the occupation and burning by the British in 1814. In 1846 the Virginia portion of the District was retroceded to that State. For many years after its establishment, the only local government was that of the municipalities of Georgetown and Washington. The question of slavery and the slave trade in the District caused violent controversies down to the act prohibiting the trade in 1850; and the act for compensated emancipation in 1862. In 1871 a **territorial government** was established, followed in 1874 by a government by a Commission appointed by the President, which is still in action. There are three large **institutions of learning** in the District of Columbia — George Washington University, Catholic University of America, and Georgetown University.

Chronology.

1790. *July 16.* **Establishment** as seat of Federal government authorized.
1800. *Nov. 1.* President takes up his residence.
1801. *Feb. 27.* Act for District **government.**
1802. *May 3.* Act for **incorporation of Washington.**
1827–1837. Controversy in Congress over petitions for prohibition of slavery in the District of Columbia.
1846. *July 9.* Portion of District on southern side of Potomac retroceded to Virginia.
1850. *Sept. 20.* Slave trade abolished.
1862. *April 16.* **Slavery abolished.**
1871. *Feb. 21.* Act for **territorial government;** charters of Washington and Georgetown annulled
1874. *June 20.* Temporary act for government by Commission. [**by Commission.**
1878. *June 11.* Permanent act for **government**

GUANTÁNAMO NAVAL STATION.

By act of Congress (Spooner Amendment) of March 2, 1901, prescribing future relations with Cuba, requirement was made that that country sell or lease to the United States land necessary for naval stations at points to be agreed upon with the president. Cuba accepted the requirement in her constitution, May 20, 1902.

The United States government selected Guantánamo Bay in Oriente province at the eastern extremity of the island, and on February 16–23, 1903, agreement was made with Cuba for indefinite lease of the station. The lease was signed July 2, 1903. Cuba retains ultimate sovereignty but during period of occupation the United States "shall exercise complete jurisdiction and control."

HAWAII.

Historical Outline.

THE archipelago known formerly as the **Sandwich Islands,** more recently by the native name of Hawaii-Nei or the Hawaiian Islands, and now as the Territory of Hawaii, consists of a group of twelve islands, of which eight are inhabited and four uninhabited, lying in the central North Pacific on the **crossroads of the ocean.** Their entire **area** is 6,449 square miles. The largest islands are: Hawaii, 4,015 square miles; Maui, 728; Oahu, 598; Kauai, 547; Molokai, 261; Lanai, 139; Niihau, 97; Kahoolawe, 69.

The capital city, Honolulu, on the island of Oahu, is 2,400 miles from Seattle, 2,098 from San Francisco, 3,310 from Acapulco, 4,685 from Panama, 5,147 from Callao, 2,263 from Pagopago, 3,850 from Auckland, 4,424 from Sydney, 3,387 from Guam, 4,778 from Manila, 4,917 from Hongkong, 3,400 from Yokohama. This **strategic center** commands the main routes of international commerce and communication between the East and West and dominates the development of the Pacific. **Pearl Harbor,** in Oahu, near Honolulu, is capable of being rendered at relatively small outlay one of the finest harbors in the world.

By tradition the islands were discovered by Spanish navigators in the sixteenth century. Possibly shipwrecked Spaniards are responsible for an element at the present time showing light complexion and other European characteristics. The natives call them Kekea and themselves Kanakas.

The first recorded **discovery** of the Hawaiian group was made by the English Captain Cook, in 1778; later he provoked the natives, who killed him (February, 1779). At this time, each island was ruled by its own chief. The chief of Hawaii, named **Kamehameha,** was a man of enterprise; he was taught by the English explorer, Vancouver, to build ships and made an insular fleet of twenty vessels. Kamehameha supplied his soldiers with firearms and conquered the neighboring islands, uniting six of them in one government. Thus he became king of the so-called Sandwich Islands. He was succeeded by his son, Kamehameha II. To this epoch belongs the abolition of idolatry and of the system of taboo. Many of the old barbaric customs were interdicted from this time forth.

In 1820 a company of **American missionaries** reached Honolulu, and soon the English missionary, Ellis, brought with him Christian natives from Tahiti (Society Islands). From this time there was progress in the direction of European civilization. The native language was reduced to a written form. A little later the missionaries induced the sovereign to accept the Ten Commandments as the constitution of the kingdom.

In 1840 Kamehameha III., then in the seventh year of his reign, granted a new frame of government with civil rights to his people. In 1843 a provisional cession of the islands was made to Great Britain, but in 1844 the independence of Hawaii was restored, and was guaranteed by Great Britain, France, and the United States. In 1891 Queen Liliuokalani succeeded, but because of evasions and nullifications of the constitution, and the granting of opium and lottery monopolies, the queen was dethroned in 1893 by an uprising of the Americans and the better class of natives.

The American minister, Stevens, declared Hawaii under the protection of the United States, and negotiated a treaty of annexation which President Harrison submitted to the Senate. This was withdrawn by President Cleveland; and since Liliuokalani refused to grant amnesty the United States interposed no obstacle to the establishment of the **Republic of Hawaii** in 1894. In 1898, at the time of the Spanish American War, the strategic importance of the Islands was demonstrated and in that year, in accordance with the desire of the Hawaiian Government, the islands were **annexed to the United States.**

In 1900 Hawaii was organized as the Territory of Hawaii. The legislature consists of a Senate of 15 members elected for four years with a suffrage based on intelligence qualifications, which shuts out many of the natives, and a House of Representatives of 30 elected for two years. The governor and secretary are appointed by the president, and a delegate to the Congress of the United States is elected biennially. By the terms of annexation all persons who were citizens of the Republic of Hawaii became citizens of both Hawaii and the United States. Since that time **citizenship** is acquired as in the United States.

The population is diverse. The native Hawaiians, because of a high death rate, are declining, as are the Chinese through emigration to China. On the other hand the Americans and Europeans are increasing. There were in 1920 about 100,000 Japanese whose children are born into citizenship. At present Chinese, Japanese, and Korean immigration is prohibited. The total **population** is somewhat over 250,000. Beeause of the difficulty of obtaining labor, the Department of Labor and Immigration and the Hawaiian Sugar Planters Association gave assistance to certain classes of immigrants. Thus by 1920, 12,000 Filipinos had been introduced, and efforts are made to attract European emigrants, particularly the Portuguese.

Nearly all the natives are Christian, the Protestants being nearly twice as numerous as the Catholics, who are chiefly Portuguese. Since 1840 **schools** have been established and education is now free and compulsory between the ages of 6 and 17. There are several industrial schools and the College of Hawaii. Great effort is made to improve and preserve the health of the inhabitants, the bubonic plague has been practically eliminated, and every effort is made to control leprosy and tuberculosis, to which the natives are peculiarly susceptible.

The islands are to a great extent mountainous and volcanic, but the **soil** is highly **fertile.** Sugar and pineapples are the staple products, while coffee, honey, hides, wool, tobacco, and rubber are also exported.

Chronology.

1778. Discovery by James Cook.
1795. Group united under kingship of **Kamehameha I.** [their labors.]
1820. *March 31.* American missionaries begin
1840. **Constitutional government** inaugurated.
1843. *Nov. 28.* Anglo-French agreement to consider Hawaii an independent state.
1849. *Dec. 20.* First treaty with United States.
1854. Treaty of annexation to United States drafted; not acceptable to American government.
1875. *March 18.* **Reciprocity treaty** with United States. Earlier treaties (1855, 1867) not ratified by Senate.
1893. *January.* **Revolution** deposes queen. Treaty of annexation to United States signed, February 14, but withdrawn by President Cleveland, March 9.
1894. Independent republic. Officially recognized by the United States, August 8.
1898. *July 7.* **Annexed to United States** by joint resolution of Congress. [acted.]
1900. *April 30.* **Territorial government** en-

PACIFIC ISLANDS.

GUAM.

Guam, the largest of the Ladrone or Mariana Islands, early discovered by the Spaniards, was captured by the United States in the Spanish American War and ceded by Spain in the subsequent treaty of 1898. The **area** is 225 square miles and the population 13,275 (1920). Under Spain the island was neglected, but since 1900 a system of **schools** has been established and **improvements** introduced in roads, agriculture, and sanitation. A government radio station exists on the island, which is also in cable communication with the rest of the world. The only local **government** is that administered by a naval officer appointed by the president, who exercises executive, legislative, and judicial functions. The harbor of Agaña is closed to all vessels except by permission of the navy department. The **products** of the island are maize, rice, sugar, and copra; and the exports amounted to about $100,000 in 1918, while the imports were three times as much.

Chronology.

1521. **Discovered** by Magellan.
1688. **Occupied** by Spain.
1898. *June 20.* **Captured** by the American cruiser *Charleston* while *en route* to Philippines.
Dec. 10. **Ceded to United States** by Spain. Governor is a naval officer, chief of the Naval Government of the Island of Guam.

THE SAMOA ISLANDS.

In 1722 the Dutch Captain Roggeveen discovered the cluster of islands to which, forty-six years afterward, Louis Antoine de Bougainville gave the name Iles des Navigateurs, or Navigators Islands. He was struck with the way in which the natives handled their canoes. He found the islanders a gay, lighthearted, indolent people, living under the easiest conditions of climate and soil.

In recent times the **name** of this group has been changed to the native word "Samoa." The cluster consists of fourteen islands in all, having a total **area** of 1,070 square miles. The three important ones are Savaii, Upolu, and Tutuila. On the northern shore of the second named is the harbor of **Apia**, which, by the tripartite agreement of 1879, made by Germany, Great Britain, and the United States, was declared to be an international port of entry, to be controlled by the consuls of the three powers named. The German party at Apia, instigated by the Hamburg commercial house of Godeffroy and Son, took sides with one of the national factions under Tamasese. The islands were desired by Germany, Great Britain, and the United States — chiefly as a **naval center.** In 1881 the three powers agreed on a scheme involving nominal joint control. The scheme was a failure, and the other powers interfered, and in a conference at Berlin in 1889 it was agreed that Samoa should be independent and neutral, with the right to govern itself, including the right to elect its king. Apia, the capital of the country, was declared to be a municipal district under control of the consuls resident of the three powers, and having its president, as well as chief justice, nominated by them.

In 1899, owing to trouble over the kingship, the treaty powers started negotiations for a change of government; while these were in progress, Great Britain in exchange for other territory **ceded to Germany** all her Samoan interests. Finally, in 1900 it was agreed between Germany and the United States that the island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of 171° west of Greenwich should belong to the **United States;** while the islands west of that meridian should belong to **Germany.** This group was ceded by Germany to the Allies in the treaty of 1919.

The **situation** of Samoa on the main lines of navigation between San Francisco and Auckland, Honolulu and Sydney, Queensland and Panama, Tokyo and Cape Horn, gives to the islands whatever world interest they may claim. They are, though small, **very productive.** The local products include copra, coffee, cacao, and cotton. The **population** in American Samoa numbers 8,056, mostly pure Polynesians, all of whom have been Christianized by the missionaries. There are 69 **schools** on the islands, attended by over a thousand boys and nearly a thousand girls.

The harbor of Pagopago, in Tutuila, one of the best small ports in the Pacific, was ceded to the United States as a naval and coaling station in 1872. The United States maintains a naval station there under a commandant who is also governor of the islands. The insular officers are appointed by him and he is maker of such regulations as he deems necessary. Still, the customs of the people are not interfered with, and they enjoy practical self-government.

Chronology.

1722. Sighted by Dutch navigator Roggeveen.
1839. **Explored** by American naval officer Wilkes.
1853. American commercial agent appointed
1872. *Feb. 17.* United States obtains Pagopago Bay (Tutuila Island) as naval station.
1878. *Jan. 16.* Treaty with United States. Naval station at Pagopago confirmed.
1879. *Jan. 24.* Treaty with Germany. Naval station at Saluafata (Upolu Island).
Aug. 28. Treaty with Great Britain. Naval station at site to be selected.
1884. *Nov. 10.* Treaty of King Malietoa with **Germany; virtual protectorate.** Americans and British object. King refuses to carry out treaty.
1885. *Dec. 31.* German reprisals on Malietoa. Conference of three powers follows.
1887. Germany dethrones Malietoa. **Civil war** follows.
1889. *June 14.* **Tripartite treaty** by United States, Great Britain, and Germany. Independence of islands; joint supervision. Does not work satisfactorily.
1899. *Dec. 2.* Second tripartite treaty. Islands divided; Tutuila and Manua **annexed to United States,** rest to **Germany;** Great Britain satisfied elsewhere. American islands have a naval governor.

WAKE ISLAND.

Wake Island is a small isolated island, lying about 19 degrees north of the equator almost on the direct line connecting Honolulu and Manila and not far from midway between the two. Its importance lies in its use as a cable station between Honolulu and Manila.

1898. *July 4.* United States flag hoisted over Wake Island by Gen. F. V. Greene, commanding Second Detachment Philippine expedition.
1899. *Jan. 17.* Formal possession taken by an American naval officer.

MIDWAY ISLANDS.

A group of four small, low islands, useful only as a cable relay station.

1867. *Aug. 28.* Midway (or Brook) Island formally occupied by American naval commander.
1903. Becomes a United States cable station.
1909. Transferred to jurisdiction of Hawaii.

GUANO ISLANDS.

By an act of Congress passed on August 18, 1856, any guano island discovered and occupied by a citizen of United States shall be considered as appertaining to United States. Provision was made for working the deposits under bond, and relinquishment after removal of guano. Under the act some 70 or more islands have been bonded, mostly in the Pacific, notably Baker, Christmas, and Howland. Many have been stricken from the list. Christmas Island was later occupied by the British.

PANAMA CANAL ZONE.

The Panama Canal Zone, a strip of territory five miles on either side of the Canal route, was **ceded** by Panama **to the United States** by the treaty of 1903. Since the Zone is a military reservation, no private individuals or traders are permitted to settle or acquire land. The government is vested in a governor appointed by the president for a term of four years and in such other officers as the president shall deem necessary.

The Canal has a summit elevation of 85 feet above the sea and is 43.8 nautical miles in length, including its approaches. From shore to shore the Canal is about 35 miles long. The channel ranges from 300 to 100 feet wide and has a minimum depth of 41 feet. The average time of passage through the Canal is from seven to eight hours. It is estimated that the maximum traffic capacity of the Canal is 36 ships per day. The cost of the construction of the Canal to June 30, 1917, was $365,631,760. The cost of operation and maintenance in 1917 was $6,000,788. The tolls collected for 1918 were $6,454,198; in 1919 the tolls were $6,972,000. The Canal was formally opened August 15, 1914, and has been in use ever since except when temporarily closed owing to landslides.

The **population** of the Canal Zone (1920) was 22,858, of whom about 7,000 were Americans.

Chronology.

1903. *Nov. 18.* By treaty, Panama **cedes to United States** sovereign rights over a zone of land five miles wide on each side of the proposed canal; excluding cities of Panama and Colón and their harbors. Grant also of such land outside the five-mile zone convenient for construction and operation of the canal; also certain islands in Panama Bay. Right to impose sanitary ordinances and to maintain order in cities of Panama and Colón.
1904. *April 28.* Act of Congress authorizing possession and occupation of the Zone, and such temporary government as president creates.
May 9. Instructions issued by president to Isthmian Canal Commission, one member of which is governor of the Zone, to make all needful rules for government and administration of the military, civil, and judicial affairs.
1911. *March 4.* First appropriation for fortifications for the Canal and Zone.
1912. *Aug. 24.* Act for operation of Panama Canal and government of Canal Zone. Governor of the Canal to have full civil control over the Zone, " which is to be . . . governed as an adjunct of . . . Panama Canal." District court created.
1914. *Sept. 2.* **Treaty with Panama** defining boundaries of Zone.
1916. *Aug. 21.* Act authorizing president to make rules affecting health, sanitation, quarantine, taxation, roads, automobiles, police powers, and immigration and deportation.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Historical Outline.

The Philippine Islands (Spanish, *Islas Filipinas*) in the last years of the nineteenth century acquired a historical importance greater than had been hitherto attached to them. While they had long been coveted by other European nations, they remained the Spanish outpost and naval base in the Pacific until the hold of Spain was broken by the destruction of her fleet in the East and the capture of Manila in the war with the United States (1898).

This extensive archipelago was **first visited** by men of the white race in 1521. Magellan on his round-the-world voyage reached the little island of Homonhon or Malhon, near Samar. The next month he was killed by the natives on the island of Mactan. He called the group the Islands of St. Lazarus. Subsequently, they were called Islas de Poniente, and by the Portuguese, Islas de Oriente. Villalobos gave the name Isla Filipina to the island of Samar, in honor of Philip II., of Spain.

Subsequent explorations made better known the number and character of the islands. San Miguel, in Cebu, afterwards called The Holy Name of Jesus, was founded by Legazpi. From this time the name of Philippines was used by the Spanish chroniclers. The conquest of the islands was effected without the cruel methods practiced by the Spaniards in the West Indies.

In 1571, **Manila,** on the island of Luzon, the largest and most important member of the group, was chosen as the capital of the whole. A Spanish government was organized. Civil authority of varying extent was extended over the archipelago, including about 3,140 islands. Most of the islands are small, and many are uninhabited; Luzon, the largest, has 40,969 square miles, being over one third of the **total land surface** of the whole, which has been estimated at 115,026 square miles. The other principal islands are eight: Mindanao, Samar, Mindoro, Panay, Leyte, Negros, Masbate, and Cebu. All are of volcanic origin.

In Luzon the mountains rise to the height of 7,000 feet. Owing to the prevailing moisture and warmth, the forests grow to the mountain tops. The region is subject to **earthquakes,** and volcanoes occasionally burst out.

The history of the Philippines under the Spaniards offers few important events. The native tribes, as indeed the whole population, have often shown a disposition to rebel against Spanish authority. The islands have been ravaged occasionally by pirates.

The Philippines have had little connection with Western Europe. Once, in 1762, an English armament under Draper and Cornish bore down on Manila and compelled the payment of $5,000,000 as a ransom. The city was held for nearly two years, but was restored according to the terms of the Treaty of Paris in 1763. At the outbreak of the war between Spain and the United States, in 1898, Commodore George Dewey, commanding the Pacific division of the American navy, attacked and destroyed the Spanish squadron under command of Admiral Montojo in the harbor of Manila, and blockaded Luzon. A large division of the American army under General Merritt was sent from San Francisco across the

Pacific to the assistance of Dewey in the **siege of Manila,** which city was eventually occupied by the Americans.

By the **Treaty of Paris** (ratified in 1899) the Philippines were ceded by Spain to the United States, Spain receiving $20,000,000 for her outlays in the islands. President McKinley did not at that time desire their retention, but saw no other course. A long struggle ensued with insurgents led by Emilio Aguinaldo, who proclaimed himself president. After his capture in 1901, resistance to American occupation gradually ceased, except for occasional brigandage.

Organization.

Government. William H. Taft was appointed the first American civil governor in 1901 and the first Legislative Assembly was convened in 1907. By the organic act of the Philippine Islands in 1916, autonomous government was extended to the islands, and the whole archipelago was put under civil government. The governor-general, the vice governor, who is also secretary of the Department of Public Instruction, the auditor, and the deputy auditor are appointed by the United States. Both branches of the legislative body are elected, the Senate for six years and the House of Representatives for three; and the legislature elects two resident commissioners of the Islands to hold office for three years.

There are six executive departments: Interior, Public Instruction, Finance, Justice, Agriculture and Natural Resources, Commerce and Communication. The secretaries of those departments, appointed by the governor-general with the consent of the Philippine Senate, are all Filipinos with the exception of the secretary of the Department of Public Instruction. The government of the provinces and towns is closely connected with the Insular government, the officials being in part designated from above.

The **leading races** of the Philippines are the Negritos, of whom about 25,000 remain; the Indonesians or non-Christian tribes, such as the Igorrotes, Tinguianes, etc., and the pure Malays, as the Tagalogs, Visayans, Bicols. There are also many types of mestizos. In course of time a large Malay population has come in, as also have considerable numbers of Chinese immigrants. The Spaniards are comparatively few in numbers, and these reside chiefly in Manila, Cavite, Batangas, and a few other towns. Negro slavery was never introduced into the islands, and hence the African element is wanting.

According to the census of 1918 there were 10,350,640 people. Of these more than 1,000,000 were non-Christian, mostly savages, with many Mohammedans in the South. The capital, Manila, had 266,943 inhabitants in 1914. The Spanish-Malay mixed race furnished most of the leaders. **Aguinaldo,** the revolutionary chieftain, is of mixed Chinese and Malay blood.

The **productions** of the Philippines are abundant and valuable. The **commercial woods** include teak, ebony, cedar, gumwood, ironwood, sapan wood, etc. The breadfruit tree, the coconut, the orange, the citron, and the mango grow luxuriantly and yield abundant fruits. The **great staples** are coffee, sugar, copra, hemp, tobacco, with some rice, wheat, corn, pepper, ginger, vanilla, cinnamon, cacao, etc. The **mineral wealth** includes gold, copper, cinnabar, iron, saltpeter, sulphur, coal, etc. The **tobacco** products, chiefly the cigars of Manila, are regarded by many as the finest in the world. The Bureau of Agriculture has done much in improving methods of cultivation and of rearing live stock and in combating the ravages of destructive insects.

The total **exports** in 1919 amounted to $113,000,000; the total **imports** to $107,000,000. When the United States entered the islands there were only 120 miles of narrow gauge **railway.** There are now 757 miles of railway, 5,471 miles of insular telegraph lines, 986 miles of cable.

Education. The archipelago is divided into 48 educational divisions in which there are over 4,000 schools with 406 American teachers, over 11,000 Filipino teachers and over 671,000 pupils. The annual expenditure for education is about $5,000,000. Higher education is provided by the state-supported University of the Philippines with colleges of liberal arts, medicine and surgery, engineering, law, veterinary medicine, and agriculture, and with schools of fine arts, pharmacy, education, dentistry, and a conservatory of music. The total number of students in 1918–19 was over 3,000. There is also the University of Santo Tomás, founded in 1611 and conducted by the Dominican Order.

One of the vexing controversies was that of the **"Friars' lands."** During Spanish rule, immense estates, occupied by the peasantry, were owned by religious orders from Spain, who became obnoxious to the Philippine Catholic clergy and people in general. This condition of affairs caused continual strife and confusion. By an act of Congress in 1902, the Philippine government received authority to acquire by purchase the lands in question and to dispose of them by sale or lease. The preliminary negotiations at Rome and Manila were conducted by Governor William H. Taft. More than 410,000 acres were purchased at a cost of $7,239,000, to be sold or leased to their occupants.

Chronology.

1521. Discovery by Magellan for Spain
1565. Legazpi begins **Spanish settlement.** Development of colony largely work of **friars,** who gain both political and economic supremacy.
1762. Manila taken by the British. Returned by treaty of 1763.
1896–1897. **Revolt** under **Aguinaldo.**
1898. *May 1.* **Battle of Manila Bay.** American fleet under Dewey destroys Spanish fleet and holds city at mercy. American troops sent, who capture city, August 13. [Spain.]
Dec. 10. Islands **ceded to United States** by
1899–1902. **Insurrection under Aguinaldo** against American control.
1900. *March 16.* **Commission** of five appointed by president under war powers to establish and administer civil government.
1901. *March 2.* Congress authorizes president to establish temporary civil government; commission continued. [tary governor
July 4. Civil governor (Taft) succeeds mili-
Sept. 1. Three Filipinos added to Commission.
1902. *July 1.* Act for **civil government.** Acts of Commission confirmed; bill of rights; governor (governor-general); future bicameral legislature of elected house and commission; two resident commissioners in United States.
1903. *Dec. 22.* Agreement for **purchase of "Friars' lands."**
1907. *Oct. 16.* **First legislature** meets
1909. *Aug. 5.* Free trade with United States in native products, except as to rice and excess quantity of sugar and tobacco. Exception repealed by act of October 3, 1913
1916. *Aug. 29.* **New civil government** (Jones) act; increased autonomy as preparation for independence. Elected Senate; wide powers invested in legislature.

PORTO RICO.

Historical Outline.

Columbus, on his second voyage in 1493, approached the coast of an island which the natives called Borinquen, but which the Spaniards called Puerto Rico ("rich harbor"). Ponce de León, who was governor in 1510, founded the towns of Caparra, now known as Pueblo Viejo, and San Juan. The Spaniards first subdued and then virtually exterminated the **native population.** The English sacked Caparra in 1595. Several other attacks were made in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. On the downfall of the Spanish Bourbons, Porto Rico like Cuba remained faithful to the dethroned dynasty, though in 1820 an ineffectual attempt at independence was started by a faction. Subsequently Porto Rico was ruled by a Spanish officer, who oppressed the people and kept them in tyrannical subjection. Slavery prevailed until abolished in 1873.

In the War of 1898 Porto Rico was **occupied by** an **American army** under Miles, without serious resistance, and its possession was confirmed to the United States by the Treaty of Paris. At present, under the organic act of 1917, it is an organized territory. American citizenship is granted to citizens of Porto Rico and also a large measure of self-government. The president of the United States appoints the governor, but the legislative functions are vested in a legislature, composed of two houses chosen by the citizens of 21 years or over. The Senate consists of 19 members and the House of Representatives of 35. Porto Rico is represented in Congress by a resident commissioner elected for four years.

In 1899 over 83% of the population could neither read nor write; but as a result of the excellent **school system** established by the United States, the percentage of illiteracy was reduced to 65% ten years later. The University of Porto Rico is at Rio Piedras, near San Juan.

Two thirds of the cultivated land of the island is devoted to the raising of **sugar,** and a little more than a ninth to **tobacco,** which ranks second in value. Other important **exports** are coffee, bananas, pineapples, oranges, and cotton. Over 1,000 miles of highway have been constructed on the island and about 300 miles of railroad.

The island has an **area** of 3,606 square miles, and in 1918 had a **population** of 1,299,809, or 360 per square mile. The colored population was about a third.

Chronology.

1508. **Spanish settlement** begins.
1898. *July.* **American** invasion and **occupation.**
Dec. 10. **Ceded to United States** by Spain. Military government continues.
1900. *April 12.* Foraker Act for **territorial government;** executive council forms upper house of legislature. [States begins.]
1901. *July 25.* Free trade with continental United
1917. *March 2.* **Territorial Government Act.** Porto Ricans citizens of United States. Elective Senate. Not granted delegate in Congress.

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS.

The group of islands consisting of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John have at various times been held by the Dutch, English, Spaniards, and French. In 1733 they passed under the control of Denmark and were known as the **Danish West Indies.** An effort was made to annex them to the United States in 1867, but the Senate refused to ratify. Negotiations were revived in 1916, and Denmark accepted a payment of $25,000,000.

The government is vested in such officers as the president shall appoint until Congress acts. Sugar cane, cotton, fruit, and vegetables are grown on the islands and about a million dollars' worth exported to the United States. The islands are now officially known as the **Virgin Islands of the United States.**

The islands have a combined **area** of 132 square miles; and a **population** of about 26,000, a fourth of whom in 1919 were illiterate.

Chronology.

1493. **Discovered** by Columbus and named Virgin Islands. [pation of St. Croix.]
1625. Probable date of Dutch and English occu-
1650. *Aug. 10.* Spanish conquer St. Croix. Soon after conquered by French.
1666. *March 30.* **Possession** taken of St. Thomas **for Denmark.** Development by Danish West India and Guinea Company. [nized in 1716.]
1684. Danes take possession of St. John. Colo-
1733. St. Croix purchased by king of Denmark.
1867. *Oct. 24.* Treaty of sale of St. Thomas and St. John to United States for $7,500,000. Not ratified by American Senate.
1902. *Jan. 24.* Treaty of sale of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, with adjacent islands and rocks, to United States for $5,000,000. Danish Landsthing refuses to ratify.
1916. *Aug. 4.* Treaty of sale of the islands, called Danish West Indies, to United States for $25,000,000. **Sale ratified** by the United States Senate Sept. 7, by Danish plebiscite Dec. 14, and by the Danish government Dec. 22. Group renamed **Virgin Islands of the United States.**
1917. *March 3.* Act for temporary government as president should decide. Naval governor appointed.

THE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, the first president of the United States, as also the first leader of the armies of the United States, was **born** in Westmoreland County, Virginia, February 22, 1732. His father, a planter, died when the son was eleven years old; his mother lived to the age of eighty-two; to her training he owed especially his high sense of honor and his integrity. **As a youth,** he was methodical in his habits, active in athletic pursuits, and conversant with nature. When seventeen years old, he received a commission as a public surveyor, having shown a great aptitude for that career. At nineteen years he was made adjutant general, with rank of major, in charge of one of the militia districts of Virginia. His brother, at this time residing at Mount Vernon, Virginia, died, leaving him in charge of his estate.

It was now 1753. The French on the frontier were setting up claims to territory already claimed by Virginia. Washington was chosen by Governor Dinwiddie to go as commissioner with large powers to learn the intentions of the French and to warn them against encroachment. To accomplish this, he had to make alone a perilous journey through the wilderness. This task he performed successfully and with rare good judgment. The Governor decided to take active measures to repel the French encroachments, and Washington was appointed lieutenant colonel in command. He was captured by a party of French at Great Meadows — the beginning of the **French and Indian War.** In 1755 he accompanied General Braddock on his ill-fated expedition. He was exposed to extreme peril, but escaped unhurt, and his courage and ability made him a marked man. He served in this war for three years, taking active part in the capture of Fort Duquesne. This training gave him an admirable knowledge of military affairs. His success had made him the most prominent Virginian in military service.

In 1759, in his twenty-seventh year, he **married** Mrs. Martha Custis, a young widow with two children, who became his charge. Washington never had children of his own. The joint estate which he now held was large and required great attention, but he could not avoid public life, and he took an active part in the discussions which led to the Revolutionary movements. He was a delegate to the first Continental Congress, held in 1774, and Patrick Henry pronounced him the greatest man on the floor for solid information and sound judgment. When the second Congress assembled in 1775, Washington was again a member and was placed at once at the head of important committees. When the hour came and the colonies prepared to take up arms in defense of their liberties, he was the unanimous choice of Congress for the post of **commander in chief** of the American armies.

Washington, profoundly humble, but firm in his conviction of the righteousness of the country's cause, accepted the trust. On the 3d of July, 1775, in Cambridge, Massachusetts, he drew his sword as **commander of the army,** beneath or near a great elm, which still stands, now with a commemorative stone at its base. He retained command throughout the war and proved himself a great general, for he was patient and cautious when the odds were against him, prompt and bold to act when opportunity offered, and held the army in his hand now as a shield to protect the country, now as a weapon to strike a decisive blow He commanded men, for he was a born ruler and had learned the mastery of himself.

When the war was over, he resigned his commission and retired to private life. He would receive no money other than expenses for his public services, but at once began to devise plans for increasing the resources of Virginia. It was impossible that he should be left alone. When a great civil need arose, the people again demanded him. He went as a delegate from Virginia to the convention which framed the Constitution, and was its presiding officer. Upon the adoption of the Constitution, he was **unanimously chosen first president** of the United States, in 1789. He went to New York to take the office April 30, 1789, and his journey was a triumphal procession. In the organization of the government under the new Constitution he rendered great service; he made all the first appointments to executive and judicial office; he favored sound finance and a national bank. When war broke out in Europe in 1793, he stood firm for neutrality. His skill aided in settling controversies with England by the Jay Treaty of 1794; and he put down the Whisky Insurrection. After four years of service, he was unanimously chosen for a second term. No other man stood as he in the hearts of men, and by his firmness, his large wisdom, and his singleness of purpose to promote only the good of the country, he kept the young nation together when it was forming, against perils from faction within, and perils from enemies without. He refused to hold office for a third term, and wrote a **Farewell Address** which has the tone of a benignant father to his children. He returned to his country estate, but in 1798, when there was imminent prospect of war with France, the country again turned to him and he was appointed commander in chief of the army. He immediately began the organization of his command, but died at his home, December 14, 1799, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. His remains were buried in the family tomb at Mount Vernon, where they still rest. His death was followed by universal mourning. He was pronounced "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Chronology.

1732. *Feb. 22 (N.S.).* Born at Pope's Creek, Va.
1759. *Feb. 22.* Member of Virginia House of Burgesses.
1774. *Aug. 1.* Member of Virginia Convention.
Sept. 5. Member of First Continental Congress.
1775. *May 10.* Member of Second Continental Congress.
June 17. Commander in chief of Continental Army. Takes command at Cambridge, July 3.
1783. *Dec. 23.* Surrenders command of army.
1787. *May 25–Sept. 17.* President of Federal Convention.
1789. *April 30.* Inaugurated first president of United States. Reëlected in 1792. Retires, 1797.
1796. *Sept. 19.* Farewell Address.
1798. *July 3.* Commissioned lieutenant general in command of United States Army.
1799. *Dec. 14.* Dies at Mt. Vernon.

JOHN ADAMS.

JOHN ADAMS, who succeeded Washington in the presidency, was associated with him as vice president. He was a Massachusetts man, born October 30, 1735. In **early life** he was a schoolmaster and at the outbreak of the War for Independence he was a lawyer. He took a leading part in the early measures of resistance against the British crown, but was not at first in favor of separation. He was very independent in spirit and courageous in his convictions, as when he defended the soldiers concerned in the Boston Massacre, taking the unpopular side then as often afterward. He was a **delegate** to the first and second **Continental Congresses.** In the latter he proposed the name of George Washington as commander in chief, seconded the resolution for independence introduced by Richard Henry Lee, and was one of a committee of five, the other members being Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingstone, to draw up a declaration of independence.

In February, 1778, he was **sent to France** as one of the commissioners from the new nation. There he made but a short stay, inasmuch as the object of his mission had already been accomplished by Benjamin Franklin, after the surrender of Burgoyne. He returned to America in August, 1779. In October of the same year he was again sent abroad by Congress and was active on the commission which negotiated a favorable peace with Great Britain (Sept. 3, 1783). He was first minister of the United States to Great Britain, holding that office till near the close of 1789.

Simultaneously with the adoption of the Constitution, Adams returned to the United States and was elected to the office of **vice president.** This position he held for eight years, and then, upon the retirement of Washington, was elected **president.** He came into power when the Federal party, to which he belonged, was giving way before the Republican party, headed by Jefferson. Adams was not in sympathy with all the measures advocated by his own party, nor did he get on well with Hamilton, another able leader of the Federalists. The faction in the party and the bitter political feuds throughout the country, together with the fierce European war, brought the United States into peril. Adams favored the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798, which injured his party. In the controversies with France, including the X Y Z mission of 1797, he stood for national honor and for peace, but he accepted the Naval War of 1799. Then he hastened the peace of 1800 with France.

The rest of his life he spent in **retirement** at his home in Quincy, Massachusetts. His wife, to whom he was married in 1764, was a remarkable woman, as shown by the letters which passed between them during the separation caused by his public duties. His own character is significantly shown in this correspondence, and is well described in the words of his grandson: "Ardent, vehement in support of what he believed to be right, easily roused to anger by opposition, but sincere, placable, and generous, when made conscious of having committed the slightest wrong, there is no individual of his time about whom there are so few concealments of either faults or virtues." He died, July 4, 1826, just fifty years after that Declaration of Independence in which he bore so important a part.

Chronology.

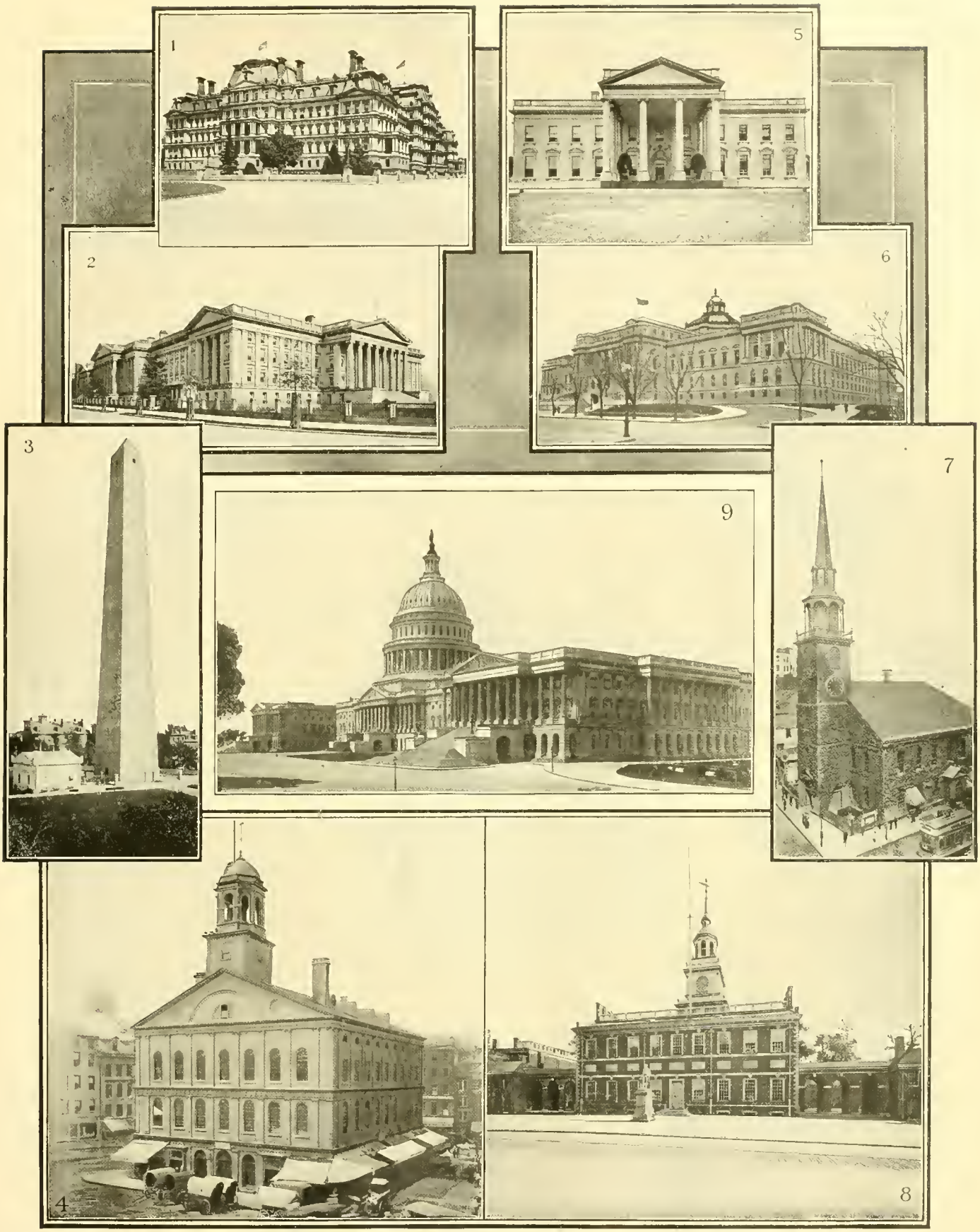
1735. *Oct. 30 (N.S.).* Born at Braintree (Quincy), Mass.
1755. *July 16.* Graduated at Harvard College.
1774. *Sept. 5.* Member of First Continental Congress. [cial Congress.
Nov. 28. Member of Massachusetts Provin-
1775. *May 10.* Member of Second Continental Congress.
1776. *Aug. 2.* Signs Declaration of Independence, having been a member of the committee which prepared it. [France.
1778. *April 8.* Reaches Paris as commissioner to
1779. *Sept. 1.* Member of Massachusetts Constitutional Convention. Drafts the constitution.
1780. *Dec. 29.* Minister to the Netherlands.
1783. *Sept. 3.* Signs treaty of peace with Great Britain at Paris.
1785. *May 14.* Minister to Great Britain.
1789. *April 21.* Vice president of United States.
1797. *March 4.* President of United States.
1800. Defeated for reëlection. Retires 1801.
1820. *Nov. 15.* Member of second constitutional convention of Massachusetts.
1826. *July 4.* Dies at Quincy, Mass.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, third president, was the son of a Virginia planter. He was born in 1743, and educated at William and Mary College. His first notable public service was in the second Continental Congress. He succeeded Adams and held the office of president for two terms, from 1801 to 1809. The Federalists, who had been the special advocates of the Constitution and had exercised the chief governmental power up to this time, had often been in the minority and yet had retained control because they had a definite policy. Their opponents at first were known by the negative title of Antifederalists, and their party, if such it may be called, though it was never organized, was the Antifederalist party. But by degrees the various elements of the opposition became consolidated into a party with a positive political creed. This work of consolidation was largely the accomplishment of their great leader, Jefferson, who named his new party **"Republican."** The name **"Democratic,"** borrowed from French politics, was, however, applied to him and his followers by their enemies, and though Jefferson never accepted it, the designation stuck and after more than thirty years was even adopted by the party itself, the official name of which is Democratic-Republican. As long as he lived he gave direction to many otherwise divergent forces. He was a comparatively young man when he drew up the draft of the **Declaration of Independence,** in 1776.

He was elected governor of Virginia, an office which he held for two years, and was then an efficient member of the Congress of the Confederation. He was the author of the Federal Ordinance of 1784, and also of the system of rectangular land surveying. Afterwards, in 1784, he went to Europe as commissioner to negotiate treaties with foreign powers, in connection with Franklin and Adams. When he came back to America, in 1789, he was at once invited by Washington to serve as Secretary of State in his cabinet. Washington's cabinet was composed of somewhat discordant elements, and Jefferson often found himself at odds with Alexander Hamilton, the Secretary of the Treasury, and opposed the National Bank. **Jefferson was a determined opponent of centralization.** He held that through the distribution of powers good government is effected. His views with regard to the Constitution looked toward the doctrine of State sovereignty, and he was in open sympathy with the philosophers of the French Revolution, who **aimed at the reconstruction of society** on a more democratic basis.

His fundamental principle was belief "in the accuracy of the popular judgment," and he always relied with firm confidence upon the people. A strict constructionist of the Constitution, as president he did not allow his theories to interfere with his actions when circumstances demanded a certain course. When vested with responsibility he cared less to show himself consistent than to guide the country to successful issues. Important policies were pursued during his administration. By the exercise of extreme economy the public debt and the expenses of the government were greatly reduced, but the efficiency of the navy was somewhat impaired, though it wor great



HISTORIC BUILDINGS

1. STATE, WAR, AND NAVY DEPARTMENT, Washington.
2. TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Washington.
3. BUNKER HILL MONUMENT, Charlestown, Mass.
4. FANEUIL HALL, Boston.
5. WHITE HOUSE, Washington.
6. CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY, Washington.
7. OLD SOUTH CHURCH, Boston.
8. INDEPENDENCE HALL, Philadelphia.
9. UNITED STATES CAPITOL, Washington.

THE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

JOHN ADAMS
1797–1801

THOMAS JEFFERSON
1801–1809

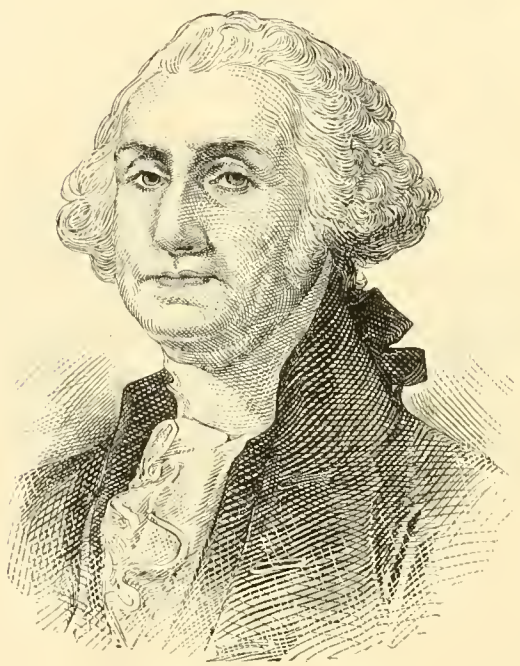
JAMES MADISON
1809–1817

JAMES MONROE
1817–1825

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS
1825–1829

ANDREW JACKSON
1829–1837

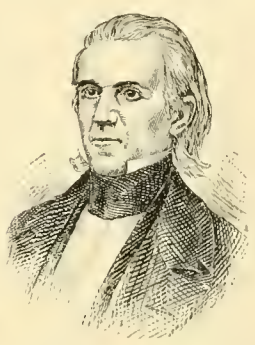
MARTIN VAN BUREN
1837–1841



GEORGE WASHINGTON
1789–1797

WM. HENRY HARRISON
1841–Died

JOHN TYLER
1841–1845



JAMES K. POLK
1845–1849

ZACHARY TAYLOR
1849–1850–Died

MILLARD FILLMORE
1850–1853

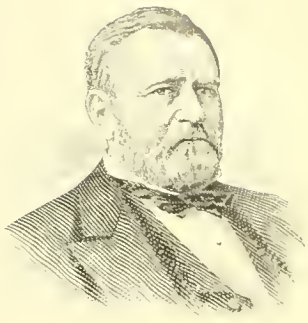
FRANKLIN PIERCE
1853–1857

THE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

JAMES BUCHANAN
1857–1861

ABRAHAM LINCOLN
1861–1865 1865–Died

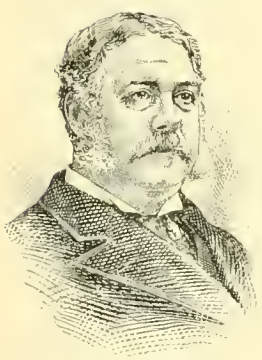
ANDREW JOHNSON
1865–1869



ULYSSES S. GRANT
1869–1877

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES
1877–1881

JAMES A. GARFIELD
1881–Died

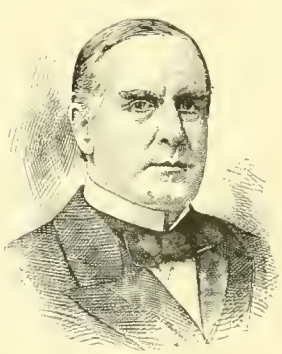


CHESTER A. ARTHUR
1881–1885

WARREN G. HARDING
1921–

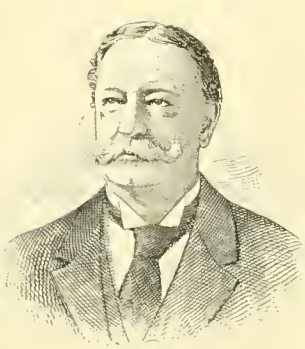
BENJAMIN HARRISON
1889–1893

GROVER CLEVELAND
1885–1889 1893–1897

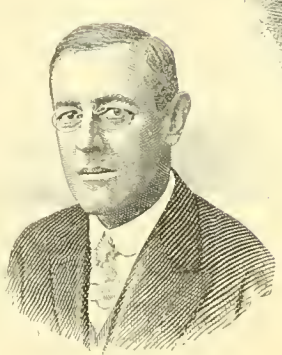


WILLIAM McKINLEY
1897–1901 1901–Died

THEODORE ROOSEVELT
1901–1909

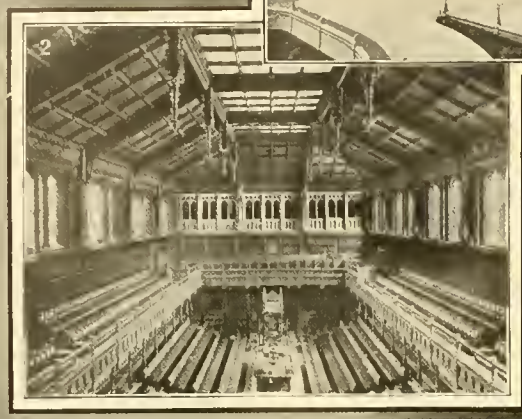


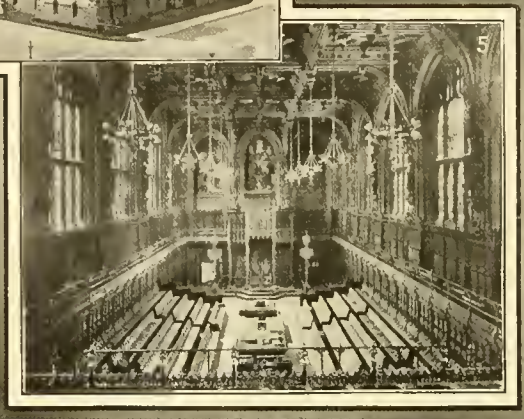
WILLIAM H. TAFT
1909–1913



WOODROW WILSON
1913–1921

BRITISH GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS.





1. HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, Ottawa.
2. HOUSE OF COMMONS, London.
3. HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, London.
4. PARLIAMENT HOUSE, Cape Town.
5. HOUSE OF LORDS, London
6. GOVERNMENT BUILDING, Pretoria.
7. GOVERNMENT BUILDING, Melbourne.

distinction in the war with Algiers. The **purchase of Louisiana** was the most conspicuous and the most important act of his administration, but one of those acts wherein his theory and his practice disagreed. In the difficulties arising out of European politics and war, Jefferson had been disposed to sympathize with France rather than Great Britain, but as president he found himself forced into antagonism with both countries. His remedy, the Embargo Act of 1807, proved a failure.

Declining urgent solicitation to accept a third term of office, in 1809 he returned to private life at Monticello in Virginia, near the place of his birth. By a singular coincidence he died on the 4th of July, 1826. Adams died the same day and being ignorant of Jefferson's death is said to have uttered as his last words, "Jefferson survives." The epitaph on Jefferson's monument at Monticello, written by himself, indicates what he esteemed the greatest achievements of his life: "Author of the Declaration of Independence, of the Statute of Virginia for religious freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia."

Chronology.

1743. *April 2 (N.S.).* Born at Shadwell, Va.
1762. *April 25.* Graduated at College of William and Mary.
1769. *May 11.* Member of Virginia House of Burgesses.
1775. *June 21.* Member of Continental Congress.
1776. *Aug. 2.* Signs Declaration of Independence, which he had drafted and which had been agreed to in Congress July 4.
1779. *June 1.* Governor of Virginia.
1785. *March 10.* Minister to France.
1790. *March 21.* Secretary of State of United States.
1797. *March 4.* Vice president of United States.
1801. *March 4.* President of United States. Re-elected, 1804. Retires, 1809.
1819. *March 29.* Rector of University of Virginia.
1826. *July 4.* Dies at Monticello, Va.

JAMES MADISON.

James Madison, fourth president, was born March 16, 1751. His home was at Montpelier, a hamlet of Virginia in the neighborhood of Monticello. He was a graduate of the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University) and came into places of responsibility in his native State. As member of the Congress of the Confederation he was active in urging reforms, and learned the need of a stronger Union. In 1787 he was chosen as one of the Virginia delegates to the convention and was author of the so-called "Randolph" or "Virginia Plan," which became the basis of the Constitution. The proceedings of the convention were secret, and posterity has been dependent for an exact knowledge of its doings mainly upon the notes of Madison, which he made with great care and diligence. He was one of the **foremost debaters** in the convention, and when the result was reached he was an able **defender of the Constitution** in the long public discussion which followed before the action of the convention was ratified by the people. In connection with Hamilton and Jay, he wrote the papers which constitute the series collectively called "The Federalist," his own part being especially the exposition of the powers proposed to be vested in the Union, the relations of the general to the State authorities, and the separation and mutual dependence of the forces of the central authority.

More, perhaps, than any other man, Madison may be regarded as having personal and practical relations with the **interpretation of the Constitution.** He was one of the two most prominent framers of it; one of the three most able defenders of it before the people. For eight years under Jefferson he was Secretary of State, and for eight years afterward, namely, from 1809 to 1817, President of the United States. His writings on the Constitution are the most important which we have on the subject, and he is, perhaps, the greatest of American constitutional statesmen. He never swerved from the position which he took at the time of the convention, that an adoption of the Constitution by the States was forever obligatory, and in his old age, when South Carolina held the doctrine of nullification, he pronounced it a "colossal heresy." He parted company, however, with Jay and Hamilton quite early in his career, and held within strict limits the **State rights creed,** which more than any other man he helped to formulate, especially by what are known as the Virginia Resolutions of 1798–99.

When he entered upon the office of **president** the country was on the brink of war with England. Jefferson and Madison had strained every point to preserve peace, and the party which they led had suffered in consequence. A division arose, therefore, in the Democratic-Republican party, and a war faction, coming to the front, took the lead and brought about a change in tactics. The change occurring near the close of Madison's first term, it was said that his acceptance of the change had much to do with his re-election. The second war with England was fought during his administration, and Madison found himself bitterly opposed by the Federalists and also by the peace members of his own party. He was responsible for much of the incapacity in the management of the war which led to disasters and defeats on land culminating in the British capture of Washington. The brilliant successes of the navy, and the final triumph of arms at New Orleans, however, left a feeling of national elation. Madison's own character was unimpeached, and at the close of his second term he retired to his farm, leading a quiet life in the pursuit of his studies, and succeeding Jefferson as Rector of the University of Virginia. He died peacefully June 28, 1836.

Chronology.

1751. *March 16 (N.S.).* Born at Port Conway, Va.
1771. Graduated at College of New Jersey (Princeton College).
1776. *May 6.* Member of Virginia constitutional convention.
1778. *Jan. 14.* Member of Virginia executive council.
1780. *March 20.* Member of Continental Congress.
1787. *May 25.* Member of Federal Convention.
1788. *June 2.* Member of Virginia Ratification Convention.
1789. *April 1.* Member of the House of Representatives. Reëlected, 1808. Retires, 1813.
1801. *May 2.* Secretary of state of United States.
1809. *March 4.* President of United States.
1826. Rector of University of Virginia.
1829. *Oct. 5.* Member second constitutional convention of Virginia.
1836. *June 28.* Dies at Montpelier, Va.

JAMES MONROE.

James Monroe, fifth president, was one of the youngest of the company of men whom we associate together as fomders of the nation. At the time of the Declaration of Independence, Monroe, who was born April 28, 1758, was eighteen years old. Monroe was also a Virginian and served with distinction under Washington during the War for Independence and in the Congress of the Confederation was very active and did his best to prevent the impending wreck.

Under the new Federal Government, he was sent by Washington as **minister to France,** where his republican and antifederal views made him almost a partisan of the French government. In the delicate relations between England, France, and the United States, the presence in France of a minister so pronounced in his views was embarrassing, and Monroe was recalled, almost in disgrace, but he was afterwards sent by Jefferson to France in 1803, when he completed negotiations with Napoleon for the **purchase of Louisiana.** Monroe ever after regarded the act as one in which he felt special pride.

In 1806 Monroe was appointed **minister to England,** with William Pinkney, and negotiated a treaty of Commerce (1806), which was not accepted by Jefferson. After his return he was governor of Virginia, and in 1811 was called by Madison to be **secretary of state** in his administration, an office which he held until he was elected in 1816 to succeed Madison as president.

He also acted for a time as **secretary of war.** When nominated for reëlection at the end of his first term, out of two hundred and thirty-two electoral votes he received all but one. The period of his **presidency,** especially the earlier part, when the country had closed the war with Great Britain and was entering upon a time of prosperity, was called the "Era of Good Feeling," and a journey taken by the President through the Northern States called out a general expression of harmony. He died on the 4th of July, 1831.

Monroe's presidency and his name are especially remembered for the enunciation of what is now known as the **Monroe Doctrine.** The allied sovereigns of Europe proposed to aid Spain in reducing to obedience her revolted colonies in America. Monroe, in a message to Congress, declared that in the war between Spain and her colonies the United States would observe strict neutrality, adding: "That we should consider any attempt on the part of the allied powers to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. . . . But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States." In the debates which afterward sprang up about the message, the construction was put upon this declaration which it has ever since borne, that the American continents were thenceforth not to be considered as fields for colonization by any European power. The acquisition of Florida from Spain and the "Missouri Compromise" also signalized Monroe's term.

Chronology.

1758. *April 28.* Born in Westmoreland Co., Va.
1774. Enters College of William and Mary.
1775. *Sept. 28.* Commissioned lieutenant in Continental Army.
1782. *Oct. 21.* Member of Virginia House of Delegates. Later member of Virginia executive council.
1783. *Dec. 13.* Member of Congress of Confederation.
1788. *June 2.* Member of Virginia Ratification Convention.
1790. *Dec. 6.* United States senator.
1794. *May 28.* Minister to France.
1799. *Dec. 1.* Governor of Virginia.
1803. Envoy to France to negotiate Louisiana Purchase Treaty.
April 18. Minister to Great Britain.
1804. *Nov. 9.* Minister to Spain.
1811. *Jan. 4.* Again governor of Virginia.
April 6. Secretary of state of United States. Serves as secretary of state to March 3, 1817; also serves as secretary of war from Sept. 27, 1814, to March, 1815.
1817. *March 4.* President of United States. Re-elected, 1820. Retires, 1825.
1829. *Oct. 5.* Member of second Constitutional Convention of Virginia.
1831. Dies at New York.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

John Quincy Adams, sixth president, born July 11, 1767, son of John Adams, began his public career when his father took him with him, when he went as commissioner to France in 1778, and kept him with him during his stay in Europe. The son may be said to have grown up in the diplomatic service, having been appointed minister, successively, to the Netherlands, to Portugal, and to Russia. He was chosen to the Massachusetts Senate in 1802, and the next year to the United States Senate. He accepted a position in 1806 as Professor of Rhetoric in Harvard University, but though he had strong literary tastes as well as legal training, his experience and the public demand made a political life inevitable. In 1809 Madison appointed him **minister to Russia,** and in 1814 he was one of the commissioners who negotiated the peace between Great Britain and the United States, known as the Treaty of Ghent. Shortly afterward he was made minister to Great Britain, and upon the accession of President Monroe he became **secretary of state.** In that office he made many commercial treaties, and was even more active than Monroe in the decisions and phrasing of the Monroe Doctrine.

At the presidential election of 1824, there were four candidates, all of the Democratic-Republican party: Adams, Andrew Jackson, William H. Crawford, and Henry Clay. Since no one received a majority of electoral votes, the election devolved upon the House of Representatives. That body, voting by States, chose Mr. Adams, though in both the popular and the electoral vote he had been below General Jackson. He **took the presidential oath in the face of strong opposition** and was confronted throughout his entire term by bitter political enemies. Any measure he might propose was almost sure of defeat. Of independent character, strict integrity, and unflagging industry, he endeavored faithfully to discharge all the duties of his office though encountering in many directions only dislike and studied insult. His diary is a valuable commentary upon contemporary history, and reveals also in emphatic lines the strong, obstinate, suspicious, but high-minded and patriotic, man.

He left the White House almost unnoticed, when his successor entered, and indeed turned his back with little show of civility upon Washington and its men, returning to his ancestral farm at Quincy, to live in retirement. In 1831, however, he was sent back to the House of Representatives, to which he was constantly reëlected until his death. He was the most notable member of the House at a very stormy period, always defending the right of petition, when Congress, on the demand of the pro-slavery element attempted to enforce a policy of silence. Twice the attempt was made to censure and humiliate him for venturing to present petitions bearing on slavery. Both times he defied his enemies, and his public defense of the right of petition had a great influence upon the conscience of the country. His death was dramatic, for he fell upon the floor of the House when in the midst of a speech, Feb. 23, 1848.

Chronology.

1767. *July 11.* Born at Braintree (Quincy), Mass.
1787. *July 18.* Graduated at Harvard College.
1794. *May 30.* Minister to the Netherlands.
1797. *June 1.* Minister to Prussia.
1802. *May 26.* Member of Massachusetts Senate.
1803. *Oct. 21.* United States senator.
1809. *June 27.* Minister to Russia.
1814. *Dec. 24.* Signs treaty of peace with Great Britain at Ghent.
1815. *Feb. 28.* Minister to Great Britain.
1817. *Sept. 22.* Secretary of state of United States.
1825. *March 4.* President of United States.
1828. Defeated for reëlection. Retires, 1829.
1831. *Dec. 5.* Member of House of Representatives.
1848. *Feb. 23.* Dies at Washington.

ANDREW JACKSON.

THE election, in 1828, of ANDREW JACKSON of Tennessee as seventh president was in the nature of a political and social revolution. The preceding presidents had belonged to well-to-do families of either Virginia or Massachusetts and had been connected with the public service of the nation. Jackson's **early life** had been passed in hardship and all his associations were rugged. He was born in the same year, 1767, as John Quincy Adams, on the 15th of March, in Union County, North Carolina. In 1780, at the age of thirteen, he volunteered with his brother Robert to fight under General Sumter. In 1786 he was admitted to the bar, and two years later removed to Nashville, Tennessee. He was a member of the House of Representatives from Tennessee, 1796–97, and in 1797 was appointed to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate, which he entered Nov. 22. After his return to his State in 1798 he was elected by the legislature to a place on the bench of the State supreme court, which he held for six years, and during his term of office was chosen major general of the State militia. He resigned his judgeship in 1804 and applied himself to business, but in the rough condition of the country and the times his fighting capacity was a conspicuous part of his reputation, so that upon the breaking out of the war with England in 1812 he came forward rapidly as a **military leader.** His great reputation was won by his brilliant and successful defense of New Orleans at the close of the war, and from that time he was one of the marked men of the country. Three years later, in 1818, when engaged in quelling disturbances among the Georgia Indians, he disregarded the boundary which separated the United States from the Spanish territory and without orders made a raid into **Florida.** This act produced a momentary consternation, but the purchase of Florida shortly after removed diplomatic difficulties.

The people liked a man who was willing to take responsibility. The independence and will which Jackson showed made him a **popular hero.** He was appointed governor of Florida in 1821, and then for a time sat as senator from Tennessee at Washington. At the next general election, in 1824, he was nominated for the presidency as a Democrat by the legislature of Tennessee. Though he had a slight superiority of electoral votes there was no choice under the Constitution. The House of Representatives elected Mr. Adams. As the close of Adams's term approached, Jackson was again nominated. He was successful by an electoral vote of more than two to one. In 1832 he was again elected for a second term by a still larger majority.

The period was one of sharp political feeling. Jackson's own individual and remarkable character had much to do with the direction taken by events. He was peculiarly a **man of the people,** in the sense of deriving his power from their personal rather than political adherence. He had a limited education, little experience in statesmanship, strong prejudices, but much common sense, unwavering patriotism, and, above all, the inborn genius of leadership in any form of conflict. As a Democrat he was opposed to what he regarded as loose constructions of the Constitution; he was especially hostile to the National Bank, and his persistent hostility, which sometimes found expression in what his enemies called arbitrary measures, led finally to the overthrow of the bank. He was also a passionate lover of the Union, and when South Carolina attempted nullification, Jackson's will and promptness interposed at once the force of the nation to crush the movement. He had bitter enemies and enthusiastic and devoted friends. His administration "formed an era in the political, social, and industrial history of the United States."

Like Washington and Jefferson, refusing a third election to the chief magistracy, he retired at the end of his second term and spent the rest of his life in quiet at his countryseat, known as The Hermitage, in Tennessee. There he died on June, 8, 1845.

Chronology.

1767. *March 15.* Born at the Waxhaw Settlement, Union County, N. C.
1796. *Jan. 11.* Member of Tennessee Constitutional Convention.
Dec. 5. Member of House of Representatives.
1797. *Nov. 22.* United States senator.
1798. Judge of Tennessee supreme court.
1812. Major general of volunteers.
1814. *April 19.* Brigadier general in United States Army.
1815. *Jan. 8.* Battle of New Orleans.
1818. *March.* Invasion of Florida.
1821. *March 10.* Governor of Florida.
1823. *Dec. 5.* Again United States senator.
1829. *March 4.* President of United States. Re-elected 1832; retires 1837.
1845. *June 8.* Dies at The Hermitage, Tenn.

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, eighth president, a native of New York, was born at Kinderhook, December 5, 1782. His early education was without special advantages, but the law was his profession, and he was admitted to the bar in 1803. He was early a politician and greatly concerned in party affairs. He held various offices in his State, being member of the Senate, and at one time attorney-general. In 1821 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in 1829 he became **governor** of the State **of New York.** He held this office, however, but a short time, for he was called by Jackson in the same year to be **secretary of state.** Resigning his position as secretary of state in the spring of 1831, he was appointed **minister to England** in August and was cordially received in London, but within a few weeks learned that the senate had failed to confirm his nomination. In the political quarrel which followed he was nominated to the vice presidency in Jackson's second term, and in 1837 succeeded him as president. The principal measure of his administration was the **Subtreasury Plan,** which he persistently advocated until it was adopted.

Van Buren was again the candidate of his party when his term closed, but he failed of reëlection Again, in 1844, he was brought forward, but did not receive the nomination in the party convention. In 1848, when the Democratic party was divided upon the slavery question, Van Buren secured a nomination from the Free-soil party, an act which could not obtain an election for him, but helped to defeat the regular Democratic candidate. He passed the remainder of his life on his farm, and wrote an "Enquiry into the Origin and Course of Political Parties in the United States." He died at Kinderhook, July 24, 1862.

Chronology.

1782. *Dec. 5.* Born at Kinderhook, N.Y.
1808. *Feb. 20.* Surrogate of Columbia County.
1812. *Nov. 3.* Member of New York Senate.
1815. *Feb. 17.* Attorney-general of New York.
1821. *Aug. 28.* Member of the third Constitutional Convention of New York.
Dec. 3. United States senator.
1829. *Jan. 1.* Governor of New York.
March 28. United States secretary of state.
1831. *Aug. 1.* Minister to Great Britain.
1833. *March 4.* Vice president of United States.
1837. *March 4.* President of United States.
1840. *November.* Defeated for reëlection. Retires 1841.
1848. *Nov. 7.* Defeated as Free-soil candidate for presidency.
1862. *July 24.* Dies at Kinderhook.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, ninth president, was born in Virginia, February 9, 1773, and spent his early life on the frontier as an officer of the United States army. He was appointed governor of Indiana Territory, and won his greatest fame in conflicts with the Indians, especially at the **Battle of Tippecanoe,** when he defeated the Indian chief Tecumseh. He took an active part in the second war with Great Britain, and in 1828 was sent as minister to Colombia. He was nominated by the Whig party against Van Buren in 1840, and a political canvass followed which was marked by great enthusiasm on the part of the Whigs. The discontent with the administration, which financial distress had helped to create, was turned to account, and Harrison's personal popularity was vigorously used in the prosecution of the canvass. All manner of devices were employed, and the autumn following the nominations became a general political festival. Harrison was elected, but had scarcely chosen his cabinet before he died, April 4, 1841, just a month after his inauguration. He was the **first president to die in office.**

Chronology.

1773. *Feb. 9.* Born at Berkeley, Va.
1791. *Aug. 16.* Ensign in United States Army.
1798. *June 28.* Secretary of Territory Northwest of the Ohio.
1799. *Dec. 2.* Territorial delegate to Congress.
1800. *May 13.* Governor of Indiana Territory.
1811. *Nov. 7.* Defeats Indians at battle of Tippecanoe.
1812. *Aug. 22.* Brigadier general in United States Army.
1813. *Oct. 5.* Battle of the Thames.
1816. *Dec. 2.* Member of United States House of Representatives.
1819. *Dec. 6.* Member of Ohio Senate.
1825. *March 4.* United States senator.
1828. *May 24.* Minister to Colombia.
1841. President of United States.
April 4. Dies at Washington.

JOHN TYLER.

ON the death of Mr. Harrison, the vice president, JOHN TYLER of Virginia, succeeded to the executive chair, as tenth president. He was born on March 29, 1790, was a member of the State legislature at the age of twenty-one, successively held every office in the gift of his native State, and was candidate for the vice presidency in 1836. He had been a political opponent of Jackson, but he was, in political education, a follower of the extreme State-rights Democrat, John C. Calhoun. On becoming president, this lack of adherence to the political principles of the Whigs who had elected him caused a breach with the Whigs, who were headed by Henry Clay. All the cabinet resigned except Webster. The Democrats did not take the president up and he was left isolated. Nevertheless, his administration had **several successes in diplomacy.** Webster negotiated the **Ashburton Treaty,** which fixed the northeast boundary of the United States for 2,000 miles. The first treaty with China was secured (1844); and Calhoun was made secretary of state to negotiate a treaty of annexation of Texas, which failed of ratification. At the close of his term Tyler returned to Virginia where he lived in retirement until January, 1861, when he presided over the peace convention called at Washington to avert civil war. A few weeks later he voted for secession in the Virginia State Convention. He died in Richmond, January 18, 1862, being at that time a member of the House of Representatives of the Confederate States.

Chronology.

1790. *March 29.* Born in Charles City Co., Va.
1807. *July.* Graduated at College of William and Mary.
1811. *December.* Member of Virginia House of Delegates.
1815. Member of Virginia executive council.
1816. *Dec. 17.* Member of House of Representatives.
1825. *Dec. 1.* Governor of Virginia.
1827. *Dec. 3.* United States senator.
1829. *Oct. 5.* Member of second Constitutional Convention of Virginia.
1841. *March 4.* Vice president of United States.
April 6. President of United States by death of Harrison. Retires 1845.
1859. Chancellor of College of William and Mary.
1861. *Feb. 5.* President of Peace Conference.
March 1. Member of Virginia Secession Convention.
July 20. Delegate to Confederate Provisional Congress.
1862. *Jan. 18.* Dies at Richmond, Va.

JAMES KNOX POLK.

JAMES KNOX POLK, eleventh president, was born in North Carolina in 1795, became a member of the bar in Tennessee in 1820, was elected a member of Congress in 1825, and three times was elected **Speaker of the House.** In 1844 he was nominated for the presidency by the Democrats as a "dark horse" because he supported the annexation of Texas. His opponent, Henry Clay, was uncertain, and Polk was elected in a very close contest, and no president has been more successful in gaining his ends. He adjusted the Oregon boundary (1846) and annexed California and New Mexico. The **Mexican War,** which was prosecuted during his term of office, was favored largely by those who saw in it a means of strengthening the power of the Southern slavery forces. He was a man of industry and ability. He served one term, 1845–49, declining to seek renomination, and died on June 15, 1849, three months after his departure from the White House.

Chronology.

1795. *Nov. 2.* Born in Mecklenburg Co., N. C.
1818. *June.* Graduated at University of North Carolina.
1823. *Sept. 15.* Member of Tennessee House of Representatives.
1825. *Dec. 5.* Member of United States House of Representatives.
1835. *Dec. 7.* Speaker of House of Representatives.
1839. *Oct. 14.* Governor of Tennessee.
1845. *March 4.* President of United States. Retires 1849.
1849. *June 15.* Dies at Nashville, Tenn.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, twelfth president, was born in Virginia, September 24, 1784, but his father early removed his family to Kentucky, where frontier life developed the military ability of the boy. He joined the **army** in 1807, and Madison, a relative, who was then secretary of state, procured him a lieutenancy. He was engaged in the war of 1812 and in wars against the Indians in Arkansas and Florida, and rose through all grades to the rank of brigadier general. In 1846 he was in command on the frontiers of Mexico, and when the war broke out he at once crossed the Rio Grande and gained striking victories at **Palo Alto** and **Resaca de la Palma.** His success afterward at **Monterey,** and **Buena Vista,** and his general conduct of the campaign, marked him as an able soldier. Though his knowledge of civil affairs was slight, and he had had no political train-

ing for the office, his personal popularity made him an available candidate, and he was elected in 1848. He held the chair for sixteen months only, dying from an attack of cholera, July 9, 1850.

Chronology.

1784. *Sept. 24.* Born in Orange Co., Va.
1808. *May 3.* Lieutenant in United States Army.
1846. *May 8, 9.* Battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.
June 19. Major general.
July 16. Thanks of Congress. Also on March 2, 1847, and May 9, 1848.
Sept. 21–24. Capture of Monterey.
1847. *Feb. 22–23.* Battle of Buena Vista.
1849. *March 5.* President of United States.
1850. *July 9.* Dies at Washington.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

Millard Fillmore, thirteenth president, was born January 7, 1800, in Locke, now Summerhill, Cayuga County, New York. His early life was one of struggle with adversity, but he succeeded in securing a legal education, and was admitted to the bar in 1827. Buffalo became his home shortly after, and he was sent to the State legislature. In 1832 and again in 1836 he was elected to Congress, where he made his mark, especially as **an advocate of tariff legislation.** In 1844 he was nominated by the Whigs to the office of governor of New York, but failed of election. In 1847 he was elected comptroller of the State, and in 1848 was nominated for vice president. By the death of President Taylor, July 9, 1850, Fillmore succeeded to the chair. He surrounded himself with an able cabinet and endeavored to follow a middle course between the political extremes. The passage of the Fugitive Slave Bill during his administration, and his proclamation enforcing it, estranged from him a large section of the Whig party. After his retirement from office (1853) he spent some time in travel at home and abroad, and while absent received a nomination for the presidency at the hands of the American party in 1856. He obtained the electoral votes of one State, Maryland. He spent the remainder of his life quietly in Buffalo, where he died, March 8, 1874.

Chronology.

1800. *Jan. 7.* Born in Cayuga Co., N. Y.
1829. *Jan. 6.* Member of New York Assembly.
1833. *Dec. 2.* Member of House of Representatives.
1848. *Jan. 1.* Comptroller of New York.
1849. *March 5.* Vice president of United States.
1850. *July 10.* President of United States by death of Taylor. Retires 1853.
1856. *Nov. 4.* Defeated as American, or Know-Nothing, candidate for presidency.
1874. *March 8.* Dies at Buffalo.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

Franklin Pierce, fourteenth president, was born in Hillsborough, New Hampshire, November 23, 1804, and after graduating at Bowdoin College, where he and Nathaniel Hawthorne were intimate friends, he studied law under Levi Woodbury. He was member of the State legislature from 1829 to 1833, and Speaker of the House during the last year, when he was elected to Congress and served two years in the lower house. In 1836 he was sent to the United States Senate, but at the close of his term returned to the practice of the law. **In the Mexican War** he became a volunteer, was colonel in command of a regiment, and saw some service.

In 1852 Pierce was little known in the country, but was nominated by the Democratic Convention on the forty-ninth ballot. The Whig candidate was General Winfield Scott, who in the Mexican War had gained little less distinction than had General Taylor. Pierce received more than six sevenths of the entire electoral vote and the Whig party rapidly disintegrated, never again putting a presidential ticket in the field. Though a Northern man, Pierce sympathized with the extreme Southern school and made Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, his secretary of war. As chief magistrate he showed little ability to direct or command. Personally agreeable, of elegant manners, most estimable in private life, he lacked vigor for the conduct of affairs and merely drifted with the tide. He failed to receive a renomination in 1856; and, retiring to private life, died at Concord, New Hampshire, October 8, 1869. During his term the **"Missouri Compromise" was repealed,** opening the Territories to slavery.

Chronology.

1804. *Nov. 23.* Born at Hillsborough, N. H.
1824. Graduated at Bowdoin College.
1829. *June 3.* Member New Hampshire House of Representatives. [Representatives.]
1833. *Dec. 2.* Member United States House of [Representatives.]
1837. *March 4.* United States senator.
1847. *Feb. 16.* Colonel in United States Army; Brigadier general, March 3.
1850. *Nov. 6.* Member of fifth Constitutional Convention of New Hampshire.
1853. *March 4.* President of United States. Retires 1857.
1869. *Oct. 8.* Dies at Concord, New Hampshire.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

James Buchanan, fifteenth president, was born in Franklin County, Pennsylvania, April 23, 1791, graduated at Dickinson College, and in 1812 was admitted to the bar. He was a Federalist in the early days. He was sent to Congress in 1821, after serving in the State legislature, and was ten years in the House. In 1832 he became minister to Russia under appointment of President Jackson, to whose party he had attached himself, and in 1834 was chosen to the United States Senate, where he supported Jackson and Van Buren. He was President Polk's **secretary of state,** and was sent by Pierce as **minister to England.** While there he joined the ministers to France and Spain in a paper called, from the place where it was drawn up, the **Ostend Manifesto,** in which an attempt was made to force the United States into a policy for the possession of Cuba, a policy which formed part of the Southern program, since it would erect an additional safeguard to slavery.

The contest between the slave power and the anti-slavery sentiment had been growing in intensity during Pierce's administration, so that at the election in 1856 a great increase in the popular vote for the anti-slavery, now called the Republican, candidate occurred; but the Democratic party was highly organized, and responded, moreover, to the will of the South, which was now thoroughly sensible of its declining power and put forth a strong effort to retain control.

Upon his elevation to the presidency Buchanan placed several extreme Southerners in his cabinet, and made repeated efforts to **annex Mexico** and Central American territory. After the election of Abraham Lincoln, in 1860, Buchanan drifted along. His message of December, 1860, tied his own hands against taking action by accepting the construction of the Constitution under which the South justified its preparation to secede. The occupation of Fort Sumter by Major Anderson, Dec. 26, brought about a cabinet crisis. Buchanan was ready to surrender the fort, but Jeremiah Black, his secretary of state, threatened to resign; Buchanan gave in helplessly and from that time to the end of his term, March 4, 1861, was a chip in the stream. The events which followed his administration so plunged him into obscurity, that his death, in 1868, was almost a surprise to people at large, so entirely had he been forgotten.

Chronology.

1791. *April 23.* Born near Mercersburg, Pa.
1809. *September.* Graduated at Dickinson College.
1814. *Dec. 6.* Member of Pennsylvania House of Representatives.
1821. *Dec. 3.* Member of United States House of Representatives.
1832. *Jan. 4.* Minister to Russia.
1834. *Dec. 15.* United States senator.
1845. *March 10.* Secretary of state of United States.
1853. *April 11.* Minister to Great Britain.
1857. *March 4.* President of United States. Retires 1861.
1868. *June 1.* Dies at Lancaster, Pa.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Abraham Lincoln, sixteenth president, was born in Hardin County, Kentucky, February 12, 1809, of obscure parentage, his father being unable to read or write; his **early life** was passed amid hardships and in a slow development of mental power. At nineteen he was a common hand on a flatboat, and for a few years was occupied with some of the humbler forms of trade, while he patiently sought a qualification for higher pursuits. He enlisted in the war against the Black Hawk Indians, and was chosen captain of a company. After various vicissitudes he secured admission to the bar, and at the same time was urged by his friends, who early were won by his strong, kind nature, to accept political office. He was a great admirer of Henry Clay, and in 1844 took an active part in the canvass for his election. He had been identified from the beginning with the Whig party, and in 1846 was elected to **Congress.** He was not conspicuous in the House, but in the test questions upon slavery was always found upon the side of those who would restrict it and obstruct its encroachments. He was a candidate for election to the Senate in 1849, but was defeated. He was at this time engaged in the practice of his profession at Springfield, Illinois. As the Whig party melted away and the Republican rose, he attached himself to the latter, and was urged by his neighbors as a candidate for the vice presidency with Frémont in 1856. He did not receive the nomination, but two years afterward he was chosen with great unanimity to confront Stephen A. Douglas, who was the Democratic candidate for United States senator. Douglas had a powerful following and was one of the most prominent men in the country. A memorable campaign followed, when the two rivals fought the intellectual battle in a series of personal encounters throughout the length and breadth of the State. Lincoln's homely force, his unfailing good nature, and the moral strength of his convictions made a deep impression upon his auditors; he failed of an election by the legislature, although he had secured a popular majority, but the contest served to make him more conspicuous and trusted. His nomination as president was followed by his **election,** and the minds of the North turned anxiously to the subject of their choice. At first he disappointed many: he did not move quickly enough for some; he seemed to others unappreciative of the gravity of the situation. He came to Washington in secret — because of a plot to assassinate him.

Nevertheless, his inaugural address was full of power and hope. There was something in his quiet manner which inspired confidence, and his regard for the Constitution was plainly a part, also, of his ingrained sense of the sanctity of the Union. He sought by practical means to hold the South in willing loyalty to the federal bond, but when the blow was struck at Fort Sumter there was no delay in taking his place at the head of the armed forces of the nation. He **addressed himself at once to the people;** he had confidence in them; and in the four years of war which followed he never swerved from his faith. The confidence which he reposed in the people was returned, at first slowly, at last unreservedly. The history of the war and of the political measures which marked its course is a history of President Lincoln's administration. He had no arbitrary ways; he assumed no power; but he was patiently responsive to all the signs of the time, and moved at the head of the people, taking successive steps only as he was sure that they were close behind him. He was never separated from them in his solemn leadership, and he turned from time to time with words of cheer, of encouragement and trust, which were of great importance in fixing confidence when it was wavering.

There was an absence of ceremony often in his ways which disconcerted many people, and those who knew him slightly thought him often a mere jester. The South recognized his power more thoroughly, as the intensity of its hostile expression showed. His power grew more impressive as the hour came when victory was in the hands of the Union, and the President, abating nothing of the claims which the country made, stretched out a hand of welcome to the Southern States. He had been **re-elected** by the people to a second term of office, and in January, 1865, overtures for peace were received, which were immediately responded to by Mr. Lincoln. He sent Mr. Seward to Fortress Monroe to meet commissioners from Jefferson Davis, and, in his eagerness, having little regard for what might be said, himself followed and joined the conference. His action was not misunderstood, and the temper in which his mind worked was nobly illustrated by the speech which he delivered upon the occasion of his inauguration. The conference had been fruitless, but the fortunes of war were fast solving the problem. Mr. Lincoln did not live to see the full consummation of his desires. On the night of Friday, April 14, 1865, while sitting in a private box at Ford's Theater, Washington, he was **shot by an assassin.** He died the next morning at a few minutes before seven o'clock. His death plunged the nation into mourning, but it lifted the victim into the place of a martyr.

Among the **great events of his service** besides the military and civil combats, were the prohibition of slavery in the Territories and District of Columbia (1863); the Pacific Railroad, Homestead and Agricultural College Acts (1862); the preliminary and final Emancipation Proclamations (1862, 1863); and the Thirteenth Amendment (1865).

Chronology.

1809. *Feb. 12.* Born in Hardin County, Ky.
1832. *April.* Captain in Black Hawk War.
1834. *Dec. 1.* Member of Illinois House of Representatives. [Representatives.]
1847. *Dec. 6.* Member of United States House of
1858. *August–October.* Joint debates with Douglas for senatorship.
1860. *Feb. 27.* Cooper Union speech at New York.
1861. *March 4.* President of United States. Re-elected 1864.
1862. *Sept. 22.* Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation.
1863. *Jan. 1.* Final Emancipation Proclamation.
Nov. 19. Gettysburg Address.
1865. *March 4.* Second Inaugural Address.
1865. *April 14.* Wounded by an assassin.
April 15. Dies at Washington.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, upon the death of Lincoln succeeded to the office as seventeenth president. He was born at Raleigh, North Carolina,

December 29, 1808, and knew a youth of poverty and privation. Still his natural ability and force of character carried him rapidly forward until, in 1842, he was elected to the House of Representatives in Congress, where he remained for ten years as a Democrat. In 1853 he was elected governor of his State, was reëlected in 1855, and in 1857 was sent to the United States Senate. As the **secession** movement grew imminent, Johnson in speeches both in and out of Congress **opposed** it with all his might. President Lincoln made him provisional governor of Tennessee during the Civil War. He was **elected with Lincoln** on the " Union " ticket in 1864. On the death of Lincoln in 1865 he became president and reorganized the Southern States on a basis of control by the non-slaveholding whites. In 1866 Congress with its two-thirds Republican majorities, substituted a very different plan of reconstruction, and therefore the President was in opposition to Congress. Many measures were passed over his veto, and in 1868 he was **impeached** and tried before the Senate. His opponents lacked one vote of the two thirds necessary to convict. His term of office expired the next year, and he retired to his home in Greenville, Tennessee. He was elected to the Senate in 1874, but died July 31, 1875.

Chronology.

1808. *Dec. 29.* Born at Raleigh, N. C.
1828. Alderman of Greeneville, Tenn.
1830. Mayor of Greeneville.
1835. *Oct. 5.* Member of Tennessee House of Representatives.
1841. *Oct. 4.* State senator.
1843. *Dec. 4.* Member of United States House of Representatives.
1853. *Oct. 3.* Governor of Tennessee.
1857. *Dec. 7.* United States senator.
1862. *March 4.* Military governor of Tennessee.
1865. *March 4.* Vice president of United States.
April 15. President of United States by death of Lincoln. Retires 1869.
1868. *May 16.* Acquitted by Senate in impeachment trial.
1875. *March 4.* Again United States senator.
July 31. Dies at Carter's Station, Tenn.

ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

Ulysses Simpson Grant, eighteenth president, was born April 27, 1822, at Point Pleasant, Ohio, and baptized as Hiram Ulysses, but by an accident was entered at the West Point Military Academy, to which he had received an appointment, as Ulysses S., with the assumption that he bore his mother's maiden name of Simpson. The error was perpetuated and Grant carried through the rest of his life the significant initials, " U. S." After his course at West Point was completed he was ordered with his regiment to join General Taylor's army in Texas. He saw active service as second lieutenant and quartermaster **in the Mexican War,** and after the close of the war, when he married, he was ordered to Oregon, where he received his commission as captain. In 1854 he resigned his commission, returned to St. Louis, near which he owned a small farm, and in 1859 went to Galena, Illinois, where he joined his father and brothers, who were engaged in the leather trade.

Three days after the call for volunteers in 1861 a public meeting was held at Galena, at which he presided. Within a week he was drilling a company of volunteers, and on April 23d he went to Springfield with them. He was commissioned captain, made colonel of the Twenty-first Regiment Illinois Volunteers, and shortly afterward brigadier **general,** each promotion coming to him unsought. From this time forward his services form a part of the military history of the war for the Union; he rose rapidly to the highest rank, and was recognized as **one of the great generals of modern times.** He was the commanding officer at Forts Henry and Donelson, at Pittsburg Landing, in the Mississippi campaign and the Vicksburg campaign, and at Chattanooga, and then was transferred to the Eastern field and was made commanding officer of all the Union Armies, and received Lee's surrender in 1865.

The close of the war found General Grant the hero of the hour. He sought in vain to heal the breach between the President and Congress. Before the close of Johnson's term his elevation to the presidency was clearly foreshadowed. He was **nominated by the Republican party** in May, 1868, and elected by a large majority.

During his first term the great question of **Reconstruction** of the Southern States was uppermost, and the plan formed by Congress, in 1867, was carried out. In spite of this drastic legislation, supported by troops in the South, gradually the former leadership of the South came to the front. The Ku-Klux conspiracies and other forces broke up the Negro suffrage in many States, in spite of Grant's vigorous resistance and strong coercive acts.

Grant came into collision with Sumner and other leading Republicans over his effort to annex the whole or part of Santo Domingo; and there was a disorganizing atmosphere of corruption among some of his appointees and personal friends. Hence, in 1872, a strong anti-Grant feeling was crystallized in the Liberal Republican convention, but Grant was easily reëlected over Horace Greeley. Grant now earned the thanks of the nation by the interposition of his veto upon a bill which threatened a disastrous further expansion of the currency.

In 1877–79, following his presidency, he visited various foreign countries and everywhere received great attention as the most illustrious living American. In 1880 he desired a third nomination, but was opposed by the majority of his party. In his last years he regained his former place in his countrymen's estimation when, in heroic endurance of a distressing disease, he composed for the benefit of his family a personal memoir of high merit, and spoke memorable parting words of affection for his reunited country. He died July 23, 1885.

Chronology.

1822. *April 27.* Born at Point Pleasant, Ohio.
1843. *July 1.* Graduated at West Point; second lieutenant United States Army.
1854. *July 31.* Resigns (captain) from army.
1861. *May 17* (August 7). Brigadier general of volunteers.
1862. *Feb. 16.* Capture of Fort Donelson. Major general of volunteers.
April 6–7. Battle of Shiloh.
1863. *July 4.* Capture of Vicksburg. Major general in United States Army.
Nov. 23–25. Battle of Chattanooga.
Dec. 17. Thanks of Congress.
1864. *March 9.* Receives commission as lieutenant general in command of armies of United States.
May 4–June 13. Wilderness campaign.
1865. *April 9.* Receives surrender of Lee's army.
1866. *July 25.* General in United States Army.
1867. *Aug. 12.* Secretary of war *ad interim.*
1869. *March 4.* President of United States. Reelected 1872. Retires 1877.
1877–1879. Tour of the world.
1885. *March 3.* Restored to army as general on retired list.
July 23. Dies at Mount McGregor, N. Y.

RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES.

The next occupant of the White House was Rutherford Birchard Hayes, the nineteenth president. He was born on October 4, 1822, at Delaware, Ohio, educated at Kenyon College, Gambier, and at the law school of Harvard University. He practiced his profession successfully in Cincinnati, and, without engaging very closely in politics, made a careful study of history and statesmanship. When the war for the Union opened he refused a commission until he had mastered the tactics, but having accomplished this he was made successively major, lieutenant colonel, colonel, and brigadier **general.** He saw severe fighting and kept to his post steadily until the war closed. He was chosen representative to **Congress** during the last year of the war, and, without being prominent on the floor, was an indefatigable worker. In 1867 he was nominated for governor of Ohio, and held the office two terms. Again in 1875 he was elected after an exciting campaign, and his ability and popularity made him a conspicuous candidate for the presidency in 1876.

In the hot struggle between the supporters of Grant and Blaine in the Republican Convention of 1876, Hayes was put up as a compromise candidate and duly **nominated** against Samuel J. Tilden, who was nominated by the Democrats. The election was closely contested, and after its close the country was kept in suspense by uncertainty as to the result, both parties claiming the votes of certain States. This dispute was settled only by an agreement to refer the decision to an **Electoral Commission** created by Congress, consisting of five senators, five representatives, and five justices of the Supreme Court. The decisions of this body, by a vote of eight to seven, gave the election to Mr. Hayes, on March 2, 1877, declaring that he had received 185 electoral votes to 184 received by Mr. Tilden, but his title was bitterly challenged throughout his term of office by many persons who considered the decision of the Electoral Commission unjust. He announced at once his determination to secure if possible a fair opportunity for the people of the South to demonstrate the sincerity of their professions of concord, and withdrew the military forces by which alone Republican governors in Louisiana and South Carolina could maintain their office and authority. In this course he went through a running fight with Congress over riders attached to appropriation bills intended to prevent the carrying out of the coercive acts. Personally upright and sincerely desirous to purify the administration of the government from abuses, he was handicapped in his best endeavors by the manner of his election. He died January 17, 1893.

Chronology.

1822. *Oct. 4.* Born at Delaware, Ohio.
1842. *August.* Graduated at Kenyon College.
1845. *Aug. 27.* Graduated at Harvard Law School.
1861. *June 27.* Major of volunteers.
1864. *Oct. 19.* Brigadier general.
1865. *Dec. 4.* Member of House of Representatives.
1868. *Jan. 13.* Governor of Ohio.
1876. *Jan. 10.* Again governor (third time).
1877. *March 4.* President of United States. Retires 1881.
1893. *Jan. 17.* Death at Fremont, Ohio.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD.

James Abram Garfield, twentieth president, had before his election long been identified with the public service, and was widely known in the country. Born November 19, 1831, in Orange, Ohio, he was obliged to struggle with poverty in his **early years;** but he had an unconquerable thirst for knowledge, and, in spite of all obstacles, secured a preparation for Williams College, from which he was graduated in 1856. He chose teaching for his profession, but was sent to the Ohio Senate in 1859, and when the war broke out he enlisted and was rapidly promoted to the rank of major **general.**

In the autumn of 1862 he was **elected to Congress** from the nineteenth Ohio district, and served by repeated reëlections until, near the close of the Hayes administration, he was chosen United States senator. Before he could take his place, however, he was nominated and **elected president.** He entered upon the office to which he had been elected, March 4, 1881. The early days of his administration revealed a rift in the Republican party. Senator Conkling of New York fought the President over appointments. Before Garfield was fairly embarked in the office of president he was **shot** and mortally wounded on the second of July in a railway station in Washington by a disappointed office seeker. His death, which occurred at Elberon, New Jersey, did not follow, however, until September 19, 1881. His long sickness was borne with a courage and serene patience which exalted him in the eyes of the people.

Chronology.

1831. *Nov. 19.* Born at Orange, Ohio.
1856. Graduated at Williams College.
1857. President of Hiram Institute, Hiram, Ohio.
1860. *Jan. 2.* Ohio State senator.
1861. *Aug. 21.* Lieutenant colonel of volunteers.
1863. *Sept. 19.* Major general of volunteers.
Dec. 7. Member of House of Representatives.
1880. *January.* Elected to United States Senate; does not take seat.
1881. *March 4.* President of United States.
July 2. Wounded by an assassin.
Sept. 19. Dies at Elberon, N. J.

CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR.

The vice president who succeeded President Garfield upon his death, Chester Alan Arthur, twenty-first president, was born at Fairfield, Vermont, October 5, 1830. He was educated at Union College, and followed the profession of the law, being admitted to the bar in New York City in 1852. During the war he was quartermaster-general in New York, a position which he held with signal credit. In 1871 he was appointed collector of the port of New York by General Grant. In President Hayes's administration he was removed from office on political grounds. In 1880 he was nominated for the office of **vice president** as an Eastern representative of the ticket, was elected, and on President Garfield's death at once took the oath of office as **president.**

His appointments and policies were respectable. He favored for a time Secretary of State Blaine's plan for larger influence in Latin America. He made a beginning in carrying out the Civil Service Act of 1882. A special effort was made, near the close of his term, to make commercial treaties with Spanish-speaking countries on both sides of the Atlantic. At the close of his term of office he retired to private life. His death occurred November 18, 1886.

Chronology.

1830. *Oct. 5.* Born at Fairfield, Vt.
1848. Graduated at Union College.
1851. Principal of an academy at North Pownal, Vermont.
1861. *April.* Quartermaster-general New York militia.
1871. *Dec. 1.* Collector of the port of New York.
1878. *July 11.* Suspended by President Hayes.
1881. *March 4.* Vice president of United States.
Sept. 20. President of United States by death of Garfield. Retires 1885.
1886. *Nov. 18.* Dies at New York.

GROVER CLEVELAND.

(Stephen) Grover Cleveland, twenty-second and twenty-fourth president, was born on March 18, 1837, in Caldwell, New Jersey. By the death of his father, who was a country minister in New York State, he was thrown **on his own resources** at the age of six-

teen, and went to Buffalo, where he became a clerk in a lawyer's office. He was admitted to the bar in 1859. In 1870 he was elected sheriff of Erie County, but resumed the practice of law after serving his term of three years. In 1881 he was elected mayor of Buffalo, and the next year was chosen by a very large majority **governor of New York.** He discharged the duties of those offices with eminent success. Representing the reform element in politics, he was nominated in 1884 for the presidency by the National Democratic Convention. The Republicans named James G. Blaine, who had been secretary of state under President Garfield and a prominent candidate for the nomination at the two preceding conventions. Mr. Cleveland was **elected president** after a close and angry contest.

As president, Cleveland showed the qualities of **courage and capacity.** He carried the **Civil Service Act** further forward. He made himself chieftain of the Democratic party.

Near the close of his administration Mr. Cleveland made a strong appeal to Congress and through Congress to the people, to provide for the extinction of a large surplus in the Treasury, and to prevent the accumulation of such a surplus, by a corresponding reduction in the imposition of duties on imports. The Democratic party renominated Cleveland, but he was **defeated,** and the Republican candidates, Harrison and Morton, were chosen.

Mr. Cleveland returned to the practice of law, this time in New York City. In the presidential campaign of 1892 he was **nominated again, against the protests of Tammany Democracy.** Harrison was renominated against him.

The issue in this campaign turned largely upon the **question of maintaining a high protective tariff.** The Democratic party was successful, and Mr. Cleveland was elected.

Early in his second administration he called a special session of Congress for the purpose of securing legislation which should repeal that portion of the Sherman Act of 1890 relating to the compulsory purchase of **silver.** The policy of tariff reduction was embodied in the Wilson Bill, which was passed by the House, but was so materially altered in the Senate in the direction of higher protection that President Cleveland declared it a betrayal of party pledges and reluctantly allowed it to become a law without his signature. The President maintained the redemption of all government obligations in gold and sanctioned large issues of bonds to procure the funds for this purpose. His most striking act was his message to Congress in December, 1895, strongly asserting the Monroe Doctrine and making the United States an active party in the **boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela.**

During his second term his party drifted away from his guidance, partly on the question of a double standard of currency. Hence, a rising statesman, William Jennings Bryan, was nominated in 1896, against the judgment of the Cleveland Democrats On retiring from office Mr. Cleveland took up his residence at Princeton, New Jersey, recovered the confidence of his own party, and died a trusted national character, June 24, 1908.

Mr. Cleveland was a man of rugged honesty, indomitable will, and rigid adherence to what he regarded as duty; he was a **statesman of high degree.**

Chronology.

1837. *March 18.* Born at Caldwell, N. J.
1871. *Jan. 1.* Sheriff of Erie Co., N. Y.
1882. *Jan. 1.* Mayor of Buffalo.
1883. *Jan. 1.* Governor of New York.
1885. *March 4.* President of United States. Retires 1889.
1888. *November.* Defeated for reëlection.
1893. *March 4.* President for second term. Retires 1897.
1908. *June 24.* Dies at Princeton, N. J.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

Benjamin Harrison, elected in 1888, the twenty-third president, with Levi P. Morton of New York as vice president, was a grandson of the ninth president, William Henry Harrison. He was born near North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833, and was graduated from Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, when he was eighteen, and before he was twenty-one had married and was practicing law in Indianapolis. He took an active part in politics, supporting Frémont in 1856 and Lincoln in 1860. On the suggestion of Governor Morton of Indiana, who offered him the command, he raised a regiment (70th Indiana Volunteers) shortly after the commencement of the war for the Union, being commissioned first second lieutenant and later colonel by the governor. He was brevetted brigadier **general** for gallant service, before the war closed. He was a candidate for the governorship of Indiana in 1876, but was defeated. In 1880 he was elected to the United States Senate, where he served his term of six years.

He was inaugurated president, March 4, 1889. In accordance with the recommendations of Mr. Harrison, Congress passed a **high protective tariff measure,** called from the name of its principal framer, the McKinley Bill. In addition to a protective tariff, Mr. Harrison favored subsidies in aid of ocean shipping, federal intervention to secure to the colored citizens of the South the free exercise of the right to vote, justice to the Indians, reform of the civil service, a great enlargement of the pension list, and international arbitration. During the second half of his term Mr. Harrison was hampered by the congressional elections of 1890, which made the House of Representatives Democratic. He was renominated in the presidential campaign of 1892, but lost the election. In 1893 he resumed the practice of law at Indianapolis. Throughout his public and private life he was **courageous and conscientious,** and, although deficient in the arts and traits that make men popular, possessed the respect and esteem of the American people. Mr. Harrison died March 13, 1901.

Chronology.

1833. *Aug. 20.* Born at North Bend, Ohio.
1852. Graduated at Miami University.
1860. Reporter of Indiana supreme court.
1862. *July 14.* Second lieutenant of volunteers.
1865. *Jan. 23.* Brevet brigadier general.
1879. *June 30.* Member of Mississippi River Commission.
1881. *March 4.* United States senator.
1889. *March 4.* President of United States.
1892. *Nov. 8.* Defeated for reëlection. Retires 1893.
1899. Counsel for Venezuela-British Guiana boundary arbitration.
1900. *September.* Appointed member of Hague Tribunal.
1901. *March 13.* Dies at Indianapolis.

WILLIAM McKINLEY.

William McKinley, twenty-fifth president, was born at Niles, Trumbull County, Ohio, January 29, 1843. He studied at Union Seminary, Poland, Ohio, and later, for a short time, at Allegheny College, Meadville, Pennsylvania. At the outbreak of the Civil War he enlisted at the age of eighteen as a private soldier in the Twenty-third Ohio, and rose through the several grades until, on July 25, 1864, he was brevetted major by President Lincoln for gallant and meritorious services.

At the close of the war he returned to Ohio, studied law, and began the practice of his profession at Canton, Stark County. He was a member of Congress from 1877 until 1891, became chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, when, in 1890, the tariff bill that bears his name was framed and passed. At that time he showed the personal grace and magnetism and the ability to bring individuals into harmonious service together for a common purpose which made him a national figure. His district was gerrymandered so as to throw him out of Congress in the election of 1890, but he was at once taken up as the Republican candidate for the governorship of Ohio, and was elected in November, 1891. He was reëlected. At the Republican National Convention of 1896, he was nominated for the presidency on the first ballot, accepting the **gold standard** as a party principle. On this issue he was elected in November over the Democratic candidate, William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska. In 1900 he was renominated unanimously, and was reëlected, his Democratic opponent again being William Jennings Bryan, but his second administration was cut short by his death, September 14, 1901.

During the four and a half years that Mr. McKinley was president, the Wilson Tariff Law, enacted under the preceding administration, was replaced by the Dingley Tariff Law of 1897, a measure highly protective. Decisive action in regard to the currency was delayed by a fruitless effort in behalf of international bimetallism, and by the **war with Spain.** It was not until 1900 that **gold** was definitively **made the basis of the currency.**

The policy of McKinley which seems likely to influence the welfare of the United States most deeply is that of over-sea **territorial annexations.** The Hawaiian Islands and other small Pacific islands were brought in and as a result of the Spanish War of 1898, came the annexation of Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam. The grave constitutional questions involved were settled by the Insular decisions of the Supreme Court (1901) in a way that sustained the general policy of the government.

A second important result of the war with Spain was the responsibility incurred by the United States toward Cuba. The United States established a temporary protectorate, and reorganized Cuba according to American ideas. The part taken by the United States in the troubles with China, occasioned by the Boxer outbreak, was dignified and effective.

At home the period of McKinley's presidency was marked by **economic prosperity** and the subsidence of sectional feeling. September 5, 1901, at the Buffalo Pan-American Exposition President McKinley made his last public address, a noble plea for international peace and a liberal system of trade. On the 6th he was shot by an anarchist, and eight days afterward died from the wound.

McKinley was a peacemaker. He carried friendliness into every relation of life, public as well as private. He healed party feuds, softened the asperities of party warfare, and assuaged sectional animosities. His spirit toward other peoples is best told in the following words taken from the Buffalo address: "God and man have linked the nations together. No nation can longer be indifferent to any other. And as we are brought more and more in touch with each other, the less occasion is there for misunderstandings, and the stronger the disposition, when we have differences, to adjust them in the court of arbitration. . . . Let us ever remember that our interest is in concord, not conflict. . . . Our earnest prayer is that God will graciously vouchsafe prosperity, happiness, and peace to all our neighbors, and like blessings to all peoples and powers of earth."

Chronology.

1843. *Jan. 29.* Born at Niles, Ohio.
1860. Attends Allegheny College.
1861. *June 11.* Enlists as a private.
1865. *March 14.* Brevet major of volunteers.
1869. Prosecuting attorney of Stark Co., Ohio.
1877. *Oct. 15.* Member of House of Representatives.
1892. *Jan. 11.* Governor of Ohio.
June 8. Chairman of Republican National Convention.
1897. *March 4.* President of United States. Reelected 1900.
1901. *Sept. 6.* Wounded by an assassin.
Sept. 14. Dies at Buffalo.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

Theodore Roosevelt, twenty-sixth president, was born in New York on October 27, 1858, of a mixed Dutch, English, French, Scotch, and Irish descent. His mother was a Southerner. As a boy he was not strong, but was **fond of outdoor life.** He graduated from Harvard College in 1880. In 1881 he was elected to the legislature of New York, in which he served three years. In 1884 he was a delegate to the National Republican Convention. A party man, he supported the nominee of the convention, Mr. Blaine, whose nomination he did not favor. Shortly afterward he engaged in cattle raising on a ranch in North Dakota. Returning to the East, he was in 1886 unsuccessful candidate for mayor of New York. He was member of the Civil Service Commission (1889–95) and president of the New York Police Board (1895–97), in both positions showing himself courageous and efficient.

Assistant secretary of the navy in 1897, he aided much in preparing our navy for the impending war with Spain. A year later he resigned to help raise the regiment of the **"Rough Riders,"** of which he was at first lieutenant colonel and later colonel, and at the head of which he rendered **distinguished service in Cuba.** His gallantry at San Juan called public attention to him, and the Republican leaders in New York were compelled to nominate him for **governor** in 1898. He showed himself such a vigorous and independent executive that the same leaders insisted that he be nominated for **vice president** in 1900, so as to put him on the shelf. Against his will he accepted and was elected with McKinley. The death of McKinley raised him **to the presidency.** He took the oath of office on September 14, 1901.

When about to assume his duties as president, Mr. Roosevelt said, "It shall be my aim to continue, absolutely unbroken, the policies of President McKinley for the peace, the prosperity, and the honor of our beloved country." In his first annual message to Congress he indicated what later proved the **main features in his policy:** He recommended that the civil and military services be brought to the highest possible efficiency, that the Monroe Doctrine be maintained, that the trusts be regulated rather than suppressed, that labor and capital have fair play, that works of irrigation be advanced, and that a transisthmian canal be constructed as quickly as possible.

In **1904** there was no opposing candidate in the Republican Convention; and in the **election** Roosevelt easily defeated Judge Alton B. Parker, the Democratic candidate. It was the first time that a man who had succeeded to the presidency through the death of the president was himself subsequently elected by the people to that office.

No other president was equipped for the discharge of his official duties with such an exhaustless store of vigor and vitality. No other president ever developed such energy and activity. Familiar through his constant travels with all parts of the country, he appreciated the circumstances and necessities of each section. Some of the trusts he caused to be prosecuted; he made an effort to regulate the railroads and to protect employees against accident; he encouraged the effort to develop the internal ways and to preserve and increase the natural resources of the nation.

In 1904 he concluded the treaty with the Republic of Panama, and the piercing of the Isthmus was soon vigorously undertaken. As long as the **Panama Canal** endures, it may be considered **his monument.**

The appropriate conclusion of Mr. Roosevelt's presidency was the globe-encircling cruise of the battleship fleet in 1908, affording practical solution of many naval problems and proclaiming, wherever it went, the majesty of the Republic and its friendliness to all.

In addition to the responsibilities of his office, there was hardly a matter of national or humanitarian interest or even of international concern with which he did not deal. Thus he was instrumental in terminating the coal strike of 1902 through the medium of a commission, the findings of which have had lasting weight in similar labor disputes. He took the initiative in bringing about a treaty of peace between Russia and Japan in 1905.

In 1908 Mr. Roosevelt refused the solicitations of his party, which wished to force a renomination upon him, and used all his influence for his friend and secretary of war, William Howard Taft.

Shortly after leaving the White House Mr. Roosevelt headed the Smithsonian African Expedition, devoting nearly a year to the hunt in Africa and obtaining an exceedingly rich collection of African fauna. On his way homeward he delivered addresses before many famous societies and universities of Continental Europe and Great Britain. He received a tremendous demonstration on his arrival at New York in June, 1910.

Roosevelt was an author of versatility. He was a tireless speaker and writer. In his numerous lectures and addresses there are few subjects of moment on which he has not spoken. He was the **author of many books,** among which the more noteworthy are: *The Winning of the West, The Strenuous Life,* and lives of Thomas Hart Benton, Gouvernenr Morris, and Oliver Cromwell. Returning to private life, he became contributing editor of the *Outlook.* In 1910 he took active part in the Republican State campaign in New York; and in 1912, having become convinced that a second Taft administration was not for the best interests of the country, he attempted to secure the Republican nomination. When he was defeated he put himself at the **head of a new National Progressive party.** He received over 4,000,000 votes and 88 electoral votes to the Republicans' 3,000,000 votes and 8 electoral votes, but Woodrow Wilson was elected. After the outbreak of the World War he advocated measures of preparedness for the United States and an early intervention in the war. Always a strong party man, he became one of the most severe critics of President Wilson and his policy. In the campaign of 1916 he supported the Republican candidate, Justice Hughes, and one of his last appearances in public was in support of the Republican nominees in the New York election of 1918. He died at his home in Oyster Bay, N. Y., January 6, 1919.

Roosevelt was **distinguished in many fields** — an athlete, a hunter, an author, a journalist, an explorer, a scientist, an orator, above all a statesman of vast genius and success. At the time of his death he seemed destined to reënter public life in the highest positions.

Chronology.

1858. *Oct. 27.* Born at New York
1880. *June 30.* Graduated at Harvard College.
1882. *Jan. 3.* Member of New York Assembly.
1889. *May 13.* Member of United States Civil Service Commission.
1895. *May 6.* President of New York City Police Board.
1897. *April 19.* Assistant secretary of the navy.
1898. *May 6.* Lieutenant colonel of volunteers. Colonel, July 11.
1899. *Jan. 1.* Governor of New York.
1901. *March 4.* Vice president of United States.
Sept. 14. President of United States by death of McKinley.
1904. Reëlected. Retires 1909.
1909–1910. Hunting trip in Africa and tour of Europe.
1912. *Nov. 5.* Defeated as Progressive candidate for presidency.
1914. Exploration of Brazilian wilds.
1919. *Jan. 6.* Dies at Oyster Bay, N. Y.

WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT.

William Howard Taft, twenty-seventh president, was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, on September 15, 1857. His father, Judge Alphonso Taft, was secretary of war and attorney-general in the cabinet of President Grant. Mr. Taft graduated from Yale in 1878, being class orator and salutatorian, and from the Cincinnati Law School in 1880. He was judge of the Superior Court in Ohio, 1887–90, solicitor-general of the United States, 1890–92, and United States circuit judge, 6th Circuit, 1892–1900. He then served as president of the United States Philippine Commission, March 13, 1900, to February 1, 1904, and as first civil governor of the **Philippine Islands,** July 4, 1901, to February 1, 1904. In 1902, by direction of President Roosevelt, he went to Rome to confer with Pope Leo XIII., concerning the purchase of the agricultural lands of the religious orders in the Philippines. On February 1, 1904, he became secretary of war.

In 1906 he was sent by the President to quiet the troubles **in Cuba,** and for a time acted as provisional governor of the island. In March and April, 1907, he visited Panama, Cuba, and Porto Rico by direction of the President to remove various difficulties. Later in the year he visited the Philippines and Japan, returning to America via Russia.

He was **nominated for the presidency** on the first ballot by the Republican National Convention at Chicago on June 18, 1908. His Democratic antagonist was William Jennings Bryan, leader of his party for the third time. The campaign was one of great activity. Both Taft and Bryan participated vigorously, each delivering several hundred speeches. At the election Taft was successful by comfortable majorities.

During the four years of his administration the country enjoyed **general prosperity.** There was no financial panic. Work was pushed on the Panama Canal. Some of the larger trusts were vigorously prosecuted. Many judicial appointments of a high order were made. Discretion was shown in dealing with the complicated questions arising from the distracted condition of the Republic of Mexico.

The Payne-Aldrich **Tariff Bill,** which he signed although it had been supposed he did not approve of it, and the reciprocity agreement with Canada, passed by Congress in a special session but afterwards rejected by Canada, greatly affected his popularity. Quarrels between members of his cabinet and their inferior officers, together with frequent insubordination which he was slow to suppress, further damaged his prestige.

Meanwhile the Republican party was splitting into two hostile camps, the reactionaries or "standpatters" and the insurgents or progressives. Casting his lot with the former, Taft's candidacy for a second presidential term was hotly opposed by the latter, who found an exponent and leader in Mr. Roosevelt. Their attacks on Mr. Taft and his administration finally induced the President to enter the campaign in person. The Republican National Convention by a small majority nominated Taft. Shortly afterward Mr. Roosevelt was nominated by the newly constituted National Progressive party. The result of the election was the choice of the Democratic candidate, Governor Wilson, of New Jersey.

Shortly before relinquishing office, Mr. Taft was tendered and accepted an appointment as Kent Professor of Law in Yale University. His influence, however, was not confined merely to academic circles. He was in great demand as a public speaker and through his addresses as well as the genial dignity he displayed did much to regain his popularity. During the World War he was one of the joint chairmen of the National War Labor Board which did much to prevent friction between labor and capital, was also president of the League to Enforce Peace, and advocated the ratification of the Peace Treaty with the League of Nations.

Chronology.

1857. *Sept. 15.* Born at Cincinnati.
1878. *June 27.* Graduated at Yale College.
1880. *May 26.* Graduated at Cincinnati Law School.
1881. Assistant prosecuting attorney, Hamilton Co., Ohio.
1887. Judge of Ohio Superior Court.
1890. *Feb. 4.* Solicitor-general of United States.
1892. *March 17.* United States circuit judge.
1896. Professor and dean, law department, University of Cincinnati.
1900. *March 13.* President of Philippine Commission.
1901. *July 4.* Governor (governor-general) of Philippines.
1904. *Feb. 1.* Secretary of war.
1909. *March 4.* President of United States. Defeated for reëlection 1912.
1913. *April 1.* Professor of law at Yale.
1918. *April.* Co-chairman National War Labor Conference Board.

WOODROW WILSON.

(Thomas) Woodrow Wilson, twenty-eighth president, was born Dec. 28, 1856, at Staunton, Virginia, son of the Reverend Joseph R. Wilson. Thus he is the eighth president born in the "Old Dominion." Graduating from Princeton in 1879 and from the Law School of the University of Virginia, he **practiced law** a short time in Atlanta, Georgia. Desiring to specialize in history and kindred subjects, he entered Johns Hopkins University, from which he received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1886. He was professor of History and Political Science for three years at Bryn Mawr College and for two years at Wesleyan University, then professor of Jurisprudence and Politics for 13 years at Princeton. From 1902 to 1910, he was **president of Princeton University,** where he inaugurated the preceptorial system.

During his administration at Princeton, Mr Wilson became widely known throughout the country from his writings and lectures on political and social questions. He is the **author of many books** on historical, literary, and governmental subjects, among which may be mentioned: *Congressional Government, The State, Division and Reunion, An Old Master and Other Political Essays, Mere Literature, George Washington, A History of the American People, Free Life, The New Freedom.*

In 1910 he was elected **governor of New Jersey,** the only successful candidate on the Democratic State ticket. In office he displayed **wisdom and firmness** in meeting the difficult political and industrial problems of the State and soon became a national figure, identified with the cause of popular rights and practical reform.

At the Democratic National Convention, held at Baltimore in 1912, he was **nominated for the presidency** on the 46th ballot through the influence of W. J. Bryan. He took an active part in the campaign, showing himself chivalrous to his opponents, though critical of their principles and methods, and always mindful of the dignity of the office he was seeking. **The election** showed that the Republican party was split into two fairly equal parts. Although the combined popular vote for Mr. Taft and Mr. Roosevelt exceeded that for Mr. Wilson by 1,410,682 and Mr. Wilson received a smaller popular vote (6,298,857) than was cast for Mr. Bryan in 1908 (6,328,601), Wilson was elected by a greater electoral vote (435) than was cast for President Taft in 1908 (321). Renominated in 1916, he was elected by a plurality of 23 electoral votes and by a plurality of nearly 600,000 popular votes over his nearest competitor, Hughes.

His **service as president** may be **divided into three periods.** During his first administration the Democratic party was united and followed his leadership almost unhesitatingly. In these years great constructive measures were passed: The tariff was revised; the Federal Reserve Bank established; the Federal Trade Commission established; and the anti-trust laws revised.

With the **outbreak of the World War** a new issue arose and the difficulties of his position were multiplied. He was attacked and criticized because of his stand on neutrality and his hesitancy to stimulate military and naval preparedness. Nevertheless, he kept the confidence of the great majority of the people, was reëlected and **led a united country into the war.** Although bitterly criticized on the score of many of his appointments and the methods of his subordinates, the government under his direction accomplished in the material, military, and naval spheres the task it had set itself and did much to bring the war to a victorious close.

The third period begins with the congressional elections of 1918, which returned a Republican Senate and Congress. The difficulties were increased by the fact that from December, 1918, until July, 1919, with the exception of a short interval in March, 1919, President Wilson was abroad negotiating the treaty of peace. Even before the entrance of the United States into the war the President had announced that he would urge the United States to enter a federation to guarantee the peace of the world. The **Treaty of Versailles,** which terminated the war, included the covenant for the **League of Nations.** On his return to the United States he submitted the treaty to the Senate, only to find it subject to the severest criticism and acrimonious debate. In September, 1919, he made an extended tour through the West, hoping to rouse public opinion in favor of the treaty and the League of Nations. This proved too much for his strength and he was overcome by a paralytic shock from which his partial recovery was extremely slow.

During the last year of President Wilson's administration, the predominant issue was the ratification of the Peace Treaty with Covenant of the League of Nations. At first the President refused to admit any reservations whatsoever, but finally accepted those proposed by Senator Hitchcock. Senator Lodge, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, insisted on the adoption of reservations which President Wilson felt he could not accept, and the treaty was finally rejected by the Senate, March 19, 1920.

Although the President was confined to his room he continued to direct the foreign policy of the United States and was extremely jealous of any encroachment upon his prerogatives. Thus, Secretary of State Lansing was forced to resign (February 13, 1920) nominally, for summoning cabinet meetings without the President's knowledge. Perhaps a more compelling reason was to be found in the fact that Secretary Lansing was initiating a policy concerning Mexico, which was not in accord with the President's desire.

President Wilson took no part in the presidential campaign. He neither publicly favored any partic-

ular candidate to succeed himself, nor did he actively aid Governor Cox in his campaign. After the election of November 2, President Wilson gradually withdrew the United States from its commanding position in foreign affairs, leaving the way clear for his successor to initiate his own policy.

President Wilson regained sufficient strength to preside in person over several cabinet meetings and to accompany President-elect Harding to the capital, although he was unable to witness his successor's inauguration.

Chronology.

1856. *Dec. 28.* Born at Staunton, Va.
1879. *June 18.* Graduated at Princeton College.
1881. *June 30.* Graduated at Virginia Law School
1885. Associate professor of history and political science at Bryn Mawr College.
1886. *Feb. 22.* Ph.D. at Johns Hopkins University.
1888. Professor at Wesleyan University.
1890. Professor at Princeton.
1902. *Aug. 1.* President of Princeton.
1911. *Jan. 17.* Governor of New Jersey.
1913. *March 4.* President of United States. Re-elected 1916.
1919. *Jan. 18.* Heads American delegation at Peace Conference at Paris.
Sept. 26. Suffers a paralytic shock at Wichita, Kansas.
1920. *April 4.* Presides over the first cabinet meeting since 1919.
Dec. 10. Awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

WARREN GAMALIEL HARDING.

Warren Gamaliel Harding, the twenty-ninth president, was born just outside the village of Blooming Grove, Morrow County, Ohio, November 2, 1865. His father, Dr. George T. Harding, the village physician, was of old colonial stock. The Hardings, originally from Scotland, first settled in Connecticut and later moved to Wyoming Valley, Pennsylvania, where some of them perished in the terrible Wyoming massacre. Some members of the family fought in the American Revolution. President Harding's mother was Phœbe Dickerson, a descendant of a Holland-Dutch family, the Van Kirks.

Although the father was a physician, the Harding family was busy developing their land, and Warren Harding, the oldest of eight children, spent his early life as a farmer's boy. He attended the village school until he was fourteen, and then entered Ohio Central College, of Iberia, from which he was **graduated with high honors.** While there, he was editor of the college paper, thus first showing his interest in journalism. After leaving college at seventeen, he taught school for a year; and during the next year he studied law, supporting himself by selling insurance and doing odd jobs. When he was nineteen, his father, Dr. Harding, moved to Marion, Ohio, the county seat, and young Harding obtained a job on a democratic paper. He filled all positions from printer's devil to editorial writer. As a result of an editorial praising James G. Blaine, he was forced to sever connections with the paper. Aided by his father and his former employer, he purchased **The Star,** then a struggling paper of Marion, almost on the verge of bankruptcy. Warren Harding threw his energy into the development of this paper, making it, in course of time, the party organ of the county and one of the papers **most frequently quoted** throughout the State. When *The Star* became established upon a firm basis, he organized a stock company and distributed shares to his employees, allowing the dividends to count towards their purchase money until one fourth of the capital stock was owned by them. The paper has always been operated on the union basis and has never had any labor difficulties or strikes.

In the conduct of his paper, President Harding was always sanguine, urging the establishment of new industries and enterprises in the town and county. Being always a generous subscriber to these enterprises, he thus came to serve on many boards of directors and was **highly regarded for his business sagacity.**

In 1899, he was chosen State senator from the thirteenth senatorial district and served two terms in the Ohio legislature. In the State Senate, he became floor leader, and was active in his support of United States Senator Foraker. He served as lieutenant governor 1904–1906. He was nominated by the Republicans for governor of Ohio, but was defeated by a Democrat, Judson Harmon, in 1910. In State politics he was a **consistent organization man,** and hence advocated the renomination of ex-President Taft in 1912. He was chosen to present Taft's name at the Republican convention at Chicago. In 1916, he was chairman of the Republican convention and was suggested as a possible candidate for nomination. In 1914, he was **elected to the United States Senate** by a plurality of more than 100,000.

In the Senate he **served on many important committees.** He was chairman of the committee on the Philippines and a member of the following committees: Commerce; Expenditures in the Treasury Department; Foreign Relations; Pacific Islands, Porto Rico, and the Virgin Islands; Public Health and National Quarantine; Standards, Weights, and Measures; and Territories. During the War World he was a **strong advocate of preparedness,** and never hesitated to support the extension of the power of the President in war time. With the coming of peace, however, he found himself in sharp disagreement with President Wilson's policy. He was always **an opponent of the League of Nations** and was one of the signers of the "Round Robin," by which certain senators notified the world that they would not ratify the Treaty embodying the Covenant of the League of Nations. He supported the reservations submitted by Senator Lodge, although more inclined to side with those who were opposed to the ratification of the Treaty in any form. He also **supported Senator Knox's resolution** declaring the war with Germany at an end; and Senator Reed's reservation that the United States was to be the sole judge as to whether matters in which she was interested should be submitted to the League. He finally **voted against the Treaty** as submitted by President Wilson. His **attitude on prohibition** is seen by his vote for the Eighteenth Amendment and his support of the Volstead Act. With regard to **labor and railroads,** he voted to support the Esch-Cummins Bill with the anti-strike clause. In a letter to an Ohio labor union, he defended his course in these words: "If the government, representing all the people, cannot guarantee transportation under any and all conditions, it fails utterly. If that same government cannot provide just consideration for the workmen operating the transportation system, it fails again. It ought to and it must do both."

In the **pre-convention campaign** of 1920, Senator Harding was not one of the leaders. In fact, during the early balloting of the convention, he ranked fourth. On the eighth ballot, however, he showed an increase of strength and on the ninth ballot he received 374½ votes, the highest of any candidate. The tenth ballot gave him 692½ votes, 200 more than was necessary for the choice.

The Republican campaign of 1920 was in many ways similar to that of 1896. President Harding seldom left his home at Marion, but conducted what is popularly known as a **"front-porch" campaign.** Various delegations from all parts of the country, representing most varied occupations, came to Marion and were addressed by him. The Republican campaign manager, Will H. Hays, proved an extremely able harmonizer and succeeded in preventing any open dissatisfaction in the Republican party. The election, November 2, 1920, resulted in an **overwhelming victory** for the Republicans. Senator Harding received 16,140,585 popular votes and 404 electoral votes.

In his **inaugural address,** President Harding declared that the United States could have no part in any super-government. He advocated an **association of nations** for foreign mediation and conciliation. He urged the **protection of American industry,** and reconstruction and readjustment from war conditions. His **cabinet appointments** included Charles Evans Hughes, former Justice of the Supreme Court, and presidential candidate 1916, as Secretary of State; Senator Albert B. Fall of New Mexico, as Secretary of the Interior, and Herbert C. Hoover, of California, as Secretary of Commerce. President Harding adopted the innovation of inviting the **vice-president** to meet with the **cabinet.**

A special session of **Congress** was summoned April 12, 1921, to which President Harding, following the precedent set by President Wilson, **presented his message in person.** In his address, President Harding declared that in the existence of the League of Nations, the United States could have no part. He advocated an international association for justice unconnected with the Treaty settlement and favored a declaration of peace by Congressional resolution. In domestic affairs, he advocated the repeal of the excess-profits taxes, the passage of an emergency tariff bill to protect the farmers, pending the permanent revision of the tariff. He opposed government ownership of the railroads, but advocated a congressional investigation.

President Harding was married in 1891 to Florence Kling, daughter of Amos Kling, of Marion.

Chronology.

1865. *Nov. 2.* Born near Blooming Grove, Morrow County, Ohio.
1882. Graduated from Ohio Central College.
1891. Married Florence Kling.
1899–1903. Member of the Ohio Senate.
1904–1906. Lieutenant governor of Ohio.
1910. Unsuccessful candidate for governor of Ohio.
1915–1921. Member of United States Senate.
1921. *March 4.* President of the United States.

HISTORICAL AND POPULATION STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

States. (With Territories and Possessions.*)	Place of Settlement and Date.	By whom Settled.	Capitals.	Date admitted.	Population in 1920.	Rank 1920.	Repr. in Congress.	Increase in Population, 1910-1920.	Miles of Railroad, Dec. 31, 1917.
Delaware	Wilmington, 1638	Swedes	Dover	Thirteen original States.	223,003	47	1	20,681	335
Pennsylvania	Philadelphia, 1682	English	Harrisburg		8,720,017	2	36	1,054,906	11,681
New Jersey	Elizabeth, 1664	English	Trenton		3,155,900	10	12	618,733	2,344
Georgia	Savannah, 1733	English	Atlanta		2,895,832	12	12	286,711	7,464
Connecticut	Wethersfield, 1635-1636	English	Hartford		1,380,631	29	5	265,875	999
Massachusetts	Plymouth, 1620	English	Boston		3,852,356	6	16	485,940	2,135
Maryland	St. Marys, 1634	English	Annapolis		1,449,661	28	6	154,315	1,426
South Carolina	Ashley River, 1670	English	Columbia		1,683,724	26	7	168,324	3,697
New Hampshire	Portsmouth, 1623	English	Concord		443,083	41	2	12,511	1,253
Virginia	Jamestown, 1607	English	Richmond		2,309,187	20	10	247,575	4,677
New York	New York, 1613	Dutch	Albany		10,385,227	1	43	1,271,215	8,434
North Carolina	Albemarle Sound, 1653	English	Raleigh		2,559,123	14	10	352,836	5,492
Rhode Island	Providence, 1636	English	Providence		604,397	38	3	61,787	206
Vermont	Brattleboro, 1724	English	Montpelier	1791	352,428	45	2	‡ 3,528	1,056
Kentucky	Boonesborough, 1775	English	Frankfort	1792	2,416,630	15	11	126,725	3,859
Tennessee	Watauga River, 1769	English	Nashville	1796	2,337,885	19	10	153,096	4,076
Ohio	Marietta, 1788	Americans	Columbus	1803	5,759,394	4	22	992,273	9,044
Louisiana	New Orleans, 1718	French	Baton Rouge	1812	1,798,509	22	8	142,121	5,363
Indiana	Vincennes, 1727	French	Indianapolis	1816	2,930,390	11	13	229,514	7,436
Mississippi	Biloxi, 1699	French	Jackson	1817	1,790,618	23	8	‡ 6,496	4,447
Illinois	Kaskaskia, 1700	French	Springfield	1818	6,485,280	3	27	846,089	12,133
Alabama	Mobile Bay, 1702	French	Montgomery	1819	2,348,174	18	10	210,081	5,420
Maine	Monhegan, 1622	English	Augusta	1820	768,014	35	4	25,643	2,270
Missouri	St. Genevieve, 1735?	French	Jefferson City	1821	3,404,055	9	16	110,720	8,231
Arkansas	Arkansas Post, 1685?	French	Little Rock	1836	1,752,204	25	7	177,755	5,220
Michigan	Sault Ste. Marie, 1668.	French	Lansing	1837	3,668,412	7	13	858,239	8,925
Florida	St. Augustine, 1565	Spaniards	Tallahassee	1845	968,470	32	4	215,851	5,249
Texas	Matagorda Bay, 1685	French	Austin	1845	4,663,228	5	18	766,686	15,932
Iowa	Dubuque, 1833	French	Des Moines	1846	2,404,021	16	11	179,250	9,838
Wisconsin	Green Bay, 1745	French	Madison	1848	2,632,067	13	11	298,207	7,668
California	San Diego, 1769	Spaniards	Sacramento	1850	3,426,861	8	11	1,049,312	8,359
Minnesota	Fort Snelling, 1820	Americans	St. Paul	1858	2,387,125	17	10	311,417	9,162
Oregon	Astoria, 1811	Americans	Salem	1859	783,389	34	3	110,624	3,232
Kansas	Fort Leavenworth, 1827	Americans	Topeka	1861	1,769,257	24	8	78,308	9,283
West Virginia	Wheeling, 1769	English	Charleston	1863	1,463,701	27	6	242,582	4,013
Nevada	Carson City, 1849	Mormons	Carson City	1864	77,407	49	1	‡ 4,468	2,293
Nebraska	Bellevue, 1810?	Americans	Lincoln	1867	1,296,372	31	6	104,158	6,167
Colorado	Auraria, 1858	Americans	Denver	1876	939,629	33	4	140,605	5,640
North Dakota	Pembina, 1811	Americans	Bismarck	1889	646,872	36	3	68,624	5,316
South Dakota	Fort Pierre, 1817	Americans	Pierre	1889	636,547	37	3	52,659	4,279
Montana	Yellowstone River, 1809	Americans	Helena	1889	548,889	39	2	172,836	4,954
Washington	Tumwater, 1845	Americans	Olympia	1889	1,356,621	30	5	214,631	5,650
Idaho	Coeur d'Alene, 1842	French	Boise	1890	431,866	43	2	106,272	2,861
Wyoming	Fort Laramie, 1834	Americans	Cheyenne	1890	194,402	48	1	48,437	1,924
Utah	Salt Lake City, 1847	Mormons	Salt Lake City	1896	449,396	40	2	76,045	2,145
Oklahoma	In many places, 1889	Americans	Oklahoma City	1907	2,028,283	21	8	371,128	6,502
New Mexico	Santa Fe, 1605?	Spaniards	Santa Fe	1912	360,350	44	1	33,049	2,974
Arizona	Near Tucson, 1687?	Spaniards	Phoenix	1912	334,162	46	1	129,549	2,424
District of Columbia		English	Washington	1800	437,571	42	0	106,502	57
Totals (Continental United States)†					105,710,620	....	435	13,736,505	253,626
*Alaska	Kodiak Island, 1784	Russians	Juneau	1912	54,899	....	1**	‡ 9,457	381
*Hawaii	Honolulu, 1820	Americans	Honolulu	1900	255,912	....	1**	64,003	242
*Porto Rico	1508	Spaniards	San Juan	....	1,299,809	....	1**	181,797	339
*Philippine Islands	Cebu, 1565	Spaniards	Manila	....	¶ 10,350,640	....	2**	§ 2,715,214	757

† The Census of 1920 enumerates also 117,238 persons in the military and naval service of the United States, stationed abroad. Including these and also Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippines, Guam (pop. 13,275), Panama Canal Zone (22,858), American Samoa (8,056), and the Virgin Islands of the United States (26,051 in 1917), the total population of the United States and possessions in 1920 was 117,859,358. ‡ Decrease. ** Territorial delegates have no vote in Congress. ¶ In 1918. § Increase, 1903 to 1918.

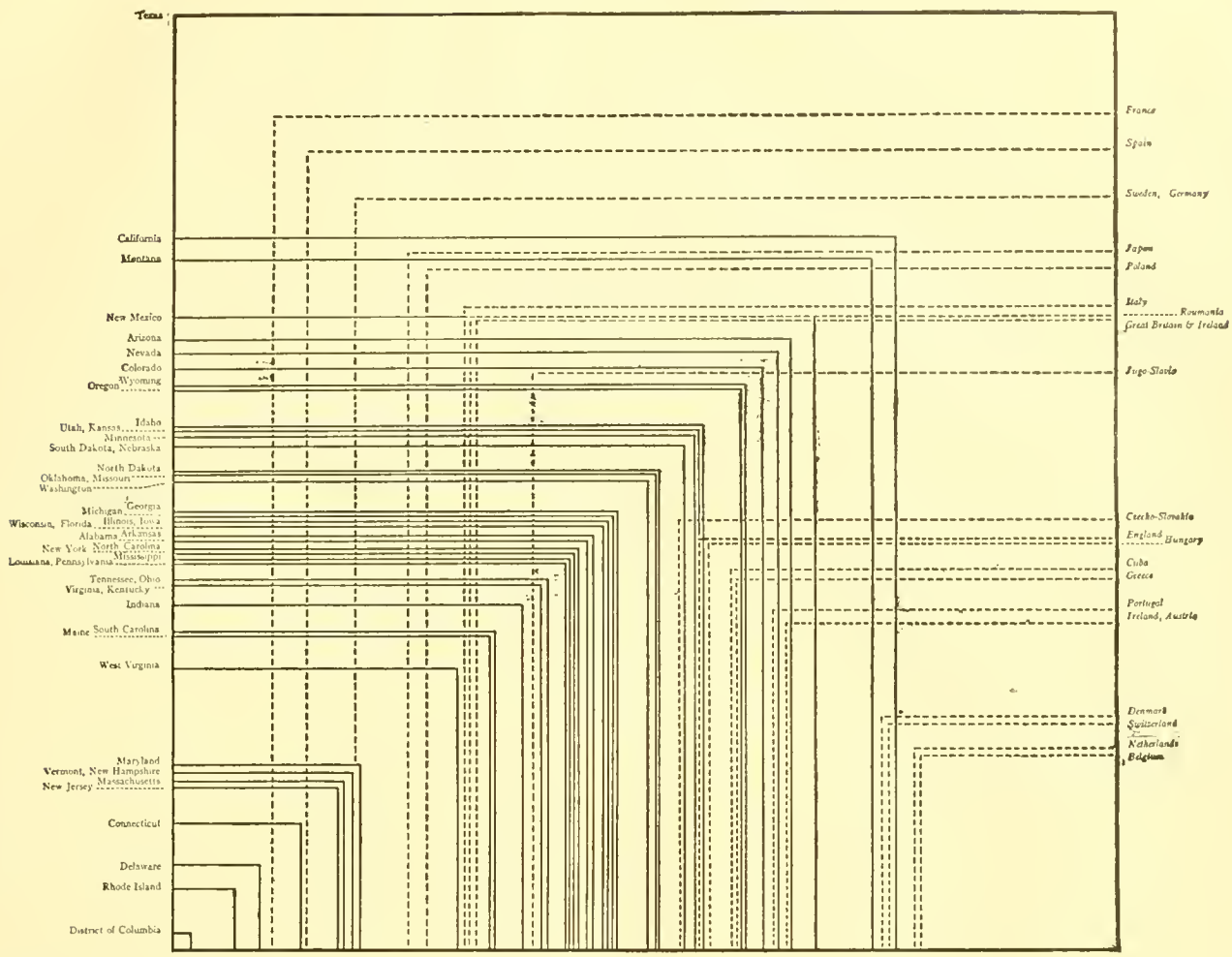
THE ONE HUNDRED LARGEST CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1920.

Rank 1920.	Cities.	Pop. 1920.	Pop. 1910.	Per cent Increase 1910-1920.	Settled.	Rank 1920.	Cities.	Pop. 1920.	Pop. 1910.	Per cent Increase 1910-1920.	Settled.	Rank 1920.	Cities.	Pop. 1920.	Pop. 1910.	Per cent Increase 1910-1920.	Settled.
1	New York, N. Y.	5,620,048	4,766,883	17.9	1623	35	Worcester, Mass.	179,754	145,986	23.1	1713	69	Lynn, Mass.	99,148	89,336	11.0	1629
2	Chicago, Ill.	2,701,705	2,185,283	23.6	1830	36	Birmingham, Ala.	178,806	132,685	34.8	1871	70	Duluth, Minn.	98,917	78,466	26.1	1869
3	Philadelphia, Pa.	1,823,779	1,549,008	17.7	1683	37	Syracuse, N. Y.	171,717	137,249	25.1	1787	71	Tacoma, Wash.	96,965	83,743	15.8	1868
4	Detroit, Mich.	993,678	465,766	113.3	1701	38	Richmond, Va.	171,667	127,628	34.5	1737	72	Elizabeth, N. J.	95,783	73,409	30.5	1772
5	Cleveland, Ohio	796,841	560,663	42.1	1796	39	New Haven, Conn.	162,537	133,605	21.7	1638	73	Lawrence, Mass.	94,270	85,892	9.8	1822
6	St. Louis, Mo.	772,897	687,029	12.5	1764	40	Memphis, Tenn.	162,351	131,105	23.8	1820	74	Utica, N. Y.	94,156	74,419	26.5	1758
7	Boston, Mass.	748,060	670,585	11.6	1630	41	San Antonio, Texas	161,379	96,614	67.0	1714	75	Erie, Pa.	93,372	66,525	40.4	1795
8	Baltimore, Md.	733,826	558,485	31.4	1682	42	Dallas, Texas	158,976	92,104	72.6	1843	76	Somerville, Mass.	93,091	77,236	20.5	1842†
9	Pittsburgh, Pa.	588,343	533,905	10.2	1754	43	Dayton, Ohio	152,559	116,577	30.9	1796	77	Waterbury, Conn.	91,715	73,141	25.4	1667
10	Los Angeles, Calif.	576,673	319,198	80.7	1780	44	Bridgeport, Conn.	143,555	102,054	40.7	1639	78	Flint, Mich.	91,599	38,550	137.6	1820
11	Buffalo, N. Y.	506,775	423,715	19.6	1801	45	Houston, Texas	138,276	78,800	75.5	1836	79	Jacksonville, Fla.	91,558	57,699	58.7	1816
12	San Francisco, Calif.	506,676	416,912	21.5	1776	46	Hartford, Conn.	138,036	98,915	39.6	1635	80	Oklahoma City, Okla.	91,295	64,205	42.2	1889
13	Milwaukee, Wis.	457,147	373,857	22.3	1835	47	Scranton, Pa.	137,783	129,867	6.1	1844	81	Schenectady, N. Y.	88,723	72,826	21.8	1661
14	Washington, D. C.	437,571	331,069	32.2	1791	48	Grand Rapids, Mich.	137,634	112,571	22.3	1833	82	Canton, Ohio	87,091	50,217	73.4	1805
15	Newark, N. J.	414,524	347,469	19.3	1666	49	Paterson, N. J.	135,875	125,600	8.2	1792	83	Fort Wayne, Ind.	86,549	63,933	35.4	1794
16	Cincinnati, Ohio	401,247	363,591	10.4	1788	50	Youngstown, Ohio	132,358	79,066	67.4	1800	84	Evansville, Ind.	85,264	69,647	22.4	1817
17	New Orleans, La.	387,219	339,075	14.2	1718	51	Springfield, Mass.	129,614	88,926	45.8	1636	85	Savannah, Ga.	83,252	65,064	28.0	1733
18	Minneapolis, Minn.	380,582	301,408	26.3	1849	52	Des Moines, Iowa	126,468	86,368	46.4	1846	86	Manchester, N. H.	78,384	70,063	11.9	1750
19	Kansas City, Mo.	324,410	248,381	30.6	1830	53	New Bedford, Mass.	121,217	96,652	25.4	1787†	87	St. Joseph, Mo.	77,939	77,403	0.7	1826
20	Seattle, Wash.	315,312	237,194	32.9	1852	54	Fall River, Mass.	120,485	119,295	1.0	1803	88	Knoxville, Tenn.	77,818	36,346	114.1	1787
21	Indianapolis, Ind.	314,194	233,650	34.5	1819	55	Trenton, N. J.	119,289	96,815	23.2	1680	89	El Paso, Texas	77,560	39,279	97.5	1827
22	Jersey City, N. J.	298,103	267,779	11.3	1802	56	Nashville, Tenn.	118,342	110,364	7.2	1779	90	Bayonne, N. J.	76,754	55,545	38.2	1861†
23	Rochester, N. Y.	295,750	218,149	35.6	1810	57	Salt Lake City, Utah	118,110	92,777	27.3	1847†	91	Peoria, Ill.	76,121	66,950	13.7	1819
24	Portland, Ore.	258,288	207,214	24.6	1845	58	Camden, N. J.	116,309	94,538	23.0	1628	92	Harrisburg, Pa.	75,917	64,186	18.3	1726
25	Denver, Colo.	256,491	213,381	20.2	1858	59	Norfolk, Va.	115,777	67,452	71.6	1705	93	San Diego, Calif.	74,683	39,578	88.7	1769
26	Toledo, Ohio	243,164	168,497	44.3	1832	60	Albany, N. Y.	113,344	100,253	13.1	1614	94	Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	73,833	67,105	10.0	1664
27	Providence, R. I.	237,595	224,326	5.9	1636	61	Lowell, Mass.	112,759	106,294	6.1	1826†	95	Allentown, Pa.	73,502	51,913	41.6	1752
28	Columbus, Ohio	237,031	181,511	30.6	1812	62	Wilmington, Del.	110,168	87,411	26.0	1732	96	Wichita, Kans.	72,217	52,450	37.7	1870
29	Louisville, Ky.	234,891	223,928	4.9	1778	63	Cambridge, Mass.	109,694	104,839	4.6	1630	97	Tulsa, Okla.	72,075	18,182	296.4	1887
30	St. Paul, Minn.	234,698	214,744	9.3	1838	64	Reading, Pa.	107,784	96,071	12.2	1748	98	Troy, N. Y.	72,013	76,813	6.2‡	1752
31	Oakland, Calif.	216,261	150,174	44.0	1852	65	Fort Worth, Texas	106,482	73,312	45.2	1849	99	Sioux City, Iowa	71,227	47,828	48.9	1849
32	Akron, Ohio	208,435	69,067	201.8	1825	66	Spokane, Wash.	104,437	104,402	*	1873	100	South Bend, Ind.	70,983	53,684	32.2	1331
33	Atlanta, Ga.	200,616	154,839	29.6	1845	67	Kansas City, Kans.	101,177	82,331	22.9	1886†						
34	Omaha, Nebr.	191,601	124,096	54.4	1854	68	Yonkers, N. Y.	100,176	79,803	25.5	1788						

* Less than one tenth of one per cent.
† Date of separation from an older city or town.
‡ Decrease.

COMPARATIVE SIZE OF THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

(Scale, 100 miles to 1 inch.)



The squares of which the left-hand lower corners coincide, and which are inclosed by solid lines, indicate the areas of the several States. Those arranged on the right of the diagram and bounded by broken lines, indicate the areas of foreign countries, and are inserted for the sake of comparison. Where two States are of nearly equal area they are of necessity represented by a single square, *e. g.*, South Dakota and Nebraska; also Vermont and New Hampshire; etc. The areas of the several States, as given in the following table, are land areas from the computations of the Geographer of the United States Census.

	States.	Foreign Countries.	Sq. Miles.
1.	Texas		262,398
		France	212,659
		Spain	194,783
		Sweden	173,035
		Germany	171,910
2.	California		155,652
		Japan	148,756
3.	Montana		146,201
		Poland	141,854
		Italy	123,000
4.	New Mexico		122,503
		Roumania	122,282
		Great Britain and Ireland	121,633
5.	Arizona		113,810
6.	Nevada		109,821
7.	Colorado		103,658
		Jugo-Slavia	101,254
8.	Wyoming		97,594
9.	Oregon		95,607
10.	Idaho		83,354
11.	Utah		82,184
12.	Kansas		81,774
13.	Minnesota		80,858
14.	South Dakota		76,868
15.	Nebraska		76,808
16.	North Dakota		70,183
17.	Oklahoma		69,414
18.	Missouri		68,727
19.	Washington		66,836
20.	Georgia		58,725
21.	Michigan		57,480
		Czecho-Slovakia	56,316
22.	Illinois		56,043
23.	Iowa		55,586
24.	Wisconsin		55,256
25.	Florida		54,861
26.	Arkansas		52,525
27.	Alabama		51,279
		England	50,874
		Hungary	50,000
28.	North Carolina		48,740
29.	New York		47,654
30.	Mississippi		46,362
31.	Louisiana		45,409
32.	Pennsylvania		44,832
		Cuba	44,164
		Greece	41,933
33.	Tennessee		41,687
34.	Ohio		40,740
35.	Virginia		40,262
36.	Kentucky		40,181
37.	Indiana		36,045
		Portugal	35,490
		Ireland	32,586
		Austria	32,516
38.	South Carolina		30,495
39.	Maine		29,895
40.	West Virginia		24,022
		Denmark	16,585
		Switzerland	15,976
		Netherlands	12,582
		Belgium	11,759
41.	Maryland		9,941
42.	Vermont		9,124
43.	New Hampshire		9,031
44.	Massachusetts		8,039
45.	New Jersey		7,514
46.	Connecticut		4,820
47.	Delaware		1,965
48.	Rhode Island		1,067
	District of Columbia		60

If shown on the same scale employed in the above diagram, the length of the side of the square representing

Former Russian Empire, except Poland and Finland	(Area, 8,247,624 sq. miles),	would be	28.7	inches.	United States, continental	(Area, 3,026,789 sq. miles),	would be	17.4	inches.
China	(" 4,277,170 "),	"	20.7	"	Commonwealth of Australia	(" 2,974,581 "),	"	17.2	"
United States, including all possessions	(" 3,743,615 "),	"	19.3	"	India	(" 1,802,629 "),	"	13.4	"
Canada	(" 3,729,665 "),	"	19.3	"	Argentina	(" 1,153,119 "),	"	10.7	"
Brazil	(" 3,275,510 "),	"	18.1	"	Mexico	(" 767,198 "),	"	8.8	"
					Alaska	(" 590,884 "),	"	7.7	"
					Union of South Africa	(" 473,100 "),	"	6.9	"

RECENT STATISTICS OF VARIOUS NATIONS.

NOTE. — Where recent census returns are not available trustworthy estimates have been used.

GOVERNMENT.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.	CAPITAL. Name.	Population.	RULER. Name.	Title.	National Debt.	Annual Revenue.	MONETARY UNIT. Name.	Value.
ABYSSINIA	350,000	8,000,000	Adis Abeba	40,000	Waizeru Zauditu	*Empress*			Talari	$0.45,2
AFGHANISTAN	245,000	6,380,000	Kabul	150,000	Amanullah Khan	*Ameer*		[1]$4,058,000	Rupee	0.32,4
ALBANIA	11,000	800,000	Durazzo	5,000						
ARGENTINA	1,153,119	8,379,159	Buenos Aires	1,637,155	Hipólito Irigoyen	*President*	...$866,380,000	..159,931,000	Peso	0.96,5
ARMENIA	26,130	2,159,000	Erivan	90,000						
AUSTRIA	32,516	6,412,430	Vienna	1,838,708	Dr. R. W. Kirchner,	*Pres. Nat. Assembly*	‡17,668,000,000	..736,890,000	Krone	0.20,3
AZERBAIJAN	40,000	4,615,000	Baku	250,000				..342,475,000	Ruble (gold)	0.51,5
BELGIUM	11,759	7,620,576	Brussels	679,031	Albert I.	*King*	..4,000,000,000	..155,431,000	Franc	0.19,3
Belgian Congo	909,654	7,000,000	Boma	3,300	E. J. M. Henry	*Governor-General*	67,510,000	9,425,000	Franc	0.19,3
BOLIVIA	514,155	2,889,970	{ Sucre	29,686	{	*President*	26,500,000	...12,198,000	Boliviano	0.38,9
			{ La Paz	100,097						
BRAZIL	3,275,510	30,492,275	Rio de Janeiro	975,818	Epitacio da Silva Pessoa	*President*	..1,118,546,000	..179,601,000	Milreis (1000 reis)	0.54,6
BRITISH EMPIRE	12,780,380	441,410,000	London	7,258,623	George V	*King of Great Britain,*	47,780,146,000	5,983,582,000	Pound	4.86,7
United Kingdom	121,633	45,516,259				*etc., and Emperor of India*	39,314,000,000	4,326,865,000		
England	50,874	34,045,290								
Wales	7,466	2,025,202								
Scotland	30,405	4,760,904	Edinburgh	333,883						
Ireland	32,586	4,390,219	Dublin	399,000						
Indian Possessions	1,802,629	315,156,396	Delhi	232,837	Baron Chelmsford	*Viceroy*	..1,546,237,000	..589,812,000	Rupee	0.32,4
Other Asiatic Possessions	166,242	9,353,000								
Commonwealth of Australia	3,065,121	5,340,543	Canberra		Lord H. W. Forster	*Gov.-Gen.*	..1,583,000,000	..213,768,000	Pound	4.86,7
Dominion of New Zealand	104,751	1,200,000	Wellington	95,235	Earl of Liverpool	*Gov.-Gen.*	856,875,000	..107,049,000	Pound	4.86,7
Dominion of Canada	3,729,665	8,361,000	Ottawa	87,062	Duke of Devonshire	*Governor-General*	..1,935,946,000	..313,084,000	Dollar	1.00,0
Newfoundland and Labrador	162,734	259,000	St. John's	34,045	Sir C. A. Harris	*Governor*	35,000,000	6,542,000	Dollar	1.00,0
Guiana and Honduras	98,072	353,000								
Union of South Africa	473,100	6,000,000	Pretoria	57,674	Prince Arthur of Connaught	*Gov.-Gen.*	780,766,000	...93,718,000	Pound	4.86,7
Other African Possessions	3,011,009	46,180,000								
Mediterranean Possessions	3,704	551,859								
Various Islands	39,393	2,643,516								
BULGARIA †	47,750	5,517,700	Sofia	102,812	Boris III	*Czar*	..2,158,000,000	...93,660,000	Lev (franc)	0.19,3
CHILE	289,829	3,945,538	Santiago	415,641	Arturo Alesandri	*President*	228,377,000	...91,223,000	Peso (gold)	0.36,5
CHINA	4,277,170	320,650,000	Peking	1,000,000	Hsu Shih-chang	*President*	..1,534,575,000	..287,659,000	{ Tael (hankwan)	1.20,7
									{ Yuan or dollar	0.77,7
COLOMBIA	440,846	5,071,101	Bogotá	137,571	M. F. Suárez	*President*	22,856,000	...17,330,000	Peso (silver)	0.97,3
COSTA RICA	23,000	459,423	San José	38,016	Julio Acosta	*President*	20,254,000	3,703,000	Colon (gold)	0.46,5
CUBA	44,164	2,898,905	Havana	360,517	Mario G. Menocal	*President*	63,289,000	..62,745,000	Peso	1.00,0
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA	56,316	13,914,336	Prague	616,631	Thomas G. Masaryk	*President*	625,896,000	1,571,787,000	Krone	0.20,3
DENMARK	16,585	3,170,979	Copenhagen	605,772	Christian X	*King*	161,700,000	..124,362,000	Krone	0.26,8
Colony (Greenland)	46,740	13,449								
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	19,332	955,159	Santo Domingo	26,812	H. S. Knapp	*Military Gov.*	13,358,000	6,019,000	Dollar (gold)	1.00,0
ECUADOR	116,000	2,000,000	Quito	70,000	José Luis Tamayo	*President*	25,756,000	6,821,000	Sucre	0.48,7
ESTHONIA	23,160	1,750,000	Revel	160,000	August Rei	*President of Constituent Assembly*		...206,703,000	Mark	0.19,3
FINLAND	125,689	3,329,146	Helsingfors	187,544	Kaarlo J. Stahlberg	*President*	 34,618,000	..335,178,000	Markka	0.19,3
FRANCE	212,659	41,475,523	Paris	2,888,110	Alexandre Millerand	*President*	46,025,000,000	2,180,000,000	Franc	0.19,3
Algeria	222,180	5,563,828	Algiers	172,397	M. Abel	*Governor-General*	34,787,000	...39,675,000	Franc	0.19,3
Colonies in Asia	256,196	17,268,728								
Colonies in Africa	3,746,790	23,546,000								
Madagascar and islands in Indian Ocean	229,760	3,817,014								
Colonies in Oceania	9,194	81,200								
Colonies in America	33,200	459,082								
GEORGIA	35,500	3,176,156	Tiflis	346,766	N. Zhordania	*President*				
GERMANY	171,910	55,086,000	Berlin	2,071,257	Friedrich Ebert	*President*	48,552,000,000	..890,481,000	Mark	0.23,8
Former Colonies	1,024,327	12,195,502								
GREECE	41,933	4,821,300	Athens	167,479	Constantine I.	*King*	469,367,000	..221,434,000	Drachma	0.19,3
GUATEMALA	48,290	2,003,579	Guatemala	90,000	Carlos Herrera	*President*	16,230,000	..110,937,000	Peso	0.72,3
HAITI	10,204	2,500,000	Port-au-Prince	120,000	Sudre Dartiguenave	*President*	24,983,000	3,057,000	Gourde	0.25,0
HEJAZ	100,000	750,000	Mecca	60,000	Husein ibn Ali	*King*				
HONDURAS	44,275	605,997	Tegucigalpa	28,950	Rafael López Gutiérrez	*President*	131,771,000	1,949,000	Peso	0.72,3
HUNGARY	50,000	8,500,000	Budapest	880,371	Admiral Nicholas von Horthy	*Regent*	[1]9,412,000,000	..609,717,000	Krone	0.20,3
ICELAND	39,709	85,183	Reykjavik	15,328	Christian X. (of Denmark)	*King*	5,240,000	649,000	Krone	0.26,8
ITALY	123,000	38,000,000	Rome	590,960	Victor Emmanuel III.	*King*	18,102,000,000	..984,247,000	Lira	0.19,3
Dependencies	590,430	2,000,000								
JAPAN	148,756	55,961,140	Tokyo	2,173,162	Yoshihito	*Emperor*	..1,300,000,000	..540,319,000	Yen	0.49,8
Dependencies	111,982	21,043,972								
JUGO-SLAVIA	101,254	14,361,459	Belgrade	90,890	Alexander	*Prince Regent*	[2]126,232,000	[3]41,724,000	Dinar	0.19,3
LATVIA	24,440	2,500,000	Riga	569,100	K. Ulmanis	*Premier*		[4]45,348,000		
LIBERIA	40,000	1,500,000	Monrovia	6,000	C. D. B. King	*President*	2,131,000	273,000	Dollar	1.00,0
LITHUANIA	36,532	4,651,000	Vilno	214,600	A. Smetona	*President*		[4]28,710,000		
LUXEMBURG	999	263,824	Luxemburg	20,355	Charlotte	*Grand Duchess*	7,575,000	8,237,000	Franc	0.19,3
MESOPOTAMIA	143,250	2,849,282	Bagdad	250,000	Sir P. Z. Cox	*Civil Commissioner*				
MEXICO	767,198	15,501,684	Mexico	471,000	Alvaro Obregón	*President*	500,000,000	...72,699,000	Dollar	1.00,0
MOROCCO	231,500	6,000,000	Rabat	37,548	Mulai Yusef	*Sultan*	78,966,000	...13,680,000		
NETHERLANDS	12,582	6,778,699	The Hague	352,079	Wilhelmina	*Queen*	981,349,000	..124,730,000	Florin	0.40,2
Colonies	781,463	47,165,022					91,871,000	..163,016,000		
NICARAGUA	49,200	746,000	Managua	41,538	Emiliano Chamorro	*President*	18,596,000	2,912,000	Cordoba	1.00,0
NORWAY	125,001	2,632,010	Christiania	259,445	Haakon VII.	*King*	256,000,000	..168,990,000	Krone	0.26,8
PALESTINE	9,000	647,850	Jerusalem	60,000	Herbert L. Samuel	*High Commissioner*		3,666,000	Pound (100 piasters)	4.94,3
PANAMA	32,380	450,000	Panama	61,369	Belisario Porras	*President*	7,101,000	3,147,000	Balboa	1.00,0
PARAGUAY	65,000	1,000,000	Asuncion	101,730	Manuel Gondra	*President*	13,515,000	5,382,000	Peso (gold)	0.96,5
PERSIA	628,000	9,000,000	Teheran	220,000	Ahmed Mirza	*Shah*	....[5]60,000,000	..[6]7,206,000	Kran	0.13,3
PERU	722,461	4,620,201	Lima	140,884	Augusto B. Leguia	*President*	34,015,000	...23,811,000	Libra	4.86,7
POLAND	141,854	30,072,381	Warsaw	820,180	Joseph Pilsudski	*President*	..1,356,600,000	[7]744,795,000		
PORTUGAL	35,490	5,957,985	Lisbon	435,359	Antonio J. de Almeida	*President*	..1,289,646,000	..122,645,000	Milreis (1000 reis)	1.08,6
Colonies	936,264	8,735,854								
ROUMANIA	122,282	17,393,149	Bucharest	308,987	Ferdinand I.	*King*	..1,022,000,000	..125,453,000	Leu	0.19,3
RUSSIA*	8,247,624	166,561,900	Moscow (?)	1,121,000	Unsettled; see HISTORY, pp. 137 ff.		25,000,000,000	...24,720,000	Ruble	0.51,5
Vassal States	107,000	1,896,000								
SALVADOR	13,176	1,298,621	San Salvador	65,667	Jorge Meléndez	*President*	11,098,000	6,729,000	Peso (silver)	0.72,3
SIAM	195,000	8,819,686	Bangkok	541,000	Rama VI. (Maha Vajiravudh)	*King*	32,616,000	...27,257,000	Tical	0.37,1
SPAIN	194,783	20,719,598	Madrid	652,157	Alfonso XIII.	*King*	..1,985,774,000	..218,218,000	Peseta	0.19,3
African Possessions	128,149	844,339								
SWEDEN	173,035	5,813,850	Stockholm	408,456	Gustavus V.	*King*	376,420,000	..258,498,000	Krona	0.26,8
SWITZERLAND	15,976	3,937,000	Bern	112,200	Edmond Schulthess	*President*	205,439,000	...44,737,000	Franc	0.19,3
SYRIA	106,740	3,133,500	Damascus	250,000	Gen. H. J. E. Gouraud	*High Commiss'r*				
TURKEY	174,300	8,000,000	Constantinople	1,203,000	Mohammed VI.	*Sultan*	..2,000,000,000	..149,449,000	Piaster	0.04,4
UKRAINE	498,100	46,000,000	Kiev	610,190	Simon Petlura	*President of Directory*		..392,494,000	Ruble	0.51,5
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	3,026,789	105,827,858**	Washington	437,571	Warren G. Harding	*President*	24,974,936,000	4,647,000,000	Dollar	1.00,0
Alaska	590,884	54,899	Juneau	3,500	Thomas Riggs, Jr	*Governor*				
Hawaii	6,449	255,912	Honolulu	83,327	C. J. McCarthy	*Governor*	9,194,000	9,668,000	Dollar	1.00,0
Panama Canal Zone	442	22,858			Col. Chester Harding	*Governor*				
Philippine Islands	115,026	10,350,640	Manila	266,943	Francis B. Harrison	*Gov.-General*	20,470,000	...27,390,000	Peso	0.50,0
Porto Rico	3,606	1,299,809	San Juan	48,716	Arthur Yager	*Governor*	9,516,000	...13,578,000	Dollar	1.00,0
Samoa, Virgin, and Guam islands	419	47,382								
URUGUAY	72,153	1,429,585	Montevideo	361,452	Baltasar Brum	*President*	164,308,000	...30,497,000	Peso (gold)	1.03,4
VENEZUELA	398,594	2,250,000	Caracas	86,880	Juan Vicente Gómez	*President*	28,983,000	8,704,000	Bolivar	0.19,3

† Population and area as estimated in 1917. A Bulgarian authority, after the Peace Treaty in 1920, credited Bulgaria with about 35,000 square miles and 4,500,000 population.

‡ Includes 69 per cent of the Austro-Hungarian debt. * Figures are for Russian Empire, omitting Poland and Finland, but retaining all other new States. ** Includes 117,238 in the U.S. Military and Naval service abroad. [1] Includes 31 per cent of the Austro-Hungarian debt. [2] National debt of Serbia in 1913. [3] Revenue of Serbia in 1914. [4] Figures from Russian budget of 1913. [5] Approximate only. [6] For 1913–14. [7] For 9 months only, ending March 31, 1920.

INDEX

TO THE

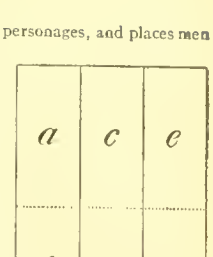
REFERENCE HISTORY OF THE WORLD.

THE Table of Contents and the Preface, preceding the History, should be read in order quickly to comprehend the plan and scope of the History and to make full use of it. The aim in this INDEX has been to cover all important references to periods, events, places, persons, and the like, each under its specific name. Events are given under the names of the places where they occurred. Thus, *battle of Actium* is under ACTIUM, *Congress of Berlin*, under BERLIN, *Treaty of Versailles*, under VERSAILLES, etc. Besides this specific indexing, much of the information is otherwise indexed under topics, as *Aviation*, *Prohibition*, *Socialism*, *Woman Suffrage*, so that the whole forms a topical analysis as well as index.

In the case of all countries of any importance the index shows, under the name of the country (as, for instance, *France*), the page on which begins the historical outline of the country, its organization, including government, religion, industry and labor, education, defense, etc., and its chronology; and in addition are listed all other places where the country, or events or persons important in its history, are treated in the histories of *other* countries or periods. These "other references" are especially useful in tracing the earlier history of a state through the medieval and early modern periods down to the time when its individual chronology begins, after which time the events contained in this chronology do not, of course, need to be indexed in detail under that country. All of the items under a country's name or under a topic are arranged both chronologically and alphabetically, as in the History itself.

Besides the direct references from one country or section of the History to another, cross references have been freely used, as in the History, to link the treatments together or suggest phases of a question that may not at first be evident. It should be remembered in this connection that many names of the important events, personages, and places mentioned in the History will also be found in the main vocabulary of the Dictionary, the Biographical section, or the Gazetteer, to which further reference may be made.

EXPLANATIONS: Reference numbers, as 16a, 16f, indicate page and column location of the item in the History. The numeral shows the page; the letter shows the column and also whether the upper or lower half of the column is meant, "a" indicating the *upper* half of the *first* column, "b" the *lower* half of the first column, "c" the upper half of the second column, "d" the lower half, "e" the upper half of the third column, and "f" the lower half. This simple method of referring directly to the different parts of a page is shown by the accompanying diagram. Where several references to a name or event are to the same half column in the History, semicolons separate the distinct items, and the page and column reference is given after the last item only.



Abbreviations have been freely used in the index, care being taken to use only such as are well established or obvious. Such abbreviations as Fr., Ger., etc., are to be read "France", "French", "Germany", "Germans", "German", as the sense or the construction demands. The following special abbreviations have been used:

assas. assassinated
bat. battle
bet. between
cap. capital, captures, -d
capt. captures, -d
conq. conquers, -ed, -or
d. dies, died
depend. dependency
disc. discovers
dyn. dynasty
emp. empire, emperor, empress
exhib. exhibition
exped. expedition
fnd. founds, -ed
fr. from
insurr. insurrection
kdm. kingdom
Roum. Roumania, -oian
set. settled, -ment
sur., surr. surrenders, -ed
Sw. Sweden, Swedish
Switz. Switzerland
trans. transferred
Venez. Venezuela

A.

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—, 7th Earl of, gov.-gen. Can., 72c.
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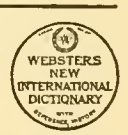

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